### U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

JAMES J. DAVIS, Secretary

#### BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

ETHELBERT STEWART, Commissioner

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# MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

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### Standardization of Output by Agreement.1

By Ethelbert Stewart, United States Commissioner of Labor Statistics.

AY it not be true that we are neglecting the most practical, the easiest, and the simplest method of solution of the output problem? For years the slogan of both capital and labor has been "A fair day's wage for a fair day's work." Statistics on cost of living have enabled us, for a number of years past, to be fairly definite in fixing a fair day's wage on the basis of living costs. I venture to say, however, that there is practically nothing tangible in any large industry that can be used to determine what is a fair day's work. We have standardized but one end of our problem and left the other dangling in the air.

What I wish particularly to call attention to now is that what constitutes a fair day's work can be ascertained in any industry or any occupation; that employers and employees can as readily agree upon a fair day's work as upon a fair day's wage; that each industry has the means at its disposal for ascertaining a fair day's work; and my proposition is that these be written into the agreements or made the subjects of subsidiary agreements between employers and employees.

I have in mind a very recent experiment along this line. In a men's clothing establishment employing a large number of people the 1921 wage scale was agreed upon, the wage scale merely intimating that a standard of output would be made the subject of a subagree-This subagreement was worked out by a committee of workers, selected by the employees, and the labor manager and other representatives of the employers, who developed a standard basic output for each operation. It lists all operations in the making of a coat or a suit of clothes, the agreed output for 1920 and the agreed output for 1921. The increases in the agreed output for 1921 over the agreed output for 1920 range, in cases where any change at all was made, from 4 per cent to as high as 51 per cent in one case; and to make this matter more clear, I attach hereto a list of the operations with the production per operative per day of eight hours in 1920 and in 1921 and the per cent of increase. This is a base line and entitles the operative to earn the standard weekly wage in this factory. For those who can produce more there are other grades. For instance, this standard, or what we would call in the printing trade a "dead line," is known as "class A." To reach the output in class A entitles one to the standard weekly wage. To enter class B one must produce 10 per cent above the standard for a period of three weeks in succession. Class C is for those whose production averages 20 per cent above the standard for three weeks. Class D is for those whose output reaches 30 per cent above the standard for a The pay is increased for each of these period of three weeks. grades in an amount equivalent to the increased output. In this particular factory standard A is not exactly a dead line. A person

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Part of an address before the Eighth Annual Convention of the Association of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada, New Orleans, La., May 2-5, 1921.

who is unable to make class A and whose output falls to 20 per cent below class A output for a period of three weeks is put into a subgrade, practically a learners' group, where such person remains until the output is increased to standard.

You may ask "What is the difference between this and piece rates?" The answer is that it does not drive the workers to anything like the extent that piecework does; it does not tend to reduce piece rates if one does produce a large output, and it has, what to my mind is a much more important thing, the moral advantage of being an agreed fair day's work for a fair day's wage.

In a great many industries output has been a part of the collective bargaining, a part of the agreement; and if it can be done in so complicated an industry as the clothing industry it is rather absurd to say that it can not be done in the building trades and in a great many, if not all, of the various industries.

CHANGE IN STANDARDS OF PRODUCTION IN A LARGE MEN'S CLOTHING ESTABLISHMENT BETWEEN YEARS 1920 AND 1921—NUMBER OF PIECES PER 8-HOUR DAY IN EACH OF THE YEARS, BY OPERATION.

Operation.	Production p per 8-hou	er person, ir day.	Per cent of
	1920	1921	increase.
Making flaps and welts	95	105	1
Making patenes	60	74	2
Joining gores	320	350	1
Pressing gores	375	388	
Sewing on Dockets.	95	105	1
Stiteming on patches	55	57	1
Tacking weits	100	115	1
racking pockets	60	70	î
Joining seams	170	179	
Serging seams (after forming)	170	209	2
Piping seams. Drawing in armholes.	125	150	20
Drawing in armholes	323	374	16
ressing seams and pockets	120	125	1
Dasting canvas	185	198	1
rutting in shoulder bads	450	450	
radding lapels	125	140	15
Lacking Dockets to canvas	200	251	26
rressing fronts	440	580	32
Shaping	110	120	9
Making lillings	58	66	14
rust underdasting	170	200	18
second underpasting	150	185	2
sewing and trimming vokes	155	199	28
sewing cape.	176	184	
sewing buttons	305	352	18
riping pottoms	350	387	11
basing facings and pottoms	95	114	20
Lacking Dolloms	495	495	20
Tacking facing to canvas	100	115	18
pasting inling by machine	354	426	20
	190	230	21
Dewilly ellow seams and vent	77	83	8
sewing underarm seam and sleeve lining	100	115	15
sewing in sieeves	95	85	10
rressing shoulder and armhole	77	110	43
pasting shoulder and armhole	40	48	20
basting on undercollar	68	68	20
ressing undercollar	300	452	51
Shaping collar	400	445	11
riting top conar	235	274	17
bewing in ends of top collar	306	337	10
waking top collar	321	38	17
ening collar edge	80	90	13
stitching edges	187	200	7
ressing shapes	450	600	33
Aachine felling	95	117	23
Buttonhole marking	500	600	20
Edge pressing	152	174	14
Shoulder pressing	130	150	15
Sleeve pressing	260	312	20
Body pressing	20	251	28
Button marking	370	450	22

Wages and Hours of Labor in Five Chinese Cities, 1917 and 1920.

By TA CHEN, M. A., Sometime Fellow of Columbia University.

IN ADDITION to a general discussion of Chinese labor conditions appearing elsewhere in this issue, the following tables have been compiled to show specifically wages and hours of labor, by occupations, in five Chinese cities. The cities selected represent in a general way several industrial sections of China. Shanghai, the first city considered, has a population of a million, and is a leading commercial and industrial center of the nation. About 210 miles west of the mouth of the Yangtze River lies Nanking, the second city for which figures are shown. Nanking is connected with Tientsin in the north by railroad and with Hankow in the west by steamboat, and has 378,000 inhabitants. Peking, the third city noted, has a population of 802,000 and is not only the national capital but also a manufacturing center in north China. Tai-yuen, the fourth, is the capital of Shansi, one of the inland Provinces in northwestern China. It has heretofore been isolated from the rest of the country geographically and socially, but recently remarkable progress in civil administration has been made in the Province of Shansi, and its industries have been developing at a rapid rate. The population of Taiyuen is 95,916. Amoy, the fifth city considered, is in Fukien, and claims to be a pioneer city in international trade, the port being opened in 1842 by the Treaty of Nanking. It has a population of 114,000 and its commerce and industry stand high in southeastern

For Shanghai, Nanking, Peking, and Tai-yuen, the information covers two years, i. e., 1917 and 1920. The data for 1917 are taken from the Sixth Annual Report of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, published in August, 1920, in Peking. For 1920, the Labor Number of La Jeunesse, May, 1920, is the chief source of information, though a number of Chinese reports and journals have

been consulted.

The statistical unit of presentation in these reports is not the same, the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce taking the circuit, and La Jeunesse, the city. The circuit covers much wider territory than the For example, 12 districts are included in the circuit of which Shanghai is the principal city. The ministry's report does not specify the way in which the average for the circuit was computed. If each district is given equal weight, the average for the circuit would be reduced considerably by the relatively lower wages in the outlying districts. If weights have been used, the average for the circuit, though necessarily lower than that for its principal city, would be nearer to the latter. Statistically speaking, then, the data for 1917 and for 1920 are not strictly comparable, though for the sake of convenience they are put side by side in the same table. Since this is the first time that Chinese labor statistics have been presented to the English reading public in a rather detailed manner and covering considerable areas, both sets of figures are of special interest irrespective of their noncomparability.

Regarding Amoy, the presentation of the material is slightly different, the data for 1921 being taken from a report of the American

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See post, pp. 16 to 30.

consul at Amoy, submitted on April 25, 1921, to the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Washington, D. C. For the year 1917, the Sixth Annual Report of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce is used.

As for the reliability of sources, the American consul states that the Amoy figures "are obtained from three separate sources and are probably substantially correct." La Jeunesse, a monthly magazine printed in Chinese, made the first extensive survey of labor conditions in China, and a portion of the results of this survey was used in the Monthly Labor Review of December, 1920 (pp. 207–212). The report by the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce is the latest official report on the subject. Taken all in all, it is believed that the figures are approximately accurate.

figures are approximately accurate.

In considering working hours, it must be borne in mind that Chinese workers usually have no holiday on Sundays, except in a limited number of factories, mining concerns, and leading establishments in trading ports, foreign leaseholds, and settlements. In agriculture and various trades, the number of holidays per year for each worker hardly exceeds from 30 to 35 days.

Wages for time work are paid in three principal ways: With board, without board, and with board and lodging. Besides regular pay, tradesmen, servants, and unskilled workers receive, in many cases, tips and seasonal gifts, which constitute important items of their income. Since the Great War, wages have increased considerably, as shown by several Chinese reports. In Shanghai the increase has been about 80 per cent, in Peking 50 to 60 per cent, in Nanking 45 per cent, in Tai-yuen 35 per cent, and in Amoy 25 to 30 per cent.

Information of special interest is given in the "Remarks" column. Among other things, the column outlines three phases of Chinese industrial life. The very old phase is dominated by the guilds, which are most active in trades requiring high skill, such as carpentry, carving, and painting. The very new phase is the labor union, which was ushered in with modern industries such as railways, mining, and factories. Between them stands the intermediate group of workers whose attitude toward the guild or the union largely depends on the degree of influence from the one or the other. Thus, the Shanghai tailors are inclined towards the union, and the masons in Peking toward the guild.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The American consul at Amoy considers the relatively lower increase of wages in Amoy as being an indication of unsatisfactory labor conditions in that town. He states that an average of 60,000 Chinese from this district emigrate each year to Singapore and other countries to the south, that in 1920 about \$14,000,000 gold was remitted by overseas Chinese for the support of their families, and that thousands of homes are literally supported by these remittances.

[Wages shown are in Chinese silver dollars, worth about 48 cents in gold.] Shanghai.

Industry and occupation.	1920	19171	Hours per day.	Remarks.
Automobiles:				
Total employees	6,000			
Daily wage— Chauffeurs	\$0, 83-\$1, 20		10	
Helpers	\$0.50			
Barbers: Total employees	24, 000			The barbers' guild was re
Daily wage	<sup>2</sup> \$0, 20–\$0, 30		11	The barbers' guild was recently reorganized, rules wer revised, and officers' pay was in creased. The head barber receives 70 per cent of gross receipt and the workers 30 per cent When temporarily unemployed the worker gets board and lodging.
Bathhouses:				The manieures' guild is active
Number of establishments.	60			its initiation fee is \$10 per mem-
Total employees	2,100			ber. Four rules deserve men tion: (1) Uniform wage: (2) fre medical care to sick members
Back scratchers.	8 \$0. 30-\$0. 50		13	medical care to sick members
Barbers	3 \$0, 40-\$0, 65		13	(3) guild's loan to unemployed
Manicures Waiters	8 \$0.30-\$0.50 8 \$0.35-\$0.60		13 13	(4) guild's festival on thirteenth day of seventh moon, for common
	- φυ, συ- φυ, συ		10	worship and entertainment.
Blacksmithing:	1.000			
Total employees			1	
Daily wage— Apprentices.	(4)		12	
Journeymen	3 \$0, 50-\$0, 70		12	
Masters	\$1.00-\$3.70		12	
Number of establishments.	15			
Total employees Daily wage—	600			
Apprentices	2 \$0.10		12	
Foremen	\$1.00		12	
Workers	\$0.30-\$0.60		12	
Number of establishments	15			
Total employees	550			
Carpentry:	\$0. 17, \$0. 24-\$0. 34		(9)	Fight guilds representing
Total employees	70,000			Eight guilds, representing a subdivisions of the industry
Dally Wage—	2 00 00		10	have a membership of 20,000
Coolies, unskilled Masters (furniture)	<sup>3</sup> \$0, 30 <sup>3</sup> \$1, 00–\$1, 40	3 \$0, 25-\$0, 55	12 12	Coolies are not admitted to the guild.
Carriages:		\$0.35-\$0.65	12	
Total employees	2,000			
Daily wage	\$0.34-\$0.40		(6)	
Daily wage. Carving (wood and ivory): Daily wage.	3 \$0. 25-\$0. 35		(5)	
	201. 201-201. 201		(5)	
Coppersmithing: Daily wage		2 20 00 20 07	and the same	
			(5)	
Daily wage		\$0.10-\$0.30	(5)	
Electricity: Total employees				
1)211 V W200-				
Chinese companies— Foremen.	** ** ** **			
Workers	\$0.50-\$0.84 8 \$0.17-\$0.50		10 19	
	\$0, 50-\$0, 84 8 \$0, 17-\$0, 50 \$0, 50-\$0, 60		8	
Foreign companies—				
Foremen. Section hands	\$1,00-\$1,17 \$0,74-\$0,84		8 8	
Workers	\$0.74-\$0.84 \$0.67-\$0.77		8	
Farming:				
Daily wage— Males		8 \$0, 36	(5)	
		3 \$0. 24		

<sup>1</sup> Wages for 1917 are for the circuit of Woo Hai, which includes 12 districts, Shanghai being the principal city.

And board and lodging.

And board.

Board and lodging only.

Not reported.

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#### Shanghai—Continued.

Industry and occupation.	1920	19171	Hours per day.	Remarks.
Gardening:				This includes workers in public
Number of establishments	1,000			and private parks and flower shops, 350 men of the latter group having just built their guild hall "King of Flowers," where dis putes between employer and em
Total employees	4,000			shops, 350 men of the latter group
Dailyr maga				having just built their guild hall
Skilled workers	2 \$0. 14-\$0. 24		1112	"King of Flowers," where dis
Unskilled workers	2 \$0. 07-\$0. 10		$11\frac{1}{2}$	proyees in the trade are to be
Gold and silver smithing:				settled.
Daily wage		8 \$0. 40	11	
Hat making: Daily wage				
Daily wage		3 \$0, 30	(5)	This is piecework. The new
Hosiery: Number of establishments	- 195			union demands the closed-shop
Daily wage-	120			policy.
Foremen	\$0.70-\$1.00		(6)	policy.
Foremen. Workers	\$0.60-\$1.00		(6)	
Hotels:	\$0.00 \$1.00			
Number of actablishmenta	102			
Daily wage— Porters Waiters				
Porters	3 \$0. 40-\$0. 80		(6)	
Waiters	8 \$0. 50-\$1. 00		(6)	m 111 11 11 ct
ncense:				The guild formed by Shangha
ncense: Number of establishments Total employees Daily wage	50			workers demands the closed shop policy. For Shanghai workers a day's work is 18 "chang loo" (about one-third of a pound)
Doily work	550		101	ore a day's work is 18 "chang
Dany wage	\$0.21		102	loo"(about one-third of a pound)
				for immigrant workers, 25" chang
				loo" Pay for 1 month is hased
				on 32 days, months having less
				than 30 days on account of sick
				on 32 days, months having less than 30 days on account of sick ness, holidays, or other necessary
				absence being counted as 30 days
Zianaman Daala				a month.
Kiangnan Dock: Total employees	4 700 7 000			Rifle, machinery, steel, car- tridge, and shell departments have similar classes of workers
Daily wage, gun depart-	4, 500-7, 000			have similar classes of worker
ment-				with similar grades of nav. It
Engineers	\$1.00-\$2.70		9	with similar grades of pay. It busy times night work of two hours is added with an increase of one-third to one-half of daily
Foremen	\$0, 80-\$1, 34		9	hours is added with an increase
Foremen. Section hands.	\$0.60-\$0.90		9	of one-third to one-half of daily
Workers	\$0.30		9	wage.
Minors	8 \$0, 10-\$0, 20		9	
Leather goods manufactur-				
ing:		9 00 00 00 45	15	
Daily wage		\$0. 20-\$0. 45	(5) (5)	
Maid servants:		\$0.50-\$0.55	(0)	Tips are a big item in their in-
D 11				nome Wat nurses receive good
Beauty experts	2 \$0, 17-\$0, 24		(6)	food, clothing, and jewelry be sides regular pay.
Household maids	2 \$0, 04-\$0, 07		(6)	sides regular pay.
Beauty experts  Household maids  Needle workers  Wet nurses	2 \$0. 14-\$0. 20		(6)	
Wet nurses	2 \$0. 17-\$0. 30		(6)	
Daily wage		3 \$0. 20	10	
		\$0.30	10	
Mat making: Daily wage		3 \$0, 20	(5)	
Daily wage		\$0.20	(5) (5)	
Matches:			(0)	
Number of establishments	15			
Total employees	500			
Daily wage, males	\$0.30-\$0.50		(5)	K (A)
famalas	7 \$0. 10			
remaies				
Matches: Number of establishments. Total employees. Daily wage, males. females. Municipal council:				
Total employees	600			
Total employees	600			
Daily wage— Gardeners, road repairers.	\$0, 26		9	<u></u>
Daily wage— Gardeners, road repairers, street sweepers, and	\$0, 26		9	
Daily wage— Gardeners, road repairers, street sweepers, and tree planters. Headman temporary	\$0, 26			
Daily wage— Gardeners, road repairers, street sweepers, and	\$0, 26 \$0, 60		9	

<sup>1</sup> Wages for 1817 are for the circuit of Woo Hai, which includes 12 districts, Shanghai being the principal city.

2 And board and lodging.

3 And board.

Not reported.

6 No definite hours.

7 Per 1,000 boxes, done by young girls.

# WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN SHANGHAI, NANKING, PEKING, TAI-YUEN, $\Delta ND$ $\Delta MOY{-}Continued.$

Shanghai—Continued.

Industry and occupation.	1920	19171	Hours per day.	Remarks.
Ontical company				For the first 2 months the ap-
Optical company: Number of establishments	10			nrentice gets no nav. after the
Total employees	750			he gets a nominal nave three year
Daily ware	100			prentice gets no pay; after tha he gets a nominal pay; three year later he gets \$1 a day withou
Daily wage— Experts. Apprentices.	\$2.30		10	board.
Apprentices	\$2.00		10	DOME G.
Paper making:			1.0	
Daily wage		8 \$0, 25-\$0, 35	(5)	
Post office:		40.00	1	The head men get a yearly in
Number of establishments	18			
Total employees	2,500			here listed get a yearly increas
Daily wage—				of \$1. They are all advised to
Daily wage— Head men	\$0.67-\$1.00		8-10	take lessons at Y. M. C. A., 5
	\$0.35		8-10	per cent of their tuition being
Letter carriers	\$0, 39-\$0, 99		8-10	ferease of \$2 and the other worker here listed get a yearly increas of \$1. They are all advised take lessons at Y. M. C. A., 5 per cent of their tuition being borne by the post office. They have no work on Sundays.
				have no work on Sundays.
Mail sorters Unskilled workers Printing and publishing:	\$0.60-\$1.00		8-10	
Unskilled workers	\$0.30		8-10	mi
Printing and publishing:	10			Chang Has Posts Co have n
Number of establishments	40			Chung Hua Book Co. have he
Total employees				sunday work. Other companie
Daily wage— Apprentices	00 04 00 04		9	The commercial press and the Chung Hua Book Co, have no Sunday work. Other companie usually give two holidays per month. Binders are paid from 1 to 3 cents per book, and folder from 2 to 9 cents per 1,000 pages
Apprentices	\$0.04-\$0.34		9	1 to 3 cents per book and folder
Binders (female)	\$0. 80-\$1. 84 e0 50		9	from 2 to 9 cents per 1 000 pages
Foreman	en 67 e1 70		9	from 2 to 9 cents per 1,000 pages
ForemenLaborers	\$0.07-\$1.70		9	
Railways:	\$0. 54-\$1. 00		0	Porters get no regular wage
Number of establishments	9			but tips amount to about \$1 pe
Total employees	1 500			day.
Daily wage—				and .
Baggage men	\$0.50		8	
Baggage men	\$0, 75		8	
Firemen		A CONTRACTOR OF THE	- X	
Locomotive engineers	\$2,00-\$3,40		8	
Firemen Locomotive engineers Signal men	\$0.34		8	
Rattan making: Daily wage				
Daily wage		\$0.30	(5)	m
Restaurants:				Tips bring the earnings of
Number of establishments	78			walters up to from \$24 to \$40 pe
Total employees	2,000			etrile restaurant workers formed
Total employees. Daily wage— Cooks Head cooks. Head waiters. Waiters. Rice milling	3 90 40		14	Tips bring the earnings of waiters up to from \$24 to \$40 pe month. After the students strike, restaurant workers formed a union and issued the People' Daily, which has since been discontinued.
Head cooks	8 \$1 00		14	Daily, which has since been dis
Head waiters	8 \$0, 30-\$0, 54		14	continued.
Waiters	3 \$0. 14		14	
Rice milling:			1	
Number of establishments	39			
Number of establishments Total employees Daily wage	675			
Daily wage	\$0.30-\$0.40	3 \$0. 18	12 12	
		\$0.30	12	
Sauce making: Number of establishments. Total employees. Daily wage	444			
Number of establishments	144			
Total employees	2,000	8 90 15	14	
Daily wage	° 50. 10-50. 17	\$0.15 \$0.25	14	
Cominge		\$0,20	1.7	
Sawing: Daily wage		3 \$0.30	(5)	
Shoe (leather) manufactur-		φυ. συ	()	
ing.				
ing: Number of establishments	212			
Number of establishments Total employees	6, 300			
Apprentices	3 0-\$0.10		12	
Apprentices	3 \$0.60-\$0.70		12	
Masters	3 \$1. 20		12	
Shoe (silk) manufacturing:				
Number of establishments	2,500			
Total employees	24,000			
Daily wage—	2 24 00		10	
Daily wage— Masters,male Masters,female Sole fixers, female	3 \$1.00		12	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Wages for 1917 are for the circuit of Woo Hai, which includes 12 districts, Shanghai being the principal city.

<sup>3</sup> And board.

<sup>5</sup> Not reported.

### Shanghai—Concluded.

Industry and occupation.	1920	19171	Hours per day.	Remarks.
Tailors:			-	After the fifteenth of the eighth
Total employees Daily wage—	4,700		10	moon the worker's wage is doubled (with the addition of
Apprentices	<sup>8</sup> \$0. 10–\$0. 24	3 \$0. 20	10	night work). The guild has re- organized and has a strong desire to adopt labor-union rules.
Tea manufacturing: Daily wage—				to adopt tabor-union rates.
To	3 \$1, 00		11	
Tea pickers, female	3 \$0. 36-\$0. 44 3 \$0. 28-\$0. 80		11	Tea picking is piecework, usu-
Workers	3 \$0. 28-\$0. 80		11	ally done by young girls.
Tilers—daily wage		3 \$0. 20	(5)	
		\$0.30	(5)	and the second second second second
Tobacco:				The workers are divided into
Total employees Daily wage—	20,000			day and night shifts.
Coolies	\$0. 25		111	
Foremen	\$0.50-\$2.70		111	
Machinists	\$0.50-\$1.00		112	
Workers, male		8 \$0. 20		
*** 1	\$0.40-\$0.50			
Workers, female Varnishing and painting:			112	
Number of establishments	3,500			
Total employees Daily wage—	13, 500			
Apprentices			12	
Journeymen	<sup>8</sup> \$0. 30–\$0. 33		12	
Masters	<sup>3</sup> \$0. 36–\$0. 50	3 \$0. 20	12	
		\$0. 25	12	
Water supply:	4=0			
Total employees				
Daily wage— Blacksmiths	80 47 80 67		101	
Boiler tenders				
Carpenters	\$1.40 \$0.20.80.44			Market State of the State of th
Engineers				
Wheelbarrows:	91. 40-52. 70		102	
Total employees	15,000			
Daily wage	\$0 50-80 80		11	
Daily Wage	φυ. συ φυ. ου		11	

#### Nanking.

Industry and occupation.	1920	1917 8	Hours per day.	Remarks.
Automobiles: Number of establishments. Total employees. Daily wage. Barber shops: Number of establishments. Total employees. Daily wage.	(5) 3 \$0.50 300 1,500 2 \$0.22-\$0.32		(6)	At the close of each day's work the head barber gives each of his men 35 per cent of the amount turned in by him during the day. The wage here given represents the worker's share.
Blacksmithing—daily wage		3 \$0.10-\$0.30 3 \$0.15-\$0.30	(5) (5) (5)	the worker's share.
Carpentry—daily wage	8 \$0.30-\$0.40	\$0. 20-\$0. 40 3 \$0. 18-\$0. 22 \$0. 28-\$0. 32	(5) 9 9	

<sup>1</sup> Wages for 1917 are for the circuit of Woo Hai, which includes 12 districts, Shanghai being the principal city.

2 And board and lodging.

3 And board.

6 Not reported.

6 No definite hours.

5 Wages for 1917 are for the circuit of Ching Ling, which includes 6 districts, Nanking being the principal city.

city.

#### Nanking—Continued.

Industry and occupation.	1920	19178	Hours per day.	Remarks.
Carriages:				
Number of establishments.	210			
Daily wage	3 \$0.30		12	
Cart manufacturing—daily	\$0.60		12	
waga		3 \$0. 20-\$0. 40	(5)	
wage	\$0.50-\$1.00	· 40.20-00.40	(6)	
Carving (wood and ivory):	40.00 42.00		1	There is night work of about
Total employees	131			hours between the ninth moor
Daily wage—	4.1			and the third moon, with extra pay of 10 per cent of daily wage
Apprentices	(4) 3 \$0.40		10	pay of 10 per cent of daily wage
Journeymen	8 90 50	3 \$0.10-\$0.30	10	
Diastels	φυ. ου	\$0.30-\$0.50	10	
Cloth:		90100 90100	10	
Number of establishments.	8			
Total employees	2,500			
Daily wage, males	\$0.35-\$0.45		8	
Daily wage, females Coppersmithing:	\$0.25-\$0.55		8	
Number of establishments.	21			
Total employees	126			
Daily wage	3 \$0.10-\$0.20	8 \$0.20-\$0.50	10	
Dyeing:				
Daily wage—	3 \$0. 20-\$0. 30	,	1, 0	
Drier	3 \$0.25-\$0.35	3 \$0.20-\$0.30	9 9	
Cleaner	3 \$0. 25-\$0. 35	φ0.20-φ0.30	9	
Farming.				
Daily wage, males	(5)	2 \$0.12-\$0.32	(5)	
Daily wage, females	(5)	2 \$0.10-\$0.20	(5)	
Daily wage, males Daily wage, females. Ferry beat—daily wage Gold and silver smithing:	\$0.50-\$0.60		(6)	The sale but and a second as a
Number of establishments.	47			For night work, price and one half.
Daily wage	3 \$0.60-\$1.00	3 \$0.30-\$0.60	9	nan.
	\$0.10-\$0.30		9	
Hat making—daily wage	(5)	3 \$0.20-\$0.30	(5)	The state of the s
Hosiery:	20			Most of the workers are young
Number of establishments.	32 300			girls. There is no night work as nights are reserved for practice
Total employees	\$0.30		10	lessons of apprentices.
Incense: Total employées. Daily wage. Leather goods—daily wage. Letter carriers—daily wage. Masonry—daily wage.				
Total employees	250			
Daily wage	3 \$0.20-\$0.25	00 10 00 05	11	
Letter carriers—daily wage	\$0.27_\$0.40	\$0.10-\$0.25	$(5)$ $13\frac{1}{2}$	
Masonry—daily wage	3 \$0, 30-\$0, 40	3 \$0, 16-\$0, 25	102	
Mat making—daily wage		\$0.20-\$0.30	10	
Mat making—daily wage		3 \$0.16-\$0.20	(5)	
Mining		\$0.26-\$0.30	(5)	
Mining: Total employees	700			
Daily wage—coal miners	\$0. 27-80. 54		10	
Daily wage—iron miners	\$0.27-\$0.67		10	
Mint:				Those who work 16 hours get
Daily wage—	0.00 00 00 11			double pay.
Apprentices	8 \$0. 07-\$0. 14		8	
Foremen	\$2.00		8 8	
Section hands.	\$1,00		8	
Foremen. Section hands. Mule drivers—daily wage. Paper making—daily wage. Pleasure boats—daily wage.	\$0.50-\$1.00	<sup>3</sup> \$0.10–\$0.30	(6)	
Paper making—daily wage		3 \$0.10-\$0.30	(5)	m
Fleasure boats—daily wage	2 \$0.30		12	There are about 4 workers to a boat. Each boat earns \$3 to \$ a day. Thirty per cent of tota earnings is divided among the workers.
Printing and publishing—daily wage.	A STATE OF THE PARTY OF THE PAR	3 \$0. 10-80 40	(5)	WOIKEIS.
daily wage.		PO 40 PT 00	(5)	

<sup>2</sup> And board and lodging.
8 And board.
4 Board and lodging only.
5 Not reported.
5 No definite hours.
8 Wages for 1917 are for the circuit of Ching Ling, which includes 6 districts, Nanking being the principal city.

### Nanking—Concluded.

Industry and occupation.	1920	19178	Hours per day.	Remarks.
Railways:				Workers are divided into
Daile man				shifts, changing at 4 a. m. and p. m. The union's member
Engineers	\$0.67-\$1.00	barrer terastician	10	p. m. The union's member
Firemen	\$0.67-\$1.00 \$0.47		10	ship includes about two-fifths of
Laborers	\$0.50-\$0.65		10	the workers.
Laborers Locomotive engineers	\$0.80		10	0210 11 02210201
Rice milling.				Many of the workers are farm
Total employees	260			ers who return to the farms i
Total employees	3 \$0. 20-\$0. 30	3 \$0.14-\$0.30 \$0.24-\$0.40	10 10	Anhwei each spring.
Rickshaw company:		\$0.21 \$0.10	20	Day workers pay 20 cents for
Rickshaw company: Number of establishments.	95			the rickshaw, night workers 2 cents. This wage excludes the
Total employees	95 7,500			cents. This wage excludes th
Daily wage	\$0.45-\$0.60		12	rent.
Road repairers—daily wage	3 \$0.40		10	
Daily wage	\$0.45-\$0.60 \$0.40 \$0.17		(5)	Sweeps twice a day, 6 a. n
			1000	and 1 p. m.
Sauce making—daily wage		3 \$0. 20-\$0. 26	(5)	
		\$0. 23-\$0. 30	(5)	
auce making—daily wage awyers—daily wage		3 \$0. 24-\$0. 32	(5)	
Servants:				Occasional tips and gifts at th
Daily wage—	0.00 -00		(0)	Chinese New Year from employ
Males				ers constitute important items
Females—	0.00 10 00 00		(0)	income.
Beauty experts	<sup>2</sup> \$0. 10–\$0. 20		(6)	
Beauty experts Housekeepers Needle workers Wet nurses	2 \$0. 10–\$0. 15		(6)	
Needle workers	2 \$0. 20-\$0. 30		(6)	
Wet nurses	2 \$0. 20-\$0. 30		(0)	There is wight monty of one
				There is night work of one
Number of establishments	11,000			three hours after winter solstic
Total employees	60,000			When fancy-silk weaver is temp
Daily wage—	8 80 04 80 10		10	rarily unemployed he still ge board from employer. Spooling
Apprentices	° \$0. 04-\$0. 10		10 10	is done at home by famale wer
Loom tenders	\$0.40 en 10		10	is done at home by female wor
Minors	90.10 en 25		10	ers, of whom one-third are wi
Reeling girls Spoolers. Spoolers' helpers. Weavers, fancy silk. Weavers, plain silk.	\$0.30		10	ows and one-time young girls.
Spoolers' halpers	\$0.30 \$0.97		10	
Woovers foney silk	3 \$4 00		10	
Weavers, plain silk	\$3.00	.,	10	
Sill reeling			10	
Daily wage, males		3 \$0.40-\$0.60	(5)	
Daily wage, females		3 \$0.30-\$0.50	(5)	
			1	
Daily wage, males Daily wage, females		3 \$0.30-\$0.50	(5)	
Daily wage, females		3 \$0. 20-\$0. 30	(5)	
Tailors:				
Number of establishments.	1,000			
Total employees	4,500			
Daily wage		3 \$0. 16-\$0. 22		
Native style	<sup>2</sup> \$0. 25		1 103	
railors: Number of establishments. Total employees Daily wage Native style. Western style. Fea manufacturing—daily	\$0.75		. 9	
- ore management of certain by certain		3 \$0. 20-\$0. 23	(5)	
wage. Tea picking—daily wage	\$0.15-\$0.30		7	This is piecework. All worke
				are young girls.
Telegraph messengers—daily	<sup>3</sup> \$0. 10		(6)	For the delivery of a telegra
wage.				he receives a tip of 10 cents.
Tobacco—Daily wage		3 \$0. 22-\$0. 30	10	The second secon
		\$0.26-\$0.35	10	A Comment of the Comm
Towel manufacturing:				Average worker makes 30 to
Number of establishments	300			towels a day. Rates vary according to size of the towel. For fifths of workers are females.
Total employees	1,900 3 \$0.008-\$0.02			ing to size of the towel. For
Rate per towel	3 \$0.008-\$0.02		9	niths of workers are females.
varnisning:				
Total employees	500			
Daily wage	<sup>3</sup> \$0. 15–\$0. 30		. 8	The 2'
Waiters:				For dinners served outsi
Daily wage— At hotels	0.00 70 01		(1)	waiters receive tips, 10 per ce
At notels	2 \$0. 50-\$1. 10		(6)	of which goes to the treasurer the hotel or restaurant.
At restaurants	8 \$0.30-\$0.60		(6)	the notes or restaurant.

<sup>2</sup> And board and lodging.
3 And board.
5 Not reported.
6 No definite hours.
8 Wages for 1917 are for the circuit of Ching Ling, which includes 6 districts, Nanking being the principal lity. city.

### Peking.

Industry and occupation.	1920	19179	Hours per day.	Remarks.
Automobiles: Total employees	1 200			
Daily wage—	1,300			
Daily wage— Chauffeurs	\$1.10		10	
Helpers	\$0.40		10	11
HelpersBaggage handlers—daily wage Barbers—daily wage	\$0, 25-\$0, 35			Also receive tips. Also receive tips, usually more
Dai beis—dany wage	<sup>3</sup> \$0. 10 \$0. 20		11	than wage
Blacksmithing—daily wage	3 \$0. 23-\$0. 33	3 \$0. 10-\$0. 35	10	Apprentices get food and lodg ing only. The blacksmiths' guild is active.
Brewery—daily wage		3 \$0, 10-\$0, 33	(5)	guild is active.
Brewery—daily wage		\$0. 20-\$0. 45	(5) (5)	Endough the control of
Carpentry—daily wage	3 \$0. 57	3 \$0. 10-\$0. 40 \$0. 20-\$0. 50	11	The guild owns a cemetery in which members may be buried Traveling carpenters who go to villages to work on contract earn about 50 cents a day.
Carpet company:				about of control a day :
Number of establishments Total employees Daily wage	15			
Daily wage	\$0.40-\$0.50		10	
				Also get "food money" and
Total employees	1,300			tips from customers.
Daily wage— Drivers Helpers	\$0.50		11	
Helpers	\$0.35		11	
Carving, wood and ivory:				For urgent business absence is
Helpers Carving, wood and ivory: Daily wage	3 \$0, 20-\$0, 27	3 \$0, 18-\$0, 43 \$0, 27-\$0, 54	9	granted with pay. Holidays in clude New Year's, vacation of weeks, and 4 days for festivals
		\$0.27-\$0.54	9	weeks and 4 days for festivals
Number of establishments	30			
Total employees	100 \$0.35	3 80 25	10	
Number of establishments. Total employees. Daily wage. Coppersmithing—daily wage. Dyeing—daily wage. Electrical company:	90.00	3 \$0. 12-\$0. 38	(5)	
Dyeing—daily wage		3 \$0. 10-\$0. 35	(5)	
Electrical company: Total employees Daily wage	700			
Daily wage	\$0, 26-\$0, 40		8	
Daily wage, males		3 \$0. 05-\$0. 50	(5)	
Plour mills:		\$0.03-\$0.30	(5)	
Number of establishments	3			
Number of establishments Total employees	300			
Daily wage	\$0. 24-\$0. 40		. 11	Cial omployees get board by
Gold and silver smithing— Daily wage	3 \$0, 20-\$0, 40	3 \$0, 12-\$0, 40	10	Sick employees get board bu
Dany magorithms			-	no pay. Employees are some times employed on night work
TT / 11 1 11		2 00 10 00 00	(5)	with extra pay.
Hat making—daily wage Laundries:			(5)	
Daily wage—				
Daily wage— Ironing Washing. Leather goods manufactur-	\$0, 30-\$0, 60		. 10	
Washing	\$0.30-\$0.38	3 \$0, 10-\$0, 20	(5)	
ing—daily wage.		00.10-00.20	(,)	
ing daily mager		\$0, 20-\$0, 30	(5)	The second secon
Masonry:				The guild gives charity to poo
Masters	\$2.50			members and to poor families in the community.
Workers	\$0, 10-\$0, 30	3 \$0. 09-\$0. 38	10	
		\$0. 16-\$0. 47	10	
Daily wage— Masters. Workers.  Mat making—daily wage		\$0.04-\$0.18	(5) (5)	
Mint:	***************************************	φυ. 10-φυ. 20	(0)	For night work from 6 p. m. t
Total employees	. 110			9 p. m. one-third of daily wag
				is paid.
Common laborers	\$0.27-\$0.99		9 9	
TUICIHUII	\$1. 11-\$1. OX	1	-1	· ·

And board.
 Not reported.
 Wages for 1917 are for the circuit of Ching Shao, which includes 20 districts, Peking being the principal city

### Peking—Concluded.

Industry and occupation.	1920	19179	Hours per day.	Remarks.
Mule-cart driving: Number of establishments Total employees Daily wage— Common laborers Drivers. Paper manufacturing—daily	500 5,000 3 \$0.10-\$0.20 3 \$0.20-\$0.30		10	Besides these there are about 2,000 carts at parking places each earning \$1 a day; and 50 carts at railway stations for carrying baggage, each earning about 90 cents a day.
Paper manufacturing—daily		3 \$0. 16-\$0. 23	(5)	
naso.		\$0.20-\$0.00	(0)	The three classes of workers receive a yearly increase of \$0.75, \$1, and \$1.50, respectively.
Post office: Number of establishments. Total employees. Daily wage. Printing and publishing— daily wage. Rattan making—daily wage. Rice milling—daily wage. Rickshaw:	\$ \$0. 37, \$0. 67, \$1. 00 \$0. 27-\$0. 50	3 \$0. 12-\$0. 23 \$0. 22-\$0. 30	10 9 9	\$1, and \$1.50, respectively.
Rattan making—daily wage Rice milling—daily wage		3 \$0. 18-\$0. 34 3 \$0. 09-\$0. 25 \$0. 18-\$0. 34	(5) (5) (5)	The guild is active.
Total employees	60,000			
Contract by month Coolies	3 \$0. 60 \$0. 35-\$0. 60 3 \$0. 34		11 11 11	
Servants:		φυ, 10-φυ, 40	(0)	Tips amount to at least as
Daily wage, males. Daily wage, females. Silkworm raising:			(6) (6)	much as the wages.
Daily wage, males			(5)	
Number of establishments Total employees Daily wage Tailors—daily wage	\$0. 27-\$0. 33 \$ \$0. 15-\$0. 30	2 80 10-80 35	9	Sometimes there is night work,
Tea manufacturing — daily		3 80 10-80 30	(5)	lasting a candlelight, with extra pay.
wage.	***************************************	\$0, 20-\$0, 40	(5)	
wage. Telephone—daily wage Telegraph—daily wage Tilers: Daily wage—			9	Both masters and journeymen
Apprentices			10	get tips of 3 cents per day. Early in the morning all workers
Apprentices. Journeymen Masters	* \$0, 57		10 10	Early in the morning all workers gather at a tea house to get information about opportunities for employment; in Peking dialect it is called "Shan-kou-tse." Sabotage is commonly practiced in this trade. At 3 p. m. there is usually an intermission of 30 minutes when the workers drink to at the converse of the new tease.
Tobacco—daily wage		3 \$0 04_\$0 95	(5)	tea at the expense of the employer.
Tobacco—daily wage Toy makers—daily wage			(5) (5) 10	The apprentice gives one-half of his earnings to the master.
Varnishers and painters— daily wage	<sup>2</sup> \$0. 17-\$0. 30	\$0. 24-\$0. 50	11 11 10	or me carmings to the master.
Water supply: Total employees Daily wage	350 \$0. 27 <b>-</b> \$0, 37		9	

<sup>And board and lodging.
And board.
Not reported.
Wages for 1917 are for the circuit of Ching Shao, which includes 20 districts, Peking being the principal city.</sup> 

Tai-Yuen.

Industry and occupation.	1920	191710	Hours per day.	Remarks.
Barbers—daily wage	\$0, 10-\$0, 25 3 \$0, 10-\$0, 30 \$0, 30-\$1, 00	\$0. 16-\$0. 30 3 \$0. 18-\$0. 38	13 11 (5) 10 10 10 10 (6) (5) (5) (5) (6) 8	Employees also receive tips.  When working in the country the carpenter gets board. When working in the country the carver gets board. Cooks also receive tips.  The factory receives beggar and vagabonds and gives then certain vocational training. I also recruits workers from the city's slums and gives them, in addition to nominal pay, clothing and medical care. All work ers are required to take lesson one hour each day, free of charge
Farming: Daily wage—males. Daily wage—females. Freight handlers—rate per	3 \$0.15-\$0.25 3 \$0.10-\$0.15 2 \$2.00-\$4.00	3 \$0. 09-\$0. 30 3 \$0. 07-\$0. 20	9-12 9-12 11	Work 9 hours per day in spring and winter; 12 hour during crop time.
Gold and silver smithing—daily wage.	3 \$0. 15-\$0. 40	3 \$0.06-\$0.25	(5)	
Hat making—daily wage Leather goods manufactur-			(5) (5)	
Masonry—daily wage	{	3 \$0. 15-\$0. 25 \$0. 20-\$0. 40	(5) (5)	
Made I am 1				The factory serves lunch a cost, and gives 2 suits per yea to each employee. The worker are all males. There is no
Daily wage— Apprentices. Foremen. Workers. Paper making—daily wage Plumbers:	3 \$0.01 \$1.70 \$0.50	<sup>3</sup> \$0, 10–\$0, 20	11 11 11 (5)	Sunday work.
Daily wage— Apprentices. Workers. Provincial weaving factory:	\$0.05 \$0.08-\$0.30		10 10	Plumbers get board when employed in the country.
Daily wage— Apprentices. Workers. Provincial weaving factory: Total employees. Daily wage. Publishing and printing— daily wage. Rattan making—daily wage. Rice milling—daily wage. Rickshaw:	\$0. 25-\$0. 50	3 \$0.06-\$0.30 \$0,20-\$0,60 3 \$0.08-\$0.15 3 \$0.50-\$0.60	11 (5) (5) (5) (5) (6)	
Total employees	1, 100 \$0.40-\$0.90	3 \$0. 02-\$0. 12	 12 ( <sup>5</sup> )	
Daily wage—males. Daily wage—females. Silk filature: Total employees			(6) (6)	Pay is based on output. A
Total employees	\$0.20-\$0.35	***************************************	(6) (6)	Pay is based on output. A lesson of 2 hours is given each day to each worker, free of charge
Salk reeling—daily wage Silk worm raising—daily wage Failors—daily wage. Filers—daily wage. Fobacco—daily wage. Varnishing and painting—daily wage. Wine making—daily wage	8 \$0, 25-\$0, 45 {	* \$0. 53 * \$0. 13-\$0. 25 * \$0. 20-\$0. 40 * \$0. 15-\$0. 25 \$0. 20-\$0. 30 * \$0. 10-\$0. 25 * \$0. 15-\$0. 25 * \$0. 30-\$0. 50	(5) (5) 10 (5) (5) (5) (5) (5) (5) (5)	charge.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> And board and lodging.
<sup>3</sup> And board.
<sup>10</sup> Wages for 1917 are for the circuit of Chee Ning, which includes 43 districts, Tai-Yuen being the principal city.

Amoy.

	Daily wage.			
Industry and occupation.	1921	1917 11	Remarks.	
Blacksmiths, men Bricklayers, men	<sup>3</sup> \$0, 52–\$0, 87	3 \$0, 10-\$0, 25		
Candle makers:  Men  Women	3.2161 3.0926			
Commontones		3, 25- , 40	Cantonese carpenters, who are con- sidered more skilled than the natives of	
ChildrenCarvers, men	3,0926	3.2035 .3045	Amoy, get higher wages.	
Chair applies man	2 96	.3045		
Cmarr coonies, men Common laborers: Men Women Children Coppersmiths, men Dross men	3.2644 3.17- 34			
Children Coppersmiths, men	3.1017	*.1530 *.1018		
Dyers, men	3. 17 44 3. 67- 1. 33	3.1018		
Men		3.2550 3.0818		
Men	8.3570 8.1335			
Children Fishermen	8,1026	3, 2550		
Men. Women Children Fishermen Gardeners, men. Gold and silver smiths, men.	*, 40 53 *, 44 87	3.1S36	Foochow experts, who are the most skilled workers in the trade, earn from	
Hat makers, men Leather goods manufacturers.		3.2030 3.1632 .2542	\$40 to \$50 gold, per month.	
Machinists, men	³.61- 1.74			
Men	3,6187	3.1635 .3050		
Children	8,2035	3.2030 .3040		
Opium workers:			Each worker receives 40 cents "small money" (about 35 silver cents) worth	
Men. Women. Painters, children. Paper lantern makers, men. Paper manufacturers, men.	3.3552 3.2635		of opium to smoke each day.	
Paper manufacturers, men	*.1744	3. 2035 .3550		
Policemen (at Kulangsu) Printers:				
Men	.4452 3.2635	3, 2535 .3545		
Quarrymen and stonecutters:	3, 52- 1, 31			
Children. Quarrymen and stonecutters: Men. Children. Rattan makers, men.	3.2644	3,20-,30	Through the guild organization they carry on considerable trade with the	
Rice millers, men		3.1832 .3545	Formosans.	
Sampan (boatman)	3,4487	8.1830 .3244		
Servants.				
Men	3,61-1,74	3,0310		
Shoemakers, men		1 2 22 22		
Women				

<sup>3</sup> And board. 11 Wages for 1917 are for the circuit of Amoy, which includes 12 districts, Amoy being the principal city.

### Amoy—Concluded.

Industry and occupation.	Daily wage.		* Remarks.	
	1921	1917 11		
Silkworm raisers:  Men Women Women Scale Tailors: Men Women Tea packers, men Tea packers: Men Women Tea pickers: Men Women Tothidren Tilers, men Tobacco makers, men Varnishers and painters, men	*.1761  *.2644  *.1735  *.4487  *.4487  *.1320  *.1017	*, 2550 *, 1218 *, 1528 *, 1030 .2040 *, 1632 .3048 *, 1625 .2838 *, 1830 .2840 .303545	Tailors working for foreigners earn \$8 or \$9 a month.	

 $<sup>^8</sup>$  And board. 66 Wages for 1917 are for the circuit of Amoy, which includes 12 districts, Amoy being the principal city.

### INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS AND LABOR CONDITIONS.

Employees' Councils in the United States Post Office Department.1

Postmaster General Hays has approved the plan of Dr. Lee K. Frankel, in charge of the welfare department in the Post Office Department, to organize from among the postal employees national and local councils.

It is planned to have the national council composed of representatives elected by the employees themselves. In order that the council's work might proceed immediately it was decided that the first council should be made up of the presidents and secretaries of the postal organizations and representatives of the unorganized employees until a method of selection by the employees of the members of the council shall be developed.

The national council will meet monthly in Washington with the welfare director, or other representatives of the welfare department, to consider matters affecting working conditions, health, and general welfare of employees in post offices, mail trains, steamships, and other

divisions of the postal service.

It is planned to have in each city of sufficient size a local council, to be composed of the postmaster or a supervisory official appointed by him, and representatives of the letter carriers, postal clerks, and other employee groups. These local councils will meet periodically to discuss matters of local interest.

A council among the employees of the Post Office Department at

Washington will be organized.

It is planned to appoint smaller committees from the permanent councils to study the questions of sanitation, light, rest rooms, first aid, medical and nurses, recreation, entertainments, etc. These committees will aid the councils in making suggestions or recommendations.

### Labor Unrest in China.

By Ta Chen, M. A., Sometime Fellow of Columbia University.

CHINA is industrializing. In this process her labor problem is made increasingly complex by the interplay of socio-economic forces, both immediate and underlying. The old-fashioned industrial institutions like the guilds, though still powerful, are gradually adapting themselves to the changed and changing conditions. In recent years, particularly since the war, the Chinese proletariat has found itself in great difficulties on account of shifting from the old to a new mode of living. All these factors have a part in the present industrial and social unrest.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Source: Press release of July 11, 1921.

#### Immediate Causes of Labor Unrest.

THE high cost of living is working havoc among the teeming millions of China. In the north, approximately five Provinces, comprising the present famine region, are now suffering a great shortage of food. In central and south China, rice has become a very expensive commodity, costing between \$12 and \$17 a picul.2 The peak price was reached last fall, when the polished rice of Shanghai was sold at \$20 a picul, an increase of 90 per cent in 15 months. Before the war, eggs in Ichang, Hupeh, cost 4.5 cents a dozen; to-day they cost at least 10 cents, an increase of more than 100 per cent. The dwelling houses in Shanghai, with two rooms on the ground floor and two more on the floor above, now rent at from \$240 to \$360 per year, and there has been an increase in rent of about 150 per cent in two years.3 The woman workers of the American-British Tobacco Co., of Potung, Kiangsu, recently went on strike on the very issue of the high cost of living, alleging that the introduction of a new system of packing cigarettes would adversely affect their wages, thereby necessitating a lower plane of living. Again, though prior to the Shanghai carpenters' strike of June 12-16, 1920, the employers had given an explicit promise to raise wages within 12 months, the workers declared that the steady mounting of retail prices would not permit them to wait, and immeditely resorted to direct action.

The precariousness of the situation is aggravated by bolshevist propaganda. Sporadically, radical doctrine had crept into university lectures; but its penetration into Chinese industries was not definitely manifested until the ninth anniversary of the Chinese Republic, October 10, 1920, when the bolshevik agents in Shanghai issued circulars informing their Chinese comrades: (1) That the Peking Government, being in the hands of the capitalists, was oppressive to the masses; (2) that in bolshevism the workers would find the only object worth living for; and (3) that the people of Russia had already achieved this object after three years' vigorous struggle. Quietly and steadily this force has been gaining a foothold in the rank and file of labor. In February, 1921, the Chinese chargé d'affaires in Denmark, who was then well informed on the Russian situation, advised Peking of the broadcast propaganda of the Moscow society in Tientsin, Shanghai, Hankow, and Canton. A few weeks later Peking residents were startled by motor cars flying a red flag with a star and the letters F. E. R. (Far Eastern Republic). Thereafter the Chinese Government felt it necessary to take precautions against lectures on communism and pseudo-welfare speeches delivered at mining camps and industrial centers ostensibly for the

benefit of the workers. Furthermore, the mushroom growth of home industries has called for an increased supply of labor. Within the last two years there have sprung up in the Yangtze Valley 53 factories, 26 electric plants, 18 transportation companies, 16 cotton mills, 16 agricultural enterprises, 15 commercial houses, 12 mining companies, 3 fisheries, and 8 miscellaneous companies—aggregating a total investment of

 $<sup>^1</sup>$  In all references to the dollar, the Mexican dollar is meant. At the present rate of exchange, it is worth about 48 cents gold.  $^2$  A picul is 133\( \frac{1}{2} \) pounds, or 60.453 kilograms.  $^3$  Eastern Miscellany (published in Chinese, pp. 4–6, Shanghai), May 10, 1921.

\$74,187,470.4 This has led the secretary of Chinese maritime customs to say that "there are few foreign-type articles of domestic consumption that are not now manufactured in China by factories on modern lines, the majority of them without foreign assistance." Speaking broadly, Tientsin is the training center for industrial workers for north China, Shanghai for central China, and Hongkong for south China. The other industrial towns are in a large sense hinterlands of these cities, constantly drawing away from them a large body of workmen. The demand was immeasurably larger than the supply. Labor then made excessive demands for its services. For instance, the leather goods manufacturers of Hankow could not obtain sufficient labor for their work, for the workers refused to sign the contract until they were told the minute details of the work they were to undertake. After being so informed, they demanded much higher wages than the prevailing scale. The company made several compromises, but the workers, after resorting to sabotage a few times, demanded further raises on the pretext that the employers had deviated from the original contract.

Now, a sudden change has come. The industrial boom has been followed by business depression. In February last, about the time of the Chinese New Year, when the public was indulging in daily feasts and other social gayeties, business was virtually brought to a standstill. Shortly afterward, the general slump in business which affected Europe and America at large began to affect China. Capitalists warned each other against reckless investments. The buying public, in protest of high prices, sat still and waited for the return to normalcy. Constant fluctuations in international exchange have made the importing and exporting trade a gamble. During the war, a silver dollar was worth about 90 cents gold or more; to-day it has dropped to 48 cents and is still fluctuating. Thus, taking advantage of the high rate of exchange in favor of silver, the Tientsin piece-goods merchants bought merchandise from English and American exporters to the value of between \$13,000,000 and \$17,000,000. Now, business is dull and silver is low; and the Tientsin merchants find it difficult to pay the money immediately. In view of these conditions the demand for labor has suddenly dropped and unemployment on a large scale has ensued. The slump in lumber business in Wuchang (Hupeh) has made 30,000 jobless. The tie-up in the textile industry in Tientsin and Shanghai has brought unemployment to about 50,000. In important trading ports, business men are still complaining about hard times, and there seems little hope for a commercial and industrial revival in the immediate future.

### Underlying Causes of Labor Unrest.

A SIDE from the causes above cited, economic factors of deeper origin are in operation. About one-fourth of the present Chinese population owns no property and must earn its living by skill or by mere physical strength. For many years this class has been subject to economic exploitation by the landowners, capitalists, and middlemen. In consequence, the workmen have not been

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Annual Report of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, 1920.

able to get an equitable remuneration for their part in production,

which has resulted in general discontent.

High rates of interest and high rents in rural communities work hardship on the agricultural laborer. The landowner usually exacts from 13 to 20 per cent interest on his loans and charges about the same rate of interest on mortgages. In hiring a helper, the farmer has to take this excessive rate of interest into account, especially if he himself is in debt, and so he feels it necessary to keep the wages down. A farm helper rarely gets more than 25 cents a day, plus board and lodging. Besides regular work on the farm, he attends to such odd jobs as drawing water from the well or getting fuel for the kitchen. Rent also is high. The tenant pays the owner from 1.4 to 1.8 tan <sup>5</sup> per mow, <sup>6</sup> out of an annual yield of from 3.2 to 3.8 tan per mow, or about 46 per cent of the gross produce. The amount the mortgagor-farmer pays in interest to the mortgagee and wages to the helper (if any) amounts to the same as the tenant pays to the landowner. The laborer lives from hand to mouth. The small farmer can save little. The wealth seems to concentrate in the hands of the landowners. There would appear to be no promise of economic prosperity for the small farmer or the worker, unless the rate of interest is made materially lower by the introduction of some such plan as the rural credit system in the United States.

The city worker, in some cases, is in no better position. Take the rickshaw coolies of Shanghai, for example. They number about 35,000 in all, and their work is divided into day and night shifts. For the privilege of rickshaw pulling, a license is required, covering one of the three routes; for the whole city the license costs \$5; for the French-Chinese section, \$3; and for the Chinese section, \$1. This fee is paid by the owners, who have organized themselves into the Rickshaw Association. The agents of the association then rent the rickshaws to the coolies at various rates. For the whole city, each rickshaw is rented at 85 cents a day, of which 70 cents goes to the owner, and the remaining 15 cents to the agent; for the French-Chinese section, it is rented at 52 cents, of which 40 cents goes to the owner and 12 cents to the agent; for the Chinese section, it is rented at 36 cents, of which 30 cents goes to the owner and 6 cents to the agent. The coolie then assumes all the risk of making a sufficient daily wage to keep himself, after paying this high rate of rent. As a result, the daily wage varies from 45 to 85 cents, or about the same as the owner of the vehicle gets. Occasionally, he may get two or three dollars a day. But rickshaw pulling requires much physical exertion, and an average person can not stay in the trade in vigorous health for more than 10 years.

The case of the Shanghai maidservants illustrates another under-

The case of the Shanghai maidservants illustrates another underlying cause of unrest—the usurious share of wages demanded by the middleman. As these women come from Soochow, Yangchow, and Anching and have no homes in the city, their employment is usually obtained through a private agency, similar to an employment bureau. The agent makes arrangements with the employer and then recommends the maid. If the three-day trial proves satisfactory, the

 $<sup>^{5}</sup>$  1 tan =100 sen, and 1 sen=1.355 liters, or 3.84 bushels.

 <sup>61</sup> mow = one-sixth acre.
 7 La Jeunesse (published in Chinese), Shangkai, May, 1920.

agent closes a contract with the employer and demands an exorbitant charge for his services. As long as the servant works the agent deducts 20 cents from every dollar she gets, and obtains another 20 cents from the employer for every dollar he pays to the maid. The middleman thus robs both the employer and employee, but the latter suffers most bitterly.

While these cases are not universal, they clearly indicate labor's inability to get an equitable reward for its share in production.

The workers are further burdened by large families. The 1910 estimate of the Ming-chen-poo (Ministry of the Interior) conservatively puts the average number of children per family in China proper at 5.5 and in Manchuria at 8.3. Taking the daily wage of an average factory worker at 45 cents and striking off 5 per cent for such luxuries as tobacco and tea, he has 42.5 cents left on which to feed himself and his family. Even though his wife does some sewing and his children do some light work at the factory, it is impossible for the family to live decently.

#### Manifestations of Unrest.

#### Strikes.

IN industries where the workers are well organized, their discontent as to conditions of employment is expressed through the strike. On March 3, 1921, the whole force of the French tramways in Shanghai went on strike, having made eight demands, including the following: (1) That the wages of the workers be increased 20 per cent immediately; (2) that the rule of the Shanghai Electric Construction Co., in that part of the city known as the international settlement, granting one month's extra pay at the end of each year be adopted by the French company, and that the money be paid at once; (3) that when conductors or drivers fall sick, medical expenses be paid by the company; (4) that the regulations governing the imposition of fines be revised; and (5) that the hours of work be reduced. All the demands were agreed to, except that for the increase of wages, about which there was some disagreement. Pending the settlement, the workers walked out after a series of meetings which they held at a Chinese tea house. Prior to the strike there was no hint to the company that a strike was impending except the appearance of a few pickets on the cars. When the strike order came, the workers marched out as a well-disciplined army. There was neither violence nor argument with the employers. The strike lasted four days, and on the fifth day the workers resumed their work, with the definite understanding that the wages would be raised 20 per cent as demanded.

Another important strike was that of the Shanghai carpenters, June 12 to 16, 1920. A thousand Cantonese carpenters in the Hankow district went on strike, demanding an increase of wages from 95 cents to \$1.10 a day. The Chang Foong flour mill had granted an increase of a dollar a month to its employees, and other mills had granted an increase of 6 coppers (or about 3 cents American money) a day to their workers. The Cantonese carpenters therefore agitated to have their wages raised at once. The situation quickly became grave, and the Kwantung Provincial Guild imme-

diately sent three delegates to arbitrate. The negotiations were carried on for over a week, the employers finally agreeing to increase

the wage to a dollar a day.

The contagious strike spirit, now so generally prevalent in China, was quickly caught by the prison laborer, and the first "hunger strike" occurred in Shanghai not long ago. The inmates of the Second Provincial Prison were dissatisfied with the general conditions, so one day they decided to fast. Fearing far-reaching consequences, the prison authorities pacified the hunger strikers by agreeing to their demands: (1) That regular pay be given to the prisoners for the work done; (2) that relatives of prisoners be allowed to bring into prison, without restriction, food and clothing for the prisoners; (3) that the warden fulfill the promise to give the prisoners food bought fresh in the market at least twice a month, on the 1st and 15th of the month.

On March 14, 1921, 1,500 teachers in eight Government schools in Peking went on strike, leaving 40,000 students without instruction. They demanded that back salaries to the amount of over \$400,000 be paid immediately, that salaries be increased, and that a change of Government policy regarding appropriations for public education be made. The Representatives' Union for the eight schools was immediately organized, with the Semiweekly as its official organ to bring the case of the strikers vividly before the public. The negotiations between the Government and the striking teachers have been under way for several months. Up to last month, no

satisfactory settlement had been reached.

#### Agitation.

In industries where the strike has not been used, trouble has been brewing unseen. For a long time there has been agitation for increase in wages. The feeling was especially intense after the increase of pay on the Chinese tramways in Shanghai, in June, 1920. The executive staffs of the tramways had received an increase of \$2 a month, the inspectors, conductors, and motormen, \$1 a month; and the workers, 4 coppers a day. Throughout the country, there had been general uneasiness and discontent among the rank and

file of labor.

Within labor organizations agitation for better working conditions is, in a large measure, dependent upon the boss or head man. The personality of the head man is usually of a forceful type and he possesses a high degree of shrewdness and unusual power of persuasion. Since many workers are illiterate, they rely upon him for information about wages, hours of work, and conditions of employment. The unquestioned confidence of the workers in the head man assures him always of a loyal following in whatever course he may take. Thus, the Hongkong strike of April, 1920, which involved 9,000 workers and was a gigantic protest against inadequate pay, was started by a handful of labor "leaders" who may be accurately described, in western terminology, as "professional agitators."

Part of the labor agitation in China is carried on voluntarily by the

liberal press and the National Students' Union. The press, voicing as it does the more enlightened sentiments of the nation, is sympathetic toward labor. The students constitute a formidable force, as illustrated by the nation-wide protest against the Versailles award of Shantung to Japan.\* Both are fighting labor's battle, partly because they believe that labor should not be sacrificed to further the capitalist's ambitions, and partly because they consider labor too

weak to enter the contest single handed.

One important phase of the agitation touches the present social renaissance in China. The development of industries has opened to women many vocational opportunities. Formerly many women were merely social parasites upon the male members of the household, especially where polygamy was practiced. The Huei Valley, with a population ranging from 170 to 380 persons to the square mile, has often been subject to floods and droughts. Famine sufferers usually saved their own lives by making their daughters slaves or concubines to landed aristocrats. In districts where sewing and spinning did not yield a sufficient income to support a woman, her livelihood was occasionally sought in concubinage—a practice indulged in by certain types of the wealthy, but condemned by the right-minded. At present, a woman of ability and health has a fair chance to earn a comfortable living. In fact, some banks and trade corporations in Shanghai are encouraging woman workers to become bookkeepers and accountants by offering them pay equal to that of male workers

in the same occupations.

But the emancipation of women has on the one hand intensified labor competition and on the other hand stimulated public agitation for the worker's health and safety. Recently the press of Changsha (Hunan) and of Shanghai fought vigorously against the recruiting of female employees by the Hou Sen cotton mill of Shanghai. In an effort to alleviate the pressure of competition in the industry, the owner advertised for female workers in the Province of Hunan in order to increase materially the output of the company. In the announcement the following conditions were specified: (1) That 12 hours should constitute the work day; (2) that \$8 should be the minimum wage per month; (3) that these terms should be binding for a period of not less than three years. No mention was made of increases in wages, dormitories for the workers, or extra pay for overtime work. Though the employer declared that great economic distress in the Province had prompted him to offer the contract as a partial relief for the poor, the press immediately opposed the employment of women under the above-mentioned conditions as an indication of capitalistic exploitation. Chinese society, it argued, can not tolerate the enslaving of a large number of women merely to facilitate the selfish accumulation of wealth.

### Experiment of the Ministry of Communications.

Recent tendencies in agitation, as above indicated, have been along the line of the worker's health and safety. In anticipation of a further development, the Ministry of Communications is taking the initiative to effect health and other social welfare legislation, including life insurance, health insurance, accident insurance, and a pension system for the benefit of the 125,000 railway employees in the country.

In addition, the ministry is giving the railway workers an elementary education. One hundred and eighty graduates of technical

<sup>8</sup> MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, February, 1921, pp. 184, 185; December, 1920, pp. 207, 208.

colleges, under the ministry's direction, have taken a three-months' course in sociology, psychology, railway administration, accident prevention, and ethics. They, in turn, are training others to teach the laborers who are employed on the trains, at the stations, in the machine shops, on the tracks, in the storehouses, and in the administrative offices.

This educational program provides for the establishment of schools, lecture groups, railway libraries, and railway dailies. It provides that within every 50 miles at least one "general school" shall be established, and within every 200 miles one "preparatory school" for the railway employees. The number of school hours per week for each workman in the general school is six, and in the preparatory school four. No tuition is charged. The length of instruction is 20

months.

The lecturers, being distributed among all the railways, are to lecture at least once a week, with lantern slides or motion pictures. The central library is established in Peking, the branch libraries at large stations, and the circulating libraries have the running trains as their headquarters. The railway daily is of two kinds. The national daily, published in Peking, and the local daily, published in large stations, are both written in simplest Chinese language, with the phonetic pronunciation printed alongside.<sup>9</sup>

### Labor Organizations.

APPROXIMATELY 200,000 factory workers are now organized into various labor unions in different cities. Up to the present they have been the most successful of all workers in efforts to secure higher wages and better working conditions. Their organizations are the most efficiently conducted among all the labor organizations now in operation in China. Next to them, in numerical strength, are the miners and railway men, who number about 185,000. In most of the trades the craft guilds are active and the influence of the labor union is not strong. The agricultural workers, who are more conservative than the craftsman, are at the present time the least organized. No accurate estimate of the number of the last two classes of workers is now available.

The labor organizations of to-day are most concerned with the task of arousing labor from passiveness to a conscious fight for its rightful position in society. Collectively, the Chinese proletariat is shaking off the yoke of economic servitude imposed on it by the aristocracy of old. In a recent speech before the Industrial Workers' Union of Shanghai, T. S. Chen, editor of La Jeunesse, sounded the keynote of the labor movement in the following language: "Labor is now awakened to the realization that human physical endeavor is not a commodity, and that the worker's person, health, and safety must be protected by the capitalist on the one hand and by society

To gain material strength in collective bargaining the small local unions are organizing on a broader basis. They are forced to do so, as a recent incident will show. In the district of Changsha (Hunan), the great depreciation of paper currency forced a sudden drop in the

<sup>9</sup> Millard's Review (Shanghai), Mar. 12, 1921, pp. 65, 66.

demand for cereals from out-of-town markets. In consequence, the landed aristocracy suffered great financial losses. They then persuaded the district magistrate to issue a proclamation allowing them to pay wages in grain instead of in real money, as had been the custom. The change of payment from money to grain practically reduced wages to about one-half of the old wage scale, as shown below:10

Occupation.	Original daily wage (in real money).	Daily wage (in grain), magistrate's order	
Common laborer	Cents. 20-30 36 36 30 36 36 36	Sen.11 2 3. 5 3. 5 3. 5 3. 5 3. 5	

11 1 sen=1.355 liters, and was worth about 6 cents in money value.

Through their local unions the workers lodged vigorous protests against the new system of wage payment. But their feeble strength was greatly overpowered by the well-organized landed aristocracy. Since then, the workers have been trying by every conceivable means to cooperate with their comrades in neighboring towns to strengthen

their organization by increasing their membership.

Of the more successful labor unions, the Returned Laborers' Union, composed of the returned laborers from France, merits particular attention. Besides attempting to improve conditions of employment, the union has a program of wide scope. While in France, thousands of the workers abstained from drinking and gambling in order to send their humble savings to support elementary schools in their home villages, and now the organization feels the wisdom of encouraging temperance and other character reforms among the workers on a large scale. Furthermore, the union isolates itself from politics in order to insure a free and unhampered development along purely industrial lines. With these broad objectives in view, the union makes the following declarations:

Aims.—The principal aims of the union shall be to cooperate with the workers to strengthen collective bargaining, to increase common knowledge through frequent association, and to promote a cordial but nonpartisan friendship.

Resolutions.—The members are resolved not to drink alcohol, or to visit prosti-

tutes, or to gamble, or to smoke opium or use its derivatives.

Claims.—The union claims the right to strike for improved working conditions, and the right to hold meetings or to make public speeches for promoting public welfare of the workers.

The union elects a chairman, a secretary, a treasurer, and ten councilors to take charge of various activities of the organization.

Tangshan, in the Province of Chili, claims to be a pioneer industrial community in north China. Its labor organization has had a unique growth. Toward the closing days of the House of Ming, about 285 years ago, the inhabitants of this district employed primitive methods to quarry the outcrop coal at the Tangshan mine. In 1878, when the country was still skeptical about occidental culture,

<sup>10</sup> La Jeunesse, May, 1920.

Tangshan boldly introduced western methods of mining, thus earning the reputation of having the first modernized mine in the nation. The great aggregation of workers soon called for group formation. Being village folks, the desire for democratic government was persistent, and in consequence, a self-government club was formed. The heterogeneous subjects discussed by the club ranged anywhere from the worker's freedom to play the flute while off duty to his worship of Buddha in the clubhouse. The club was the common meeting place for the workers, and for a time it succeeded. In 1905 its membership included a considerable portion of the executive staff and employees of the Peking-Mukden Railway machine shops, the Kaipin mine, and a cement company. Slight friction between the native miners and the Cantonese soon developed into uncompromising sectional conflicts, resulting in the withdrawal of the latter from the club. Over a thousand Cantonese, constituting about one-sixth of the Tangshan industrial population, then organized the Kwantung Provincial Guild to promote fraternal relations as well as industrial cooperation. Unlike the craft guild, which enrolls workers of the same trade, this guild had for its sole standards neighborliness and townsmanship. comradeship enjoyed through bringing to the same guild railway men and bloom makers was restricted to the provincials of Kwantung. Liberal thinkers, who deprecated the narrow provincialism characteristic of this organization, immediately agitated for the creation of the Tangshan Labor Union, extending membership to all workers who cared to join. After the revolution of 1911, the union was firmly established and figured prominently in the labor movement at that time.

While the Tangshan Labor Union has been hampered by its connections with the Labor Party and by political unrest in recent years, 12 a new development in the community is now discernible. Since the student strike, the employees of the Peking-Mukden Railway machine shops have organized the Comrades' Union to improve their working conditions as well as to equip themselves with an elementary education. This has stimulated similar organization on the part of the employees of the Kailan Mining Administration. They have a reading room, a school for teaching the phonetic system of the Chinese language, and a magazine to popularize the use of the phonetics. Thirty years of industrial life have taught the Tangshan workmen, now numbering over 30,000, the importance of cooperation and combination. The recent organizations, with a broad educational program, clearly aim at equipping the workers with common intelligence for a persistent struggle with the capitalists.

<sup>12</sup> MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, December, 1920, pp. 208, 209.

### The Craft Guilds. 13

THOUGH the labor union, being an importation from the West, is yet limited in scope and influence, the craft guild penetrates every important trade in the country. A correct understanding of this powerful organization may therefore be a long step toward comprehending the industrial background of modernized China.

Two instances will give in a nutshell the tremendous power of the guild organization, past and present. In 1883, a dispute about tea export at Hankow (Hupeh) became acute. The foreign traders accused the Chinese merchants of showing false samples. The Chinese made the countercharge that false weights had been used. Whereupon the foreigners decided to stop buying, and the Chinese accepted the challenge by stopping sales. The tea market in London rose steadily, but no tea could be bought at Hankow, and no coolie would work for the foreign concerns. A strike had been declared by the guild, which both the merchants and the coolies obeyed most strictly. Consequently, the foreign traders lost an enormous amount of money in the export trade.

Though it has undergone material changes, as shown elsewhere in this paper, the guild of to-day is no less powerful. The salt merchants of the Yangtze Valley, including the Provinces of Anhuei, Kiangsi, Hupeh, and Hunan, were in the past required to deposit money with the Bureau of Salt Producing and Transporting Merchants. Instead of immediately paying the money to the producers, the bureau usually retained it indefinitely and deposited it in banks of questionable financial soundness to draw interest, thus causing great inconvenience both to the merchants and producers. After repeated protests, the bureau was abolished and a new one established in its place. On hearing of a proposed revival of the old bureau last August, the guild of the salt merchants immediately threatened a strike, which, had it not been prevented, would have cut off the salt supply of the whole Yangtze Valley for some time.14

Organization.—The craft guild varies with various trades and different cities. For brevity's sake, the Tea Guild of Hangchow (Chekiang) is here taken as a type. The manager is elected annually. With him are also elected 12 committeemen, all of whom serve without pay. Each of the committeemen takes charge of the guild for one month, thus keeping the chairmanship in rotation. tive secretary is the only paid officer in the organization. Finding that the rotation system, though basically democratic, has worked to

<sup>13</sup> The Chinese guild organization may be differentiated into the craft guild (\*Kung Sou\*), the district guild (\*Huei Kunn\*), and the Hong merchant (\*Coo Hong\*).

Neighborliness is the basis of the district guild, which varies in size according as it is composed of persons who come from the same district, from the same prefecture, or from the same Province. These persons establish a guild at their new residing place, with the primary object of promoting trade to and from the home locality. The members are of various occupations and social classes, from ranking officials and millionaire merchants down to the coolies. Regarding control of trade and labor, the guild functions in a general way like the craft guild, minor differences not being here specified.

The most striking example of the Hong merchant is the "Thirteen Firms" of Canton, which was in active operation between 1754 and 1842. During this period, international trade was confined to Canton for the foreign merchants. The incoming traders had to deal exclusively with the Thirteen Firms of Canton, who virtually monopolized the trade and labor market. The system benefited both the foreign and native merchants. To-day, its counterpart is found in the Great Guild of Newchwang, in the Province of Shengking, which, by its organization of the entire body of influential merchants, is in monopolistic control of trade and labor in the community. See Royal Asiatic Society Journal, North China Branch, n. s., vol. 21, pp. 133-192; China Review, vol. 12, pp. 5-9; H. B. Morse, "Guilds of China"; T. R. Jernigan, "China in Law and Commerce," ch. 9.

increase irresponsibility and division of powers, the tendency to-day is toward the concentration of executive control in a committee of three, to be responsible for the work of the guild the year round. In some guilds the number of salaried officers is also increased.

Any firm wishing to join the guild must pay an initiation fee of a certain sum, that of the Hangchow Tea Guild being \$300. The member firm is then required to obey the regulations of the guild, some of which follow: (1) That no member firm is allowed to accept from or give to customers any rate other than the guild rate; (2) that no member firm is allowed, through underhand dealings, to cause loss to a fellow member firm; and (3) that no member firm is allowed to antedate or postdate drafts. For any violation of these important rules, the firm is fined. In the case of defamatory acts of a more serious nature, a general meeting of all the guild members is called; and the guilty firm is, by vote, expelled from the organization.

Membership.—The firm is a corporate member of the guild. For ordinary guild meetings, each firm sends its representatives. The firm is composed of masters, journeymen, and apprentices. masters and journeymen are members of the guild, whose vote is required in such important matters as a common boycott. Though early initiation is possible, the apprentice becomes a member only after he has served his term of apprenticeship. The young craftsman is then a journeyman, and in that capacity he stays for two or three years. Professional courtesy and loyalty to his master impel him to serve first his master, with regular pay, before offering his

services to others.

The masters and journeymen usually work in perfect harmony. Should there be friction, the journeymen hold meetings at a Chinese tea house and then make representations to the masters. As they are very helpful in the trade, their complaints receive careful con-

sideration and are usually settled to their satisfaction.

More by custom than by guild laws, girls are prohibited from learning a trade. In the Bankers' Guild of Wuhu, this limitation is explicitly stipulated in the regulations. The only place where the girls are preferred is the needlemakers' guild. This is apparently due to women's aptitude for needle-eye drilling, an art requiring much precision and patience. To-day, however, girls have more trade opportunities, as shown by the fact that 56,000 woman employees practically monopolize the work of the silk-reeling industry

in Shanghai.

Authority.—The craft guild is the unifying and controlling agency of a particular trade. Its word is law. It standardizes weights and measures. Keeping close watch of market changes, it issues a rate, usually daily, which must be accepted by all the members and the buying public. Rate-fixing power is given to the guild primarily to eliminate cut-throat competition by the members. When the guild system works normally, underbidding and underselling are not common, unless done in an underhanded way. Small merchants are not put out of business by unfair competition on the part of the more influential ones in the trade. The industry is thus stabilized.

Disputes arising between members are usually first referred to the guild for settlement, when the manager and the committee sit as judges, with two or three experts as advisers. In the early days,

the failure to appeal first to the guild might result in the revocation of judicial protection to the member: "It is agreed that members having disputes about money matters and other important matters shall submit their case to arbitration at a guild meeting, where every effort will be made to arrive at a satisfactory settlement of the dispute. If it is impossible to arrive at an understanding, appeal may be made to the civil authorities, but if the complainant resorts to the court in the first instance without referring to the guild, he shall be publicly reprimanded, and in any future case he may bring to the guild, he will not be entitled to redress." 15 To-day no such rigidity exists. The contestants are given the option of choosing between the court and the guild for the first appeal for settlement of any dispute. This change has come about mainly through the extension of governmental functions. In the past the Government of China seemed to assume the laissez-faire attitude toward commerce and industry. After paying the taxes, the merchants were left entirely free. For the protection of their own interests, the guild undertook to formulate laws to regulate trade. In time, custom and tradition grew, and the craftsmen voluntarily submitted themselves to the jurisdiction of the guild. Of late, the State has promulgated trade acts and mining laws, and has employed experts to adjudicate industrial suits. Nowadays, the court as well as the guild may be appealed to as the tribunal of the first instance. But, owing to the craftsman's inability to pay the lawyer's fees and his aversion to legal technicalities, the guild is often preferred.

Income and expenditure.—The income of the craft guild comes from five main sources: (1) The initiation fee paid by the member firm at the time of joining the guild, as shown in the case of the Hangchow Tea Guild. (2) Donations by wealthy members. Twenty-five per cent of the reserve fund of \$850,000 is from private endowments. (3) Fines. The Bankers' Guild of Wuhu requires each member firm to deposit 100 taels as a guaranty fund against fines for violations of the guild rules by that firm. (4) Commission fee paid by firms from sales. The Timber Guild of Ningpo assesses its members according to the amount of their sales, averaging one-tenth of 1 per cent on the turnover. (5) Fees from masters and journeymen. The Han Yang Guild at Ichang provides that workmen, such as tailors' or carpenters' hands, pay 30 cash (about 13 cents gold) per month; their masters, if keeping no account books, are also assessed at the rate the guild sees fit; and clerks pay 2 per

cent per annum on their incomes. 16

Broadly stated, the income from the first three sources is for the permanent maintenance of the guild, and the income from the last two is for its current expenses. Other important items of the guild's expenditure cover the following: (1) The guild gives financial aid to sick members, and also to those who are temporarily unemployed.

(4) The guild pays a government tax.

<sup>(2)</sup> The guild gives charity to the families of the poorer members.
(3) The guild holds religious or social festivals several times a year.

Royal Asiatic Society Journal, North China Branch, vol. 21, p. 141.
 Decennial Reports of Chinese Maritime Customs, first series, p. 158.

#### The Craft Guild at Work.

As above stated, the most important activities of the craft guild are threefold, relating to (1) the trade in general, (2) the member firms, and (3) the masters, journeymen, and apprentices. To illustrate its workings, the Bristle Guild of Shanghai is selected as an example. The bristle export of China for the year 1917 amounted to 64,181 piculs and 6,171,638 Haikwan taels. 17 One of its largest member firms employs a manager, who receives a monthly salary of \$100, an assistant manager who receives half that much, a chief foreman, who receives \$30, and a number of foremen, who receive \$20 each. The workers are paid by piecework, and are on a contract basis. They average about 35 to 50 cents a day. Twelve hours constitutes their workday.

The organization of this guild is one of the most up-to-date, and its regulations, of which the following are the main provisions, are

typical: 18

Both long and short bristle, if prepared by the ordinary method, shall be sold at the guild rate and no other. Bristles specially prepared or imported from other cities shall be sold at special rates to be fixed by the guild committee and the agent of the firm.

No member firm is allowed to accept from or give to customers any rate other than

the guild rate.

Every master must, before commencing his work, purchase a certificate from the guild for \$5. Masters from other cities, if in financial difficulties, may work for a month before purchasing the certificate.

Each master is allowed to take not more than one apprentice at any one time.<sup>19</sup> After the completion of apprenticeship, the apprentice must work for the master as journeyman for at least two years before he himself takes in any apprentice.

The master shall be paid once in every 10 days. Fifteen cents are taken from every

dollar to defray the current expenses of the guild.

There shall be a uniform system of weight, and that of the guild shall be adopted.

Drinking and gambling are prohibited.

All disputes arising between workers and employers shall be submitted to the guild for settlement. There shall be no strike pending a settlement.

#### The Craft Guild's Influence on Chinese Industries.

The honesty of the Chinese in business dealings has become proverbial among Americans. In a large measure, business honesty is developed in the guild organization. "One price" for one grade of goods must be strictly observed by all the members. A free exchange of promises between the promisor and the promisee, for a consideration, is always binding on both parties. The craftsmen, by mutual agreement, strive to turn out faultless work. Equity prevails, efficiency is obtained, and industries prosper.

Large-scale combination has protected the craftsmen and the coolies from oppression by the landed aristocrats and political demagogues. As early as the Tang Dynasty (618-906), heavy taxation and the impressed labor act forced the poor to leave their homes secretly in order to evade the taxes, and in doing so they permanently lost their small holdings. Toward the end of the House of Sung (960-1279), vagrancy was phenomenally increased. In late years, the floating population has been an exploited class of manual laborers and skilled

 <sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> China Year Book, 1919. A Haikwan tael is equivalent to about \$1.05.
 <sup>18</sup> Translated from the guild's "Revised Regulations," 1920.
 <sup>19</sup> Some guilds are more lenient. Thus in the Blacksmiths' Guild of Wuchang, each master is allowed to take three apprentices at a time.

workers. The guild has acted as their fraternal protector. Even to-day some guilds pay about one-third of the court fees for the member who institutes a law suit and has a good cause of action.

In no small degree the guild has saved Chinese trade and labor from being crushed by the powerful foreign merchant. Facing a common competitor, the tradesmen and the coolies stand firm. Protesting against a grievance, the laboring classes unhesitatingly follow the decision of the guild. The foreigner has succeeded in exploiting China only by the incessant influx of capital, and the natives have maintained their industries largely through organization.

maintained their industries largely through organization.

But here praise must stop. The guild, as a unifier, has greatly hindered freedom of action, and prevented the making of "industrial captains." A man of perspicacity and shrewdness finds little expression for business initiative. He is confronted with two alternatives: He must either blindly follow the guild regulations, or suffer a common boycott for exercising his creative intelligence and violating rules.

There has never been a national guild, the boundaries of the Province limiting its furthermost development. Interprovincial competition by guilds has caused tremendous waste in production and retarded the growth of industries on national lines. The rice-milling industry is a favorite battlefield of the "Kwantung gang" against the "Hupeh gang" for capital and labor. Regional bias is carried to the extreme, and closer cooperation rendered impracticable.

#### Conclusion.

THE old and new phases of industrial life in China have here been sketched. The craft guilds have been efficient protectors of the skilled and unskilled workers from economic exploitation by capitalists and politicians. China is emerging from handicraft, and to-day the labor union is gaining ground. During this transitional period, various socio-economic factors have aroused the workers to strive for their rightful place in the industrial life of the country. This is clearly seen in the present unrest.

### Labor Unrest in Egypt.<sup>1</sup>

By Mrs. Victoria B. Turner.

PRIOR to the spring of 1919 strikes and other public manifestations of labor unrest were practically unknown in Egypt. But in Egypt, as elsewhere, the aftermath of the war has been characterized by intense political activity and by a general wave of dissatisfaction with existing economic conditions. Following the violent revolt of the Egyptian nationalists against British authority during the early months of 1919 there occurred an epidemic of strikes which spread so rapidly that by the end of the year but few trades or

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In preparing this article the following reports and current numbers of publications have been used; Department of Overseas Trade of Great Britain, Report on the economic and financial situation of Egypt in 1919, London, 1920; Report of the special commission to Egypt, London, 1921 [Cmd. 1131]; United States Department of State, Report on state and progress of labor in Egypt, by C. Hassan; Political Science Quarterly; Egyptian Gazette; Asiatic Review; Round Table; Labor Overseas (British).

industries remained unaffected. That these outbreaks were due to both political and economic causes is generally admitted, but the difficulty lies in discovering where one influence supplemented the other in producing unrest.

### Political Causes of Unrest Prior to 1919.

FOR many years, even as far back as 1882 when England first established her authority in Egypt, the Egyptian nationalists (home rulers) have constituted a strong force in the political and social life of the country. Up to the beginning of the World War Egypt was theoretically an autonomous Turkish Province, recognizing both the religious and the political overlordship of the sultan. England, however, had, through all the years, made such reservations of power in administrative matters as rendered her position a peculiarly strong one; a fact which the nationalists continually resented. Notwithstanding the promulgation of social and economic reforms, which redeemed Egypt from bankruptcy and a large part of the population from virtual slavery, or possibly because of them, nationalism grew until it embraced men of the most diverse types and characters, from the mobs on the streets to students in the universities, lawyers, and princes of the reigning family.

After several ineffectual protests to the British Government against British occupation of Egypt, the ranks of the nationalists, in 1910, split into two camps, the moderates advocating constitutional methods in realizing their aims; the radical element ready to resort to vio-

lence of any sort, including religious fanaticism.

Constitutional reforms promulgated in 1913 provided for the formation of a new legislative assembly and afforded a slightly greater opportunity for participation in legislation by native Egyptians. The new assembly, however, under the leadership of Saad Zaghlul Pasha, who formerly had held the positions of minister of education and minister of justice, proved to be strongly nationalist in character and failed to cooperate with the British.

When war was declared between Great Britain and Turkey in the fall of 1914, the khedive, an intense nationalist, allied himself with the Central Powers, and Great Britain at once established a protectorate in name as well as in fact over Egypt; and the Egyptians, who had not been consulted as to the change in their political status, became more and more suspicious of the motives of British occupancy.

Moreover, through the years a growing dissatisfaction had also manifested itself at the number of official positions held by the British, which had increased from a few hundred in the earlier years of occupation to about 1,600 at the present time, with scales of pay different from those applying to Egyptian officeholders. Many of the Egyptians regard the increasing number of British subjects in official positions not only as a reflection on the ability of their countrymen, who, they believe, might otherwise occupy these posts, but also as an actual menace to ultimate Egyptian liberty.

Another contributory cause of the general discontent is the manifest inadequacy of the educational system, which produces an unnecessarily large number of applicants for the decreasing number of official posts open to them, and lacks cultural and vocational

qualities. In his frank report upon conditions in Egypt Lord Milner says that the Egyptians of 1920, whether townsmen or peasants, are different people from those of 1910 and vastly different from the Egyptians of 1890. The mass of the population (about 92 per cent) is illiterate, and the system of education is not devised to meet the changing conditions. Extreme nationalist anti-British propaganda, the social estrangement of the British and the Egyptian community, and the ever-present impatience of the Moslem with Christian rule have also contributed a considerable share to disquietude among native Egyptians.

During the war the legislative bodies, created to give limited opportunities of constitutional expression to Egyptian public opinion, were not allowed to assemble; nor were these bodies permitted any part in shaping the many measures actually taken by the Egyptian government in its furtherance of the war. Throughout the land the censorship of news and opinions was rigorously and unintelligently enforced. Before the war was two years old martial law had completely overshadowed civil authority; requisitioning of supplies and forced recruiting of labor alienated the agricultural masses which had hitherto been loyal. In pursuing such a policy the British Government either consciously or unconsciously swelled the ranks of the nationalists.<sup>2</sup>

But whatever their aims for ultimate separation from Great Britain, during the war the Egyptians cooperated with the British, furnishing men as a labor corps, horses, and cereals, and even contributing to the Red Cross. When the war was over moderate opinion began to voice the feeling that the cooperation and sacrifices of the Egyptians during the war entitled them to special consideration. The Turkish yoke had slipped off. Neither the Egyptians nor the British had ever considered Egypt a British dependency. And now the old question of freeing Egypt from British occupation again arose. Complete

Accordingly, on November 13, 1918, a deputation of nationalists headed by Zaghlul Pasha called on the British high commissioner to present a program of complete autonomy for Egypt. At the same time the prime minister, Rushdi Pasha, and the minister of education, Adli Pasha Yeghen, asked that they be allowed to proceed to London immediately to discuss Egyptian affairs with the British Government. The peace conference was about to convene and the Egyptians wished their rights under British authority defined. Their request was refused on the ground that the foreign secretary and other ministers, owing to enforced absence from London in connection with the peace conference, "would not be able to devote sufficient time and attention to problems of Egyptian internal reform." Resignation of the two Egyptian ministers followed.

All other efforts to secure a hearing having failed, the Egyptians elected a national delegation to the peace conference, including Zaghlul Pasha. The delegation succeeded in sending to the members of the conference an exhaustive memorandum on Egypt's program for complete independence, but when passports in order that they might proceed to Paris were refused the representatives, public opinion was greatly aroused. Public meetings were held and local committees formed throughout the country in the interest of national independence. The crisis, however, came in November, when Zaghlul Pasha and three of the other prominent members of the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Political Science Quarterly, March, 1921. England and the Egyptian Problem, by Harry J. Carman, p. 68.

delegation chosen to represent Egypt at the peace conference were arrested because of their political activities and deported to the island of Malta.

#### Economic Causes of Unrest.

IN ADDITION to the causes of unrest growing out of the political situation prior to 1919, there have been in many instances economic reasons for the unrest prevailing since the war. Egypt, like India, is predominantly an agricultural country, and during the last few years the value of her agricultural products has increased by leaps and bounds. The price of cotton, the leading crop, had a phenomenal rise. Grades that once sold for £E3 or £E4 (\$14.82 or \$19.76, par) a hundredweight reached £E20 and £E30 (\$98.80 and \$148.20, par).

One important result of the soaring prices of cotton was to raise the price of cotton lands, some of them selling for from 400 to 500 Egyptian pounds (\$1,976 to \$2,470, par) per feddan (1.04 acres). Landowners, merchants, and speculators made enormous fortunes. But the landowners constitute only a small minority of the population. The majority, therefore, the industrial and professional classes who do not own land, have not benefited by this unusual prosperity. In fact the poorer classes of townspeople were brought to the verge of starvation by prices out of all proportion to their wages. Prices of some kinds of food rose from 200 to 300 per cent. Clothing, particularly leather, cotton, and woolen goods, rose 300 per cent. House rents reached unheard-of levels and there were no regulations to protect tenants. Furniture was at a premium. Prices of patent foods and medicines were prohibitive. One workman who had had in all a 25 per cent increase in wages, when asked how he supported his family, replied naively, "We have less to eat than formerly." In his report upon conditions in Egypt Lord Milner says (p. 12): "In addition to the specific grievances to which attention has been drawn, there was in Egypt also an unprecedented and progressive rise in prices, especially the necessaries of life, such as corn, clothing, and fuel which weighed heavily on the poorer classes, whose wages were quite inadequate to meet the enhanced cost of living, while they saw a limited number of their countrymen and the unpopular foreigner making large fortunes. A family of four—a man, his wife, and two small childrencould not at the beginning of 1919 obtain a sufficiency of food except at a cost which considerably exceeded the ordinary rate of wages." And even in the country, while the freeholders, large and small, were very prosperous, a great majority of the fellaheen (peasants), who own little or no land and live by renting a few acres from the rich landowners, were seriously affected by the increases in land rentals, which depend upon the price of cotton.

These increases explain in part the series of outbreaks, especially the attacks upon railway stations, among the fellaheen about the time of the riots of March, 1919. The fellaheen had profited more than any other class of society under the British rule. Formerly in times of crop failure the fellah had been obliged to borrow from usurers at rates of from 40 per cent to 60 per cent. With the advent of the English a system of small loans to the petty landowner at 6 per cent was instituted with the object of freeing him from the servitude induced by debts he was unable to pay. The use of the lash

(kourbash) had also been discontinued, and the fellah was freer and

more independent than he had ever been.

The fact that the controlled price of cotton during the war deprived the small farmer of the advantages of competition while his land rent increased was probably one source of discontent. Among others were: (1) The recruiting for the Egyptian labor and camel transport corps; (2) the requisition of domestic animals; (3) the requisition of cereals; (4) collections for the Red Cross.

Government in country districts in Egypt is administered by unpaid officers called omdehs. To these men, who must have certain property qualifications for their positions, recruiting and the collecting of funds and materials were intrusted during the war without the

supervision of British officials who were needed elsewhere.

At the outbreak of the war with Turkey the announcement was made that Egyptians would not be compelled to take part in it. Any contributions they made were to be voluntary. And while the voluntary system was maintained in theory, the facts indicate that the unscrupulous omdehs took unfair advantage of both the Government and the fellaheen. Enemies of the omdehs were sent into service and friends kept at home. Owing to the demand for the army market prices of cereals were greater than the requisition rates. "Not only did the omdehs collect larger amounts than they were required to furnish at requisition rates and sell the balance at the higher market rates, but individuals who possessed no wheat had to buy their quota at market rates and hand it over at the lower requisition rate. Payments in many instances were slow, the officials holding back a portion of the moneys intrusted to them. In the case of the animals requisitioned selling prices were lower during the war than buying prices at the end of it. Even the collection of Red Cross funds intended to be voluntary was often made compulsory through methods used by officials seeking their own advancement, and belief was current that some of these funds never reached their destination. The report of the special mission to Egypt questions the advisability of such collections under existing religious conditions.

All of these various factors in addition to the unprecedented and progressive rise in prices created a condition of discontent and unrest among the fellaheen, which while it did not manifest itself in labor troubles, since there was no such problem in the country districts, did, nevertheless, help to augment the disturbed conditions

throughout the country.

# Manifestations of Unrest, 1919.

UPON the arrest of Zaghlul Pasha and his companions all Egypt is said to have revolted. During the early months of 1919 the smoldering political unrest among large masses of the people burst into flames. A general uprising ensued, accompanied by rioting, arson, and bloodshed. Trains and business places were looted; public buildings were destroyed; railways were torn up; traffic was suspended; and some of the English inhabitants were murdered. Recourse was finally had to martial law and Gen. Allenby was sent

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Great Britain. Parliament. Report of the special mission to Egypt. London, 1921. [Cmd. 1131] p. 11.

to preserve order. His prompt release of Zaghlul Pasha quieted disorder; but dislocation of traffic and interruption of business produced a shortage of foodstuffs and a consequent greater rise in prices of essentials such as eggs, butter, and vegetables, necessitating a stricter rationing of food, and thus emphasizing an already intolerable

economic situation.

When no redress of grievances followed, the leaders resorted to passive resistance. Students remained away from school, native lawyers left their courts, tramwaymen, cab drivers, cigarette makers, scavengers, workmen in the State railway shops, in the national printing office, and gas works were more or less continually on strike. Student strikes continued until Gen. Allenby was forced on May 4, 1919, to issue an order threatening to close the Government schools and colleges (which had practically been closed since March) if the students did not return by a certain fixed time. Very few except those in the primary schools responded. To schools of medicine, law, engineering, and agriculture almost no students returned. In one school 77 out of 500 students resumed work. All high schools in Cairo and Alexandria were ultimately closed for the rest of the year by Government order.

The Egyptian employees of all Government departments at Cairo except those of the telephone office and the supplies control board struck April 3. Among the services affected were the telegraphs, railways, post office, departments of education and agriculture, public health administration, and war office. Judges of the mixed courts were out four days; the postal employees for several weeks. In addition to demands for higher wages and shorter hours, demands were made for the complete independence of Egypt and the immediate official recognition of Zaghlul Pasha and the nationalist leaders. On April 22 Gen. Allenby issued a proclamation ordering the strikers to return to their work on penalty of losing their jobs. Accordingly

the strike came to an end April 23.

Alexandria bakers went on strike August 12, 1919, demanding suppression of night work, a minimum of 50 piasters (\$2.45, par) a day for first hands, decreasing to 25 piasters (\$1.23, par) for those of lower grade. As the strike continued bread became scarce, the price increased, and riots occurred in which shops were looted and property damaged. A settlement was reached August 18 in which the men were granted a 40 per cent increase in wages. Demand for abolition of night work was withdrawn. Before the strike the average payment

for baker's work was 25 piasters (\$1.23, par) per day.

Of the innumerable strikes occurring during 1919 the most important and most far-reaching were those of the tramway men on the Cairo and Alexandria tramways. The first of these strikes occurred in March. The men's demands included, among others: Wages to be 15 piasters (\$0.74, par) per day; an 8-hour day; free uniforms; and inquiry into reports submitted by inspectors against workmen before fines were paid; bonus of one month's wages for every workman for each year of work and based upon last wages; interest to be paid on the deposits which the men make with the company; specified days of rest.

On April 20 the strikers' position was strengthened by a strike of the employees of the Cairo Heliopolis Electric Railway, whose demands were practically the same as those of the Cairo tramway men. This strike completely isolated Cairo and thoroughly disorganized business.

Negotiations dragged along through April, and finally on May 1 work was again resumed. In addition to the concessions already made, the Cairo tramway company granted increases in pay running between 13 piasters (\$0.64, par) and 19 piasters (\$0.93, par) per day, including the 2 piasters (\$0.10, par) cost-of-living bonus; leave to be cumulative; interest on deposits with the company to be computed at 4 per cent; gratuity given for each year of service; 8½-hour day. Terms granted to the Heliopolis tramway men were apparently more generous. They included a 9-hour to 9½-hour day (men in the shops an 8½-hour day); overtime at the rate of time and a half; workmen's compensation in case of illness; free medical care; free lodging, and cost-of-living bonuses.

In each of the tramway men's strikes the discomfort of the inhabitants of Cairo and Alexandria was further increased by strikes among gas workers, street cleaners, and the employees of the water companies, as well as the bakers and other classes of workmen necessary to the normal life of these cities. Among their demands were: Hours to be reduced from 12 to 8; war-time allowances to be added to wages; wages to be paid monthly; two weeks' annual holiday

with pay; advances in wages of 20 to 50 per cent.

After the period of general strikes in the spring of 1919 comparative quiet prevailed in the Egyptian labor world until the middle of the summer when with the continued rise in cost of living new demands were made by various classes of workmen for further increases in wages to meet it. Small, short, sudden strikes occurred among the railway men, printers, cigarette makers, cabmen, dressmakers, bakers, workmen in sugar factories, and postal and other Government employees, many of whom had been "out" in the spring. Moreover, when it became known that Great Britain would send a commission to Egypt in the fall of 1919 to study and "report upon the existing situation in the country and the form of constitution which, under the protectorate, will be best calculated to promote peace and prosperity, the progressive development of self-governing institutions, and the protection of foreign interests," agitation was at once started for the purpose of boycotting it. Another series of short strikes occurred in which students, lawyers, shopkeepers, and many other classes of workers participated.

After the arrival of the mission, strikes among the printers resulted in holding up the publication of European papers; cab drivers refused to carry passengers; native lawyers were on strike for a week, while Egyptian cotton merchants suspended business and Egyptian Government officials refused to work. Bands of students reinforced by strikers and the rougher floating population paraded the streets proclaiming their adherence to Zaghlul Pasha and complete independence for Egypt. While most of the strikers are said to have been orderly, rioters led by the students and the mob element looted property, damaged street cars, attacked police stations, and even attempted the assassination of some of the ministry. Martial

law was finally resorted to and order restored.

Among these strikes also that of the tramway men ranked first in importance. The strike began in August on the Cairo tramways and lasted two months, during which time traffic was again virtually suspended. There was, however, a new note in the demands put forward.

To the usual demands for wage increases were added those for recognition of the railway men's union and for free lodgings with water, in localities where the streets are lighted and cleaned. Sympathetic strikes were declared by the Heliopolis and Alexandria tramway men, and the whole matter was referred to the newly established conciliation board for adjustment. The Heliopolis tramway men remained out until September 18, when they again went to work, withdrawing

their demand for recognition of the union.

The Alexandria companies were on the point of a settlement with their men on September 23. They were ready to grant increases, but announced their intention of meeting the greater operating expenses by a 50 per cent increase in rates. At this point the Government stepped in and forbade the increase in rates until the whole matter had been gone into by the Government legal advisers. A settlement now seemed further off than ever. The people of the city still walked. Finally the truly "long-suffering public" took a hand in the proceedings. In an open meeting held to discuss means of breaking the deadlock it was shown that the company's profits had increased considerably since 1914, and a protest was made against an apparently unnecessary delay in resumption of normal conditions.

On October 8 the Alexandria municipal commission, presided over by the president of the Labor Conciliation Commission, decided that increased fares were not justified. Nevertheless, fares were raised, 100 per cent on single tickets bought on trains; 40 per cent on books of tickets; 25 per cent on season tickets; 20 per cent on school tickets. The company estimated this at a general increase of 35 per cent. Service was resumed October 15. The men were granted a 20 per cent increase in wages, a 20 per cent bonus to cover the high cost of living, and an 8-hour day; deposits with the company

were to bear interest at 5 per cent per annum.

The Cairo strike came to an end October 5, the conciliators having agreed on the following general terms: The union was not recognized though the company did not oppose it; general raise in wages to the level they would have attained under normal yearly increases had they not been suspended for two years owing to the war; a committee of inquiry to examine all offenses; interest on deposits with the company increased to 5 per cent per annum; advances by the company to assist workmen's families, based upon the amount of wages received; grants to offset the high cost of living of from 4 piasters (\$0.20, par) for those earning 20 piasters (\$0.98, par) per day, to 8 piasters (\$0.39, par) for those earning more than 35 piasters (\$1.72, par) per day.

Cost of Living, 1919-20.

Food Prices.

DURING 1919 prices of all kinds rose steadily and the numerous strikes, especially those of the tramwaymen, accelerated the increase. Owing to long periods in which traffic was suspended or

disorganized, meat could not be brought in from the Sudan, the main source of meat supply during the war. Sugar became scarce in the markets and consequently dear. Coffee prices rose 40 per cent.

In September, 1919, food control was reestablished. Committees were formed in large cities and towns to fix maximum prices on certain articles. But this attempt at regulation and relief proved a failure owing to the difficulty and in many instances the impossibility of enforcing compliance with the limits set. Profiteering in foodstuffs and in clothing of all kinds continued. The following official retail price figures prepared for the arbitrators in the railway strike give a fair idea of the increase in cost of food and clothing during the war:

RETAIL PRICES OF CERTAIN COMMODITIES IN CAIRO, 1914 AND 1919. 1 [1 oke=2.75 pounds; 1 piaster tariff=4.9 cents par.]

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Egyptian Gazette, Aug. 29, 1919, p. 4.

The upward movement of retail prices continued during the early months of 1920. In February Egypt was on the verge of a serious bread famine. In March, owing to the British miners' strike she faced a coal crisis. A special supplies department was established in the Ministry of Agriculture to take the place of the defunct supplies control board, and Government control was again resumed over wheat, meat, sugar, and other necessities. The large profits to be made in cotton led to a reduction of the acreage usually devoted to food crops. Tempted by the high prices, landowners not only planted cotton on land which they would otherwise have sown to wheat, barley, and beans, but are said actually to have plowed up winter cereal crops already in the ground for this purpose.

The Government, in order to meet the needs of the country as regards the wheat supply, levied a tax of 35 piasters (\$1.72, par)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Decrease.

per hundredweight on ginned cotton. This was a temporary measure which came into effect in October, 1920. Large stocks of wheat and meat were also bought, thus forcing a reduction in the prices of these necessary commodities later in the year. Moreover, instructions were sent out by the supplies department that food crops then in the ground should not be plowed up and planted to cotton for the 1921 season. Cooperative societies were established at Kena, Cairo, Alexandria, and other places to help solve the cost-of-living problem.

Housing

Owing to the virtual suspension of house building during the war and following the armistice the shortage of houses became particularly acute, a deficit of about 8,000 existing in Cairo alone, and rents of available dwellings, business premises, and offices were abnormal. In an effort to secure some form of legislation which would limit the rapacity of the landlords, a tenants' union was formed in Alexandria during August, 1919. On behalf of its members, many of whom belonged to the working class, the union petitioned the Government to introduce a law placing a tax on house rents of 6 per cent per annum and fixing the rents paid in 1915 as a maximum. No remedial action being taken the members of the unions resorted to passive resistance, closing all their shops and places of business on certain days in protest against high rents.

During February, 1920, a rent law relating to dwellings was enacted providing (1) that maximum rent must not exceed 50 per cent over the rent in 1914; (2) a landlord could not ask a tenant to vacate unless (a) the latter had failed to pay his rent within 15 days after being called upon to do so either by registered letter or summons; (b) the tenant had used the house in some manner not in accord with the terms of the contract. The law was to remain in force until December 31, 1920. This law, though it applied only to private residences, afforded a measure of relief, for cases had been known in Cairo where landlords had increased rents from 170 to over

200 per cent.

The tenants' union at once started an agitation for an extension of the application of the law to shops, offices, furnished rooms, flats, or residences the rent of which included the price of food. The landlords not only vigorously opposed the modification of the law but sought to have the existing provisions repealed. During May and again in July the members of the tenants' union in Alexandria closed all their shops and places of business for one day in protest against the stand taken by the landlords. Meanwhile unions were being formed in Cairo and other large and small towns, their membership reaching more than 50,000.

During August, 1920, in further protest against the apparent inaction of the Government in the rent matter, members of the tenants' union in Alexandria decided not to pay their rents. Instead they deposited the required amounts plus 25 to 50 per cent increase over the prewar rate with the city treasurer and again closed their shops for 24 hours. The matter was finally placed in the

hands of the minister of justice.

The agitation on the part of the unions eventually resulted in the creation of a rent commission, September 28, 1920, to consider the

annulment or extension of the existing rent law. The landlords presented arguments before the commission to the effect that since building materials had gone up 300 per cent and loans from 6 per cent to 9 per cent a landlord must charge three times as much for rent as in 1914 in order to secure a reasonable return upon his investment. But the unions, which by this time were acting cooperatively, did not relax their efforts in behalf of a modification of the law, and on February 21, 1921, a law superseding the law of February, 1920,

was enacted, effective until June 30, 1922.

According to its provisions the maximum rent for unfurnished residences must not be more than 50 per cent over that in 1914; the proprietor may terminate his lease by giving six months' clear notice, on condition that he wishes to occupy it himself or that his father, mother, son, or daughter wish to occupy it. In this case the residence must be occupied within one month of its evacuation and the person must live in it at least one year, otherwise the old tenant may have the right to reoccupy the residence, irrespective of any indemnity he may claim. The proprietor may likewise have the right of terminating the lease after giving six months' clear notice if he desires to sell the building for some urgent reason, such as the fear of expropriation, the liquidation of his position for the purpose of leaving the country, etc. This he is required to prove and also that the sale can not be carried out unless the tenant vacates.

The new law provides for a maximum rent for certain classes of furnished residences at the rate of 100 per cent above that of the unfurnished residence on August 1, 1914, increased by 50 per cent. Furnished residences let for short periods to persons seeking a change of climate in certain places especially adapted to that purpose are

excluded from this limitation.

Quarters which are let for any purpose other than for private residence have also been made subject to a maximum of 50 per cent increase if their rent on August 1, 1914, did not exceed £E72 (\$355.68, par) per annum. Where, however, the rent exceeded £E72 (\$355.68, par) per annum on August 1, 1914, the maximum rent to be fixed is left for the tribunal to decide.

A further effort to relieve the congested housing situation was made by the Government in March, 1921, when the minister of finance announced his intention of cooperating with the Cairo Electric Railway and Heliopolis Oasis Co. in starting 600 houses at Heliopolis, to which employees of the Egyptian Government will have a prior claim

### Labor Unrest in 1920-1921.

MANY of the disputes which had been previously settled by industrial agreement broke out afresh during the spring and summer of 1920, and new disputes arose. They were due to several causes: Wages, though they had increased from 100 to 125 per cent over the prewar scale, had not kept pace with the cost of living; the delegates who represented the workers in former settlements had been irregularly elected and were often not really capable of representing them; daily press reports indicate that in many of the disputes agreements were not kept by either side; long delays occurred in the settlement of demands after the strikers had returned to work.

In January, 1920, the Cairo gas workers struck, demanding 50 per cent increase in pay for native workmen and 20 per cent for the European staff which had already been granted 30 per cent; 28 days' work and 2 days of rest on full pay each month guaranteed each workman who had served 10 years; a gratuity on discharge of one month's pay for each year of continuous service; and all the staff except four to be taken back. Increases in wages including cost-of-living bonus were granted but the amount was not stated. The gas workers in both Alexandria and Cairo were on strike again for 15 days in the early part of October. Cairo was plunged into almost complete darkness, elevators could not run, and business and amusement houses were closed, because the company was unable to fill the strikers' places with competent men. A 30 per cent increase in wages was granted. These workers had at this time received wage increases of from 70 to 150 per cent, including the cost-of-living bonus.

During the same month a lockout of 10,000 cigarette makers occurred, and the teachers in the Coptic College at Cairo struck for higher wages. Wage increases resulted in both cases, the teachers receiving an advance of 20 per cent. In August, 1919, employees of the Alexandria engineering works demanded (1) a 50 per cent increase on all existing rates of daily pay; (2) a 48-hour week; (3) rates of insurance and compensation to be made public, showing the scale for injury to fingers, eyes, limbs, etc.; (4) a bonus equal to one month's pay (at hourly rate) to be given any workman discharged after two years' continuous employment with the company. As no settlement had ever been made with the men for the alleged reason that a majority of the directors were in Europe, a strike was called January 9, 1920. The men gained demands (2) and (3); compensation rates were increased from 700 to 1,000 days' pay for total disablement; and a scale was fixed for minor accidents occurring in the workshops.

Unrest manifested itself among the Port Said Canal workers in August, 1920, when an agitation for higher wages started among the International Workers' Union of the Isthmus of Suez. The company, after some delay, fixed the minimum pay of European workmen at 10 francs gold standard (\$1.93, par) for an 8-hour day; that of a native workman at 7.50 francs (\$1.45, par) per day, with an allow-

ance for each dependent in the workman's family.

The next strike in the canal zone occurred in the early part of October among the electricians employed by a French company to operate the electric lights used by the ships passing through the canal at night. The original cause of this strike centered largely around the question of hours. The men demanded that they be allowed to work in pairs instead of singly, as they had been doing, on the ground that a man might have to be on duty for 8 or 10 consecutive hours without an opportunity to leave his post. The company contended that an uninterrupted 8-hour shift was exceptional. The men then increased their demands, one of which, and the chief one, was recognition of the International Workers' Union. This union, organized within the last two years, includes among its membership the employees of the most important coal and shipping companies in the canal zone. The Suez Canal Co. has recognized it, but the other firms refuse to do so because they believe that its president, who is not a workman, is only a paid agitator.

The strike was confined to the firm in question, but violence resulted from the conviction by the British consular court of a striker (a British subject) for assault upon a strike breaker. A crowd of 2,000 attacked the police station, and British troops were finally called out to preserve order. The employers then refused to deal with the union. Finally an arbitration board consisting of the governor, as president, and one person not connected with the strike from every foreign colony interested was formed. The strikers returned to work and submitted their grievances to the board.

On November 24 the employees of another French shipping firm struck for a reduction of the working day from 10 hours to 8 hours and the company closed its workshops. Another strike among the employees of a shipping firm occurred at Port Said in February, 1921, which was marked by sabotage, the essential parts being removed from the machines. As a result of this strike the men gained a 48-hour week, retirement with pensions, overtime at the rate of time and one-half; same rates of pay for 8 hours' work as formerly given for 10 hours' work; free medical attendance for first three weeks of illness, bonus of 15 days' pay for every year in service based on good record; disputes to be settled by committee of workmen, managers, and foremen; union not opposed, but not recognized.

There was more or less unrest in the printing industry throughout the year. A strike in May tied up the publication of five newspapers. In November, 1920, the International Printers' League of Alexandria demanded of the employers a general increase of 40 per cent in printers' wages, a 6½-hour day, and an agreement providing for the establishment of workmen's councils in all printing offices, which for all practical purposes would place the control of the industry in the hands of the printers. The employers refused to enter into any such agreement. The league had planned to start strikes in the various printing offices, one after another, but at the first strike the Master Printers' Association declared a lockout which affected the great majority of printing establishments in Alexandria.

Several efforts at reaching an agreement failed through lack of unity on the part of the men, the employers finally making the signing of individual contracts and resignation from the league conditions precedent to a return to work. On the sixth week of the strike the men in one office still refused to accept the terms offered. When, however, the company threatened to start work again with the workers who had remained the strike collapsed.

#### Strikes of Tramwaymen, 1920-21.

At the very beginning of 1920 the tramwaymen at Cairo complained that the companies had not carried out the terms of the October, 1919, agreement. Accordingly a bureau of inquiry was instituted to inquire into the situation. In February a strike was broken up, no cause of complaint being found by the conciliation board, which went thoroughly into the alleged causes of discontent. Employees of the Heliopolis tramway went out again in April because an employee who insulted the traffic manager was dismissed. A strike of the Alexandria tramwaymen in the middle of the summer was averted through the efforts of the conciliation board. A settle-

ment was reached with them on October 15, which granted further increases in wages, the company to raise fares to meet the additional expenditure. Other gains included 20 per cent bonus to offset the high cost of living; 8-hour day; disciplinary measures to be approved by the director general; union not to be recognized but not opposed; overtime at rate of time and one-half before midnight; twice the

usual rate after midnight.

An adjustment was also made in October with the Cairo tramwaymen who had been working steadily since July, 1920, granting temporary increases of 30 per cent in pay, but the company refused to make this increase permanent in addition to the cost-of-living bonus. No dismissals were to be made except after submission of the case to the board of inquiry. Dissatisfaction with conditions, chiefly those connected with the board of discipline and inquiry, grew. The men had insisted on the formation of this board in the preceding agreement with the company, but apparently they thought that representation of employees on the board would insure either pardons or nominal punishments for breaches of discipline, for their attitude became one of resentment not alone against severity of punishment, but against any punishment. In cases involving friends syndicalist action was threatened. Then the men's representative began to absent himself from meetings of the board, which naturally continued to act without him.

Finally in November the Cairo tramwaymen being without strike funds adopted a policy of sabotage and reduction of output. Train service was dislocated through an improper manipulation of the motors. In five days 212 cars were sent to the shops for repairs where a practice of "ca'canny" followed. By these methods the men retained their wages while reducing the company's returns.

This condition of affairs continued into 1921, and by January 2 it was estimated that only 7 or 8 out of the 18 lines were running, and some of those did not make complete trips. Threatened by the conciliation board with discontinuance of effort in their behalf, the men placed the responsibility upon the company, saying that the equipment was old and in continual need of repair. Additional demands made by the men included the following: Old employees to be guaranteed employment; company not to continue policy of engaging men on a six weeks' contract; men to be given all profits accruing from last 20 per cent increase in fare. After a number of weeks the men returned to work, leaving the adjustment of terms again to the conciliation board.

As in the previous big strike of the tramwaymen, business was badly if not entirely crippled. The peripatetic public which originally sympathized with the economic demands of the men, became thoroughly incensed at the novelty of the methods they employed. The strikers insisted on driving the cars when and where the spirit prompted. Cars did or did not stop upon signal, according to the whim of the motorman. If one set out for the Pyramids, for instance, one might be taken to the seacoast. A trip into the unknown could be had for a few cents. Cairo became again a golden city of the Arabian Nights, where the unusual was the usual.

The situation on the tramways continues to be abnormal. Since the strike in December, 1920, three others have occurred in quick succession. Those of March 27, 1921, at Alexandria, and April 16 at Cairo, were promptly settled by Government intervention, while

that of April 27 at Cairo continued at last reports.

The first of these three strikes is said to have been due to objections of the men to the general manager's inquiry into a dispute in the workshops. Another reason given for striking is the dismissal of large numbers of men. The union claims that 653 employees were discharged between October, 1919, and January, 1921, and £E1,000 (\$4,940, par) in fines imposed, while the company asserts that only 75 out of a force of 3,000 have been dismissed during the last year and a half and that their cases were passed upon by the board of inquiry and discipline. The men also demand the reemployment of the leaders of the strike and the repeal of a law recently enacted to prevent the payment of wages to the unions and more control in the matter of strikes and dismissals. Violence and intimidation have been resorted to by the extremists among them. An attack on strike breakers at the workshops resulted in injuries to nine persons. The clerical staff was also menaced. Although there is great distress among the workmen, many of whom would be glad to return to work, the extremists, who constitute only about 20 per cent of the working force, have been successful thus far in keeping up the strike. The public sees politics behind the numerous tramway strikes, especially so since the Government seems unable to protect those who are willing to work.

#### Other Strikes.

Two strikes of unusual character during the present year are those of the Alexandria cabmen who were out about a week in protest against the activities of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals. The cabmen contended that officers of the society unnecessarily held animals in their keeping, charging a large fee for maintenance, and returning them considerably underfed. An inquiry was instituted and pending a report the cabmen have gone back to work and the activities of the society in Alexandria have been temporarily suspended. Another strike of the same cabmen was called on April 25 for the same reason. Cabmen accompanied by the riffraff paraded the streets. No motors were allowed to pass unless accompanied by the police. Urged on by native lawyers the cabmen took the law into their own hands, and assaulted car drivers, tramway motormen, and carters to force them to join them in a universal strike.

#### Results of Labor Unrest.

COMPARATIVE statistics relative to working conditions in individual industries are not available; but it is apparent from the terms of agreements reached that the labor disputes have resulted in a substantial increase in wages, a reduction in working hours, and the amelioration of other working and living conditions. Definite percentages of wage increases can not be given because the prewar rates are rarely ever shown and available figures often include the cost-of-living bonuses. Frequently apparently large percentages of

increase quoted in the agreements represent the total increases over

prewar rates.

The general effect on wages, however, has been an increase of 100 to 125 per cent over the prewar scale, workers of all classes including judges and Government employees having been affected. The Egyptian Government granted its employees temporary allowances to meet the cost of living which ran as high as 40 or 50 per cent for some classes.

Even in the country districts where there has been no distinct labor trouble and the cost of living has risen more gradually than in the towns, wages show an average increase of more than 100 per cent over prewar rates. This has also been partly due to the scarcity of labor during the cotton season 1919–20. Children's wages rose from 8 to 10 piasters (\$0.39 to \$0.49, par) per day and cotton picking which before the war cost 15 piasters (\$0.74, par) per hundredweight paid by weight, in 1919 cost from 100 to 150 piasters (\$4.90 to \$7.35, par) per hundredweight paid by the day. The recent fall in the value of cotton and in the prices of other articles has been accompanied by a movement to reduce wages in some industries. As the wage increases, though considerable, have not begun to meet the rise in the cost of living, a very decided effort is being made by the workers to keep wages at their present levels at least.

A reduction in hours has also been noticeable. Previous to the war hours were long, 12 hours constituting an ordinary day, and in many instances they were not fixed. The 48-hour week, while not general, has made great headway. The adoption of the 8-hour day by jewelers, watchmakers and with few exceptions all the big retail houses in Cairo, was followed almost immediately by a similar movement among the leading business houses of Alexandria. The 8-hour day is also included in the terms of settlement made by part of the tramwaymen and the engineers, as well as by many of the employees of shipping firms in the canal zone. Workers who failed to secure the 8-hour day have had their working day reduced from 10 and 12 hours to 8½, 9 and 9½ hours. The demand of the printers for a 6½-hour day was not granted.

for a 6½-hour day was not granted.

Other gains include cost-of-living bonuses, workmen's compensation, gratuities for unemployment, better living quarters, medical attendance in case of illness, boards of discipline and inquiry on which workmen are represented and which have brought about a juster application of the prevailing system of fines for breaches of discipline,

and employee's representation on conciliation boards.

#### The Labor Conciliation Commission.

Two of the important results of the disturbed industrial conditions prevailing since 1919 were the establishment of a labor conciliation commission and the development of the syndical movement. With the increasing prevalence of strikes during the early part of 1919, the urgent necessity for the creation of some body to inquire into the justice of the workers' demands and to use its offices in preserving a measure of peace in the Egyptian industrial world became more and more apparent.

As a step in this direction the Labor Conciliation Commission was established August 18, 1919, by the prime minister. The members of the commission included Dr. Alexander Granville, president, Sadik Younis Bey, Mr. William Hornblower, Rafla Tadras Bey, and

Ahmed Omar Bey.

It is the function of this group of men to examine all demands for Government intervention in questions arising between employers and their employees with regard to wages, hours, etc.; to appoint from among its members or otherwise officials to preside at meetings of employers and employees and to examine the reports presented by them; to prepare measures for the settlement of disputes; to collaborate in the formation of local boards of representation; and to examine complaints relative to the carrying out of the conditions of the settlement of any dispute.

of the settlement of any dispute.

Through the efforts of the commission the labor situation in Egypt is said to have materially improved. An increasing number of disputes are being arbitrated; hours have been fixed and in many cases reduced. Extra pay has been granted for overtime; wages have increased; and cost-of-living bonuses have been paid. Agreements regulating fines, dismissals, holidays, and pensions are being

reached.

According to its first report, which deals with the period between August 18, 1919, and November 31, 1919, the number of cases dealt with was 24. Of these 12 resulted in strikes, 7 of which were settled by agreements favorable to the men; 3 failed, and the issue of the other 2 is not reported. Of the 12 cases not resulting in strikes 4 were decided in the workers' favor, 3 collapsed owing to lack of organization, and the result of the remaining 5 is not given. From December 1, 1919, to February 29, 1920, the period covered by the second report, the board considered 16 disputes, 8 of which terminated in strikes. From March to June, 1920, 11 strikes occurred, most of which were settled by compromise. In several instances the employers granted bonuses to men whom they had discharged. Of the 9 strikes occurring during the next quarter, July to September, 1920, the most important were those of the gas workers and dockers described elsewhere. Between October 1 and December 31, 1920, the board settled 20 different disputes, 12 of which were new. two most important cases of this group were the Cairo tramway strike and the strike of the workmen at Port Said, already discussed.

In most cases the demands put forward by the workers included increased wages and reduced hours. In some instances disputes were based upon demands for the reinstatement of dismissed workers, recognition of the union, introduction of machinery to replace hand labor, and other causes. The board found that in a majority of the disputes the economic demands of the strikers were justified, an investigation into the relation of wages to cost of living showing that a workman who received 6 to 8 piasters (\$0.29 to \$0.39, par) a day in 1914 ought to be paid more than 14 to 16 piasters (\$0.67 to \$0.78, par) in 1920 in order to live on the same scale. This estimate is based upon the very low wages paid before the war and makes no allowance for improvement in living conditions, which the workers

are beginning to realize is so urgently needed.

In addition to its work of a purely mediatory character, the board has collected statistics as to number of workmen, hours of labor, and wages in Egypt, and labor legislation in other countries. Cost-of-living figures have also been gathered and tables prepared as bases in the settlement of wage disputes.

### Labor Organization in Egypt.

Organization among Egyptian workers is of very recent date and is still in the formative stage. Prior to 1919, though a few isolated unions had been formed, there had been no concerted effort looking toward the amelioration of middle and working class labor conditions. Among the existing unions were one consisting of Government employees; one known as the 'handicrafts union' which grouped the laborers of many different crafts and was benevolent as well as professional in character; and one called the 'Typographic League' which while more purely professional than the 'handicrafts union' was limited in its power to redress grievances because its accomplishment depended more upon the personal influence of its leaders than upon the actual economic rights and demands of its members.

The present movement originated among the Greek workers and was promoted by articles in the Greek papers, which also aided in giving it a loyal character, while the Egyptian Gazette (British) of June 13, 1919, commented favorably upon it. It is also generally acknowledged that the European labor situation acted as an incentive and that encouragement was received from the successful issue of the strikes on the Khedival Mail Steamship Co.'s docks where Egyptian and Greek workers acted in common, and of other strikes won

through united action.

A beginning was made among the grocers' clerks who even before their organization asked for a weekly half day of rest. Their request was granted by the grocers' society, which was already interesting itself in the working conditions of its employees. The formation of a union of grocers' assistants was followed by similar organizations among bakery workers, cigarette makers, employees in restaurants

and cafés.

Organization proceeded rapidly, including barbers, printers, tailors, gardeners, gas workers, metal workers, seamen, municipal workmen, proprietors and managers of business houses, postmen, Jewish unions, and workmen from the Isthmus of Suez. Unions were also formed among Government workers and bank clerks. The latter class in both the Greek and the foreign banks organized an international syndicate whose membership in June, 1919, numbered 1,600, of whom 600 were in Alexandria and 1,000 in Cairo. At the close of the year there were 17 trade-unions in Alexandria, one of them being an affiliation of 24 different trades called the Workers' Union (Syndicat des Ouvriers) 21 in Cairo, and 4 in Tantah. An alliance of the Cairo tramway men, gas workers, and water workers was formed in November, 1920.

The General Federation of Labor.

Complete figures relative to the growth of the trade-union movement during 1920 are not available. But the continued activity of the unions seems evident from the fact that on February 27, 1921, a

General Federation of Labor for Egypt was founded at Alexandria, to which 21 syndicates and unions signified their adherence. On May 1, 1921, the federation celebrated the first labor day in Egypt.

#### Conditions Affecting Trade-union Growth.

For several reasons peculiar to the country the possible extent to which trade-unionism among the native workers may become a force in the industrial life of Egypt is problematical. Thus far organization has developed only among town workers. The fact that workers belong to different races and mutual distrust prevails among them, and the casual and seasonal character of native town labor militate against successful trade-union development. Normally the supply of casual labor consists of workers from Upper Egypt who come to Alexandria for the winter, returning to agricultural work as soon as the cotton export season is over. Latterly, however, wages have been so satisfactory in Alexandria that these workmen have continued in the city. Wherever the European workmen constitute a majority or even a good working minority in a trade, organization is more successful.

The Labor Conciliation Commission reports point out that labor in Egypt is greatly in need of proper leadership. Because of the lack of leaders among the workers, which is due both to illiteracy and to inexperience, the presidents of the labor unions are recruited largely from the professional classes, are not members of the unions, and are therefore without real knowledge of the interests of the workers.

The commission also finds that owing to the lack of confidence existing among the workers satisfactory leaders are difficult to find, and in addition the weakness of labor organizations makes it impossible to ascertain the workers' views by vote. The unions have no legal status and have not been recognized in the agreements thus far. The commission believes that a law regulating the organization of employers and workers will be necessary in the near future and recommends legislation to that end for the trade-unions.

The town workers, however, constitute but a small proportion of the laboring population. Egypt, like India, is largely an agricultural country, nine-tenths of the population being connected with the land. It is roughly estimated that there are about 2,000,000 farm laborers. A point of special interest in the organization of labor and an important factor in the ultimate success of the movement will be the extent to which the peasants ally themselves with it.

#### Conclusion.

EGYPTIAN labor unrest in 1919 originated in a tense political situation and was augmented by economic conditions which bore with increasing heaviness upon the worker. It was generally characterized by numberless, quick, short strikes for which neither workers nor employers were in the least prepared. That day was counted lost which did not witness an industrial or political upheaval of some sort. The demands of the workers, whether or not justified, were characterized by a noteworthy modernness.

During 1920 strikes were less numerous and those that did occur developed from economic rather than political causes. Throughout the period under discussion discontent among the tramway men has been the most deep-seated and they have naturally had an advantageous position for making their strikes felt among all classes of society. With the amelioration of the economic condition the demands of the workers, especially those of the tramway men are again taking on the trivial character which marked many of the

strikes of early 1919.

The possible seriousness of the labor situation, however, is overshadowed by the recent riots resulting from the political, racial, and religious antagonisms existing among the mixed races which constitute the population, and following the return of Zaghlul Pasha from Europe where he has been working for Egyptian independence since his release from Malta in 1919. His repudiation of the attitude of the present Egyptian cabinet regarding negotiations with Great Britain has widened the gulf between the moderates and the extremists of the nationalist party. The great mass of the fellaheen, however, still remain practically untouched by economic, religious, and political doctrines which sway the inhabitants of the cities, and they serve for the present at least as a balance wheel.

# Industrial and Labor Situation in France.

A S SHOWN by a report from the United States consul general at Paris, under date of April 22, 1921, statistics issued by the Ministry of Labor, based on the inspection of factories situated in different regions of France, show that out of 37,386 factories visited, which prior to the war were engaged in active production, 35,516 of these had taken up their work again in October, 1920. These factories in prewar days employed 1,313,377 hands, whereas in October, 1920, with a slightly smaller number open, the number of employees had increased to 1,380,373.

The following table shows the classes and number of industrial establishments in operation prior to the war, in August, 1914, and in October, 1920, together with the number of employees at work

during the same periods:

ESTABLISHMENTS IN OPERATION AND NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES PRIOR TO THE WAR AND IN AUGUST, 1914, AND IN OCTOBER, 1920, BY TRADE GROUPS.

	Number	of factories	working.	Number of w	orkers, male	and female.
Trade group.	Prewar.	August, 1914.	October, 1920.	Prewar.	August, 1914.	October, 1920.
Food products. Chemicals. Rubber and paper Books, printing. Textiles Cloth and clothing. Hides and leather Wood working Metallurgy, ordinary. Metallurgy, fine. Cutting precious stones. Masonry and stone construction. Pottery, etc. Transportation. Other groups.	3,762 1,108 524 990 3,199 8,095 1,650 3,628 5,327 168 78 1,960 948 415 5,534	2,620 692 287 554 1,223 5,172 928 1,425 2,763 38 10 747 360 264 3,778	3, 504 1, 089 504 965 2, 926 7, 641 1, 612 3, 350 5, 211 161 72 1, 891 908 402 5, 280	88, 828 55, 192 41, 909 32, 520 244, 526 116, 360 60, 167 63, 089 379, 659 5, 525 1, 545 56, 636 70, 603 29, 189 73, 232	44, 464 25, 070 19, 107 13, 687 163, 984 48, 886 22, 361 16, 772 111, 866 519 292 20 10, 779 14, 248 14, 449 35, 677	67, 731 61, 331 47, 365 26, 777 254, 262 97, 579 56, 676 61, 977 454, 983 6, 055 1, 231 85, 294 65, 994 27, 623 64, 865
Total	37, 386	20, 861	35, 516	1,313,377	482,001	1,380,378

# Industrial Conditions in Uruguay in 1920.

RECENT publication <sup>1</sup> of the National Labor Office of Uruguay is entirely devoted to a report on the condition of the industries of that country in 1920. They were said to be in a decidedly unfavorable state at the end of the year, and the working classes were in a precarious position. There was practically no demand for labor, as compared with previous years. Some industries continued with the same personnel, but a majority were operating with a reduced working force. The decline was most noticeable in the middle of the year, due, it is said, to the rise in the cost of raw materials, and to the condition of the world market. However, the development of foreign trade in some lines of industry came in time to avoid paralysis of the principal industries and thus prevent a more serious problem of unemployment, and at the close of 1920 there was noted a small improvement in industrial conditions.

An analysis of the various industries of the country shows a general falling off in the volume of sales, amounting frequently to as much as 50 per cent, and a consequent decrease in production. Wages continued on the 1919 level in general but some decreases are noted. Reductions in the working force, where specified, varied from 10 to 50 per cent. Some industries were reported normal, but this condition seems to be the exception. Among these were mills, bakeries, and the coffee, chemical products, wire nails, glass, dyes, and dairy products industries. The hat industry was one of those reported in a precarious condition but it had been greatly aided by the development of foreign markets for its products; wages remained about as in 1919 but the number of workers was reduced 20 per cent. Because of the demands of foreign trade the textile industry maintained production as usual; wages were not reduced, but there was a 30 per cent cut in the number of employees. About 35 per cent of the metallurgical workers were unemployed; wages remained as in 1919. A cut of 40 per cent in the number of employees in the machinery industry was noted and wages were still on the 1919 level. The shoe industry was almost paralyzed on account of a lockout, still unsettled, in the most important factories; about 900 workers were affected, of whom 150 were women.

Construction increased in 1920 as compared with 1919. In October, 1920, construction costs increased to about 8,000,000 pesos (\$8,273,600, par). In 1919 the total expenditures for building were only 3,301,217 pesos (\$3,414,119, par). Twice as many low buildings and three times as many tall buildings were built in 1920 as in 1919. In spite of this increased building activity there was still a housing shortage. Brick, tile, and cedar showed the greatest increase in price. The following table gives the prices of building

materials in 1919 and 1920:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Crónica de la Oficina Nacional del Trabajo. Montevideo, Marzo de 1921.

### PRICES OF BUILDING MATERIALS IN URUGUAY IN 1919 AND 1920.

[1 peso at par=\$1.0342; 1 meter=3.3 feet; 1 kilogram=2.2 pounds.]

Article.	Unit.	1919	1920
Brick, common. Brick, pressed. Cedar. Crushed rock, fine Granite. Iron for reinforcing cement. Lime Lumber, white Mosaics. Portland cement. Sand, coarse. Sand, fine Tile, common. Tile, "Sacomon". Tile, wiscomon".	1,000 do.	Pesos.  18 20 100 6 5,50 29 24 170 2,50 2,80 5 3 65 70 90	Pesos. 25 27 190 6 4.8 20 25 145 2.8 2.7 5 3 68 76 180

# PRICES AND COST OF LIVING.

## Retail Prices of Food in the United States.

HE following tables are based on figures which have been received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from retail dealers

through monthly reports of actual selling prices.1

Table 1 shows for the United States retail prices of food on June 15, 1921, as well as the percentage changes in the month and in the year. For example, the price of flour, was 8.8 cents per pound on June 15, 1920; 5.7 cents on May 15, 1921; and 5.9 cents on June 15, 1921. These figures show a decrease of 33 per cent in the year; but an increase of 4 per cent in the month.

The cost of various articles of food,2 combined, showed a decrease of 34 per cent in June, 1921, as compared with June, 1920, but a decrease of only three-tenths of 1 per cent in June, 1921, as compared

with May, 1921.

TABLE 1,—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE, JUNE 15, 1921, COMPARED WITH JUNE 15, 1920, AND MAY 15, 1921.

[Percentage changes of five tenths of 1 per cent and over are given in whole numbers.]

Article.	Unit.	Avera	ge retail p	rice on—	(+) or dec June 15, 1	of increase crease (-) 1921, com- with—
		June 15, 1920.	May 15, 1921.	June 15, 1921.	June 15, 1920.	May 15, 1921.
Sirloin steak . Round steak . Rib roast . Rib roast . Plate beef . Pork chops . Bacon . Ham . Lamb, leg of . Hens . Salmon, canned . Milk, fresh . Milk, evaporated . Butter . Oleomargarine . Nut margarine . Cheese . Lard . Crisco . Eggs, strictly fresh .	dododododododo	34, 8 27, 8 19, 0 40, 8 53, 9 57, 7 41, 5 46, 0 38, 0 16, 2 15, 0 67, 2 42, 8	Cents. 40, 1 35, 6 30, 2, 22, 0 15, 0 35, 1 43, 5 48, 7 44, 3 36, 3 14, 4 14, 3 42, 5 30, 8 28, 2, 2 31, 5 16, 7 21, 7 33, 4	Cents. 40. 0 35. 6 29. 8 21. 6 14. 1 34. 1 42. 9 35. 0 38. 6 35. 8 40. 2 29. 9 26. 8 29. 5 16. 2 21. 2 21. 2	-13 -16 -14 -22 -26 -16 -10 -15 -16 -16 -16 -18 -6 -12 -8 -40 -30 -29 -45 -42 -45 -42	- 0.5 - 0 - 1 - 2 - 6 - 3 - 1 + 0.4 - 1 - 7 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 5 - 3 - 3 - 2 - 5 - 6 - 3 - 2 - 5 - 5

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<sup>1</sup> In addition to monthly retail prices of food and coal, the bureau secures prices of gas and dry goods from each of 51 cities. Gas has heretofore been published in the June issue, but appears this year in the July issue. Dry goods appears regularly in the April, July, October, and December issues of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

2 The following 22 articles, weighted according to the consumption of the average family, have been used from January, 1913, to December, 1920: Sirioin steak, round steak, rib roast, chuck roast, plate beef, pork chops, bacon, ham, lard, hens, flour, corn meal, eggs, butter, milk, bread, potatoes, sugar, cheese, rice, coffee, tea. The remainder of the 43 articles shown in Tables 1 and 2 have been included in the weighted aggregates for each month, beginning with January, 1921.

Table 1.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE, JUNE 15, 1921, COMPARED WITH JUNE 15, 1920, AND MAY 15, 1921—Concluded.

Article.	Unit.	Averag	e retail pri	ce on—		
		June 15, 1920.	May 15, 1921.	June 15, 1921.	June 15, 1920.	May 15, 1921.
Bananas. Oranges.	do. S-oz. package. 28-oz. package. 29-oz. package. Pound. do. do. do. do. do. do. do. do. do. d	Cents. 11, 8, 8, 8, 6, 9, 9, 10, 5, 5, 14, 4, 30, 2, 20, 9, 18, 7, 7, 11, 8, 10, 3, 8, 1, 7, 4, 4, 16, 8, 18, 7, 74, 1, 149, 2, 22, 27, 7, 74, 1, 49, 2, 28, 2, 27, 7, 46, 3, 63, 9	Cents. 9.9 5.7 4.5.5 9.9 12.6 29.8 21.0 8.8 7.9 2.2 2.5 6.6 14.6 15.9 17.5 11.4 8.4 70.0 36.1 18.7 31.0 40.1	Cents. 9.8 5.9 4.5.5 9.9 9.12.3 229.8 20.7 8.8 7.9 2.7 6.0 11.4 15.9 17.6 11.3 7.8 68.3 35.7 18.5 30.9 41.6 49.9	-17 -33 -35 -6 -15 -1 -13 -53 -33 -33 -74 -30 -19 -14 -15 -9 -26 -71 -8 -27 -34 +12 -10 -22 -34	$\begin{array}{c} -1\\ +4\\ 0\\ 0\\ -2\\ 0\\ -1\\ 0\\ 0\\ -1\\ 0\\ -1\\ 0\\ +2\\ +7\\ -1\\ -1\\ -1\\ -1\\ -1\\ -1\\ -1\\ -1\\ -1\\ -1$

<sup>1</sup> See Note 2, p. 52.

Table 2 shows for the United States average retail prices of specified food articles on June 15, 1913 and 1914, and for each year from 1917 to 1921, together with the percentage changes in June of each of these specified years compared with June, 1913. For example, the price of sugar in June, 1913, was 5.3 cents; in June, 1914, 5.1 cents; in June, 1917, 9.4 cents; in June, 1918, 9.1 cents; in June, 1919, 10.6 cents; in June, 1920, 26.7 cents; and in June, 1921, 7.8 cents. As compared with the average price in June, 1913, these figures show the following percentage changes: Four per cent decrease in 1914; 77 per cent increase in 1917; 72 per cent increase in 1918; 100 per cent increase in 1919; 404 per cent increase in 1920; and 47 per cent increase in 1921.

TABLE 2.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE, JUNE 15 OF CERTAIN SPECIFIED YEARS COMPARED WITH JUNE 15, 1913.

[Percentage changes of five-tenths of 1 per cent and over are given in whole numbers.]

Article.	Unit.	A	veraş	ge reta	ail pri	ce Jui	ne 15–	-	cre	ease (	of inc (-) J I year , 1913.	une	15 of	each
		1913	1914	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1914	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921
sirloin steak. Cound steak. Cou	.dodododododododo	20. 1 16. 3 12. 2 20. 8 27. 3 27. 3 27. 3 19. 4 8. 8 8. 6 21. 8 21. 8 21. 8 21. 8 21. 8 35. 2 2. 3 35. 2 35. 3 27. 3 4 4 15. 8 27. 9 36. 8 27. 9 36. 8 27. 9 36. 8 27. 9 36. 8 36. 8	23. 7 20. 5 20. 5 21. 6 27. 0 20. 0 22. 0 22. 0 22. 0 33. 5 22. 7 15. 4 28. 2 22. 2 3. 3 3. 1 5. 1 5. 1 5. 1 5. 1 5. 1 5. 1 5. 1 5	30. 2 26. 1 10. 19 16. 6 31. 0 42. 6 39. 1 30. 4 47. 1 47. 1 47. 1 47. 1 48. 9 49. 6 8. 1 5. 5 47. 0 47. 0 48. 0 49.	40. 6 33. 5 22. 7 51. 5 37. 2 51. 5 37. 4 37. 6 13. 0 51. 1 33. 2 29. 6 6. 7 6. 7 6. 7 6. 7 6. 7 6. 8 9. 1 1 6. 8 9. 4 9. 4 9. 4 9. 4 9. 4 9. 4 9. 4 9. 4	43. 1 43. 4 44. 4 40. 4 40. 4 40. 4 40. 4 42. 1 42. 1 42. 1 42. 6 43. 2 42. 6 43. 2 40. 1 41. 4 42. 4 42. 4 43. 4 43. 4 44. 4 45. 4 46. 3 47. 4 47. 4 48. 6 48. 6 48	46. 1 42. 6 42. 6 42. 8 42. 8 42. 8 40. 8 40. 8 40. 8 41. 6 41. 8 41. 8	35. 6 29. 8 21. 6 41. 1 42. 9 35. 0 38. 6 40. 2 29. 9 5 16. 2 229. 9 5 16. 2 229. 9 5 16. 2 229. 9 5 16. 2 229. 9 5 16. 2 229. 9 5 16. 2 229. 7 6 6 17. 6 18. 7 18. 7 18	+ 5 + 2 + 2 + 2 + 2 + 4 + 4 + 1 + 1 + 4 + 5 + 5 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1	+ 34 + 34 + 34 + 36 + 49 + 56 + 43 + 57 + 20 + 34 + 77 + 21 + 24 + 24 + 24 + 24 + 24 + 24 + 34 + 34 + 57 + 77 + 77 + 77 + 77 + 77 + 77 + 77	+ 79 + 89 + 70 + 93 + 72 + 48 + 72 + 48 + 52 + 106 + 106 + 107 + 1	+ 79 + 68 + 68 + 72 + 72 + 72 + 72 + 104 + 110 + 102 + 98 + 95 + 69 + 80 + 154 + 154 + 177 + 117 + 117 + 117 + 117 + 127 + 117 + 127 + 117 + 117	+ 88 + 73 + 73 + 93 + 97 + 91 + 111 + 114 + 110 + 84 + 91 + 12 + 135 + 12 + 135 + 13	+55 +44 +36 +57 +77 +60 +12 +12 +13 +17 +77 +5 +5 +77 +5 +77 +5 +77 +5 +77 +77

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See note 2, p. 52.

Table 3 shows the changes in the retail price of each of 22 articles of food 3 as well as the changes in the amounts of these articles that could be purchased for \$1, each year, 1913 to 1920, and in June, 1921.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Although monthly prices have been secured on 43 food articles since January, 1919, prices on only 22 of these articles have been secured each month since 1913.



TABLE 3.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES OF FOOD AND AMOUNT PURCHASABLE FOR \$1, IN EACH YEAR, 1913 TO 1920, AND IN JUNE, 1921.

	Sirloin	steak.	Round	steak.	Rib 1	coast.	Chuck	roast.	Plate	beef.	Pork	chops.
Year.	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.
1913	. 259 . 257 . 273 . 315 . 389 . 417 . 347	Lbs. 3.9 3.9 3.7 3.2 2.6 2.4 2.3 2.5	Per lb. \$0, 223 . 236 . 230 . 245 . 290 . 369 . 389 . 395 . 356	Lbs. 4.5 4.2 4.3 4.1 3.4 2.7 2.6 2.5 2.8	Per lb. \$0, 198 . 204 . 201 . 212 . 249 . 307 . 325 . 332 . 298	Lbs. 5.1 4.9 5.0 4.7 4.0 3.3 3.1 3.0 3.4	Per lb. \$0.160 .167 .161 .171 .209 .266 .270 .262 .216	Lbs. 6.3 6.0 6.2 5.8 4.8 3.8 3.7 3.8 4.6	Per lb. \$0, 121 . 126 . 121 . 128 . 157 . 206 . 202 . 183 . 141	Lbs. 8.3 7.9 8.3 7.8 6.4 4.9 5.0 5.5 7.1	Per lb. \$0, 210 . 220 . 203 . 227 . 319 . 390 . 423 . 423 . 341	Lbs. 4. 8 4. 8 4. 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4
	Bac	con.	На	m.	La	rd.	Не	ens.	Eg	gs.	But	ter.
1913	. 275 . 269 . 287 . 410 . 529 . 554	Lbs. 3.7 3.6 3.7 3.5 2.4 1.9 1.8 1.9 2.3	Per lb. \$0, 269 .273 .261 .294 .382 .479 .534 .555 .489	Lbs. 3.7 3.7 3.8 3.4 2.6 2.1 1.9 1.8 2.0	Per lb. \$0.158 .156 .148 .175 .276 .333 .369 .295 .162	Lbs. 6.3 6.4 6.8 5.7 3.6 3.0 2.7 3.4 6.2	Per lb. \$0, 213 .218 .208 .236 .286 .377 .411 .447 .386	Lbs. 4.7 4.6 4.8 4.2 3.5 2.7 2.4 2.2 2.6	Per dz. \$0, 345 . 353 . 341 . 375 . 481 . 569 . 628 . 681 . 350	Dozs. 2.9 2.8 2.9 2.7 2.1 1.8 1.6 1.5 2.9	Per lb. \$0.383 .362 .358 .394 .487 .577 .678 .701 .402	Lbs. 2. 6 2. 8 2. 5 2. 1 1. 7 1. 5 1. 4 2. 5
	Che	ese.	Mi	lk.	Bre	ead.	Flo	our.	Corn	meal.	Ri	ce.
1913	. 233 . 258 . 332 . 359 . 426 . 416	Lbs. 4.5 4.4 4.3 3.9 3.0 2.8 2.3 2.4 3.4	Per qt. \$0.089 .089 .088 .091 .112 .139 .155 .167 .142	$\begin{array}{c c}Qts.\\11.2\\11.2\\11.4\\11.0\\9.0\\7.2\\6.5\\6.0\\7.0\end{array}$	Per lb. \$0.056 .063 .070 .073 .092 .098 .100 .115 .098	Lbs. 17. 9 15. 9 14. 3 13. 7 10. 9 10. 2 10. 0 8. 7 10. 2	Per lb. \$0.033	Lbs. 30.3 29.4 23.8 22.7 14.3 14.9 13.9 12.3 16,9	Per lb. \$0.030 .032 .033 .034 .058 .068 .064 .065	Lbs. 33.3 31.3 30.3 29.4 17.2 14.7 15.6 15.4 22.2	Per lb. \$0.087 .088 .091 .091 .104 .129 .151 .174 .088	Lbs. 11. 2 11. 2 11. 6 11. 6 7. 8 6. 6 5. 7 11. 4
	Pota	itoes.	Sug	gar.	Cof	fee.	T	ea.				
1913. 1914. 1915. 1916. 1917. 1918. 1919. 1920. 1921: June.	.018 .015 .027 .043 .032 .038 .063	Lbs. 58.8 55.6 66.7 37.0 23.3 31.3 26.3 15.9 37.0	Per lb. \$0.055 .059 .066 .080 .093 .097 .113 .194 .078	Lbs. 18.2 16.9 15.2 12.5 10.8 10.3 8.8 5.2 12.8	Per lb. \$0. 298 . 297 . 300 . 299 . 302 . 305 . 433 . 470 . 357	Lbs. 3.4 3.4 3.3 3.3 3.3 2.3 2.1 2.8	Per lb. \$0.544 .546 .545 .546 .582 .648 .701 .733 .683	Lbs. 1.8 1.8 1.8 1.7 1.5 1.4 1.5				

Index Numbers of Retail Prices of Food in the United States.

IN TABLE 4 index numbers are given which show the changes in the retail prices of each of 22 food articles, by years from 1907 to 1920, and by months for 1920 and 1921. These index numbers, or relative prices, are based on the year 1913 as 100, and are computed by dividing the average price of each commodity for each month and

 $<sup>^4</sup>$  See note 2, p. 52.  $^6$  For index numbers of each month, January, 1913, to December, 1920, see Monthly Labor Review for February, 1921, pp. 19–21.

each year by the average price of that commodity for 1913. These figures must be used with caution. For example, the relative price of rib roast for the year 1920 was 168, which means that the average money price for the year 1920 was 68 per cent higher than the average money price for the year 1913. The relative price of bacon for the year 1919 was 205 and for the year 1920, 194, which figures show a drop of 11 points but a decrease of only 5 per cent in the year.

In the last column of Table 4 are given index numbers showing the changes in the retail cost of all articles of food, combined. From January, 1913, to December, 1920, 22 articles have been included in the index, and beginning with January, 1921, 43 articles have been used. For an explanation of the method used in making the link between the cost of the market basket of 22 articles, weighted according to the average family consumption in 1901, and the cost of the market basket based on 43 articles and weighted according to the consumption in 1918, see Monthly Labor Review for March, 1921 (p. 25).

The curve shown in the chart on page 58 pictures more readily to the eye the changes in the cost of the family market basket and the trend in the cost of the food budget than do the index numbers given in the table. The retail cost of the food articles included in the index has decreased since July, 1920, until the curve is brought down in June, 1921, to slightly below where it was in April, 1917. The chart has been drawn on the logarithmic scale, because the percentages of increase or decrease are more accurately shown than

on the arithmetic scale.

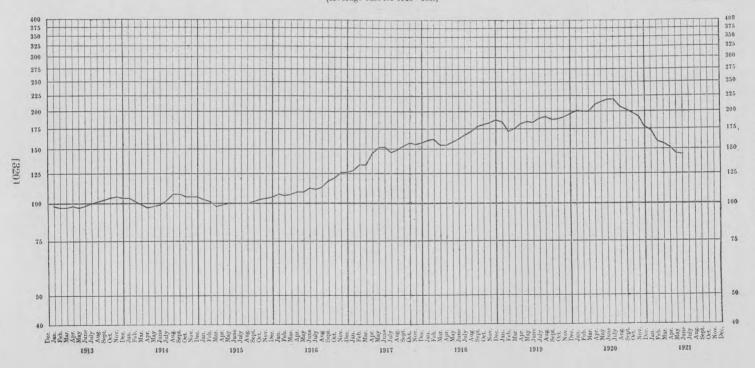
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> See note 2, p. 52.
<sup>6</sup> For a discussion of the logarithmic chart, see article on "Comparison of arithmetic and ratio charts," by Lucian W. Chaney, Monthly Labor Review for March, 1919, pp. 20-34. Also, "The 'ratio' charts," by Prof. Irving Fisher, reprinted from Quarterly Publications of the American Statistical Association, June, 1917, 24 pp.

[Average for year 1913=100.]

	Year and month.	Sirloin steak.	Round steak.	Rib roast.	Chuck roast.			Ba- con.	Ham.	Lard.	Hens.	Eggs.	But- ter.	Cheese.	Milk.	Bread.	Flour.	Corn meal.	Rice.	Pota- toes.	Su- gar.	Cof- fee.	Tea.	All articles combined.
10101	1907 1908 1909 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1919 1920: Av.foryear January February March April May June July August September October November December	71 73 77 80 81 91 100 102 101 108 124 159 160 161 170 171 182 192 192 185 177 171 175	68 71 74 78 89 89 100 108 103 110 130 165 174 167 168 179 179 191 1202 198 193 188 178 178	76 78 81 85 85 94 100 103 101 126 155 164 188 159 169 176 181 176 181 175 168 165 165 165 165 165 165 165 165 165 165	100 104 101 107 131 166 169 164 158 157 166 163 174 179 172 170 162 158 145		74 76 83 92 95 91 100 105 96 108 152 186 201 201 201 208 202 194 208 219 238 238 210 157	74 777 83 95 91 100 102 106 152 205 194 186 186 186 191 195 200 203 202 202 202 202 196 176	76 78 82 91 100 102 97 109 142 178 209 187 188 190 199 206 215 222 223 225 221 2186	81 80 90 104 88 94 100 99 93 111 175 211 137 215 204 192 191 189 185 184 177 177 185 183 162	81 83 89 94 91 100 102 97 111 117 197 210 215 224 221 216 211 212 214 207 189	84 86 93 98 99 100 102 99 139 165 182 197 240 199 161 153 153 155 166 234 206 238	85 86 90 94 98 98 100 94 93 103 103 1151 1177 183 194 199 187 175 177 175 177 175 179 180 181 162	100 104 105 117 150 162 193 188 196 196 194 194 189 186 183 184 184 184 184	87 90 91 95 96 97 100 99 102 125 156 174 188 187 183 182 183 182 188 191 193	100 112 124 124 127 129 195 195 195 195 200 205 211 213 213 211 207 193	95 102 109 108 102 105 100 104 126 125 211 203 218 245 245 245 245 245 264 267 264 267 264 262 262 263 264 263 264 264 265 264 265 264 265 266 266 266 266 266 266 266 266 266	88 92 94 95 94 102 100 205 118 113 192 227 223 230 233 230 233 230 227 213 197 221 221 221 221 221 221 221 22	100 101 104 105 119 148 174 200 208 211 214 215 215 214 210 202 185 163 152	105 111 112 101 135 100 108 89 159 253 188 224 371 318 353 400 535 565 566 524 229 200 194 188	105 108 107 109 117 115 100 108 120 146 205 363 342 340 367 462 485 482 4416 333 253 191		100 100 100 107 119 129 135 132 131 135 136 136 137 137 137 133 135 133	822 844 899 933 922 1001 1011 1144 1464 1465 2033 201 2000 2000 2111 215 219 207 203 193 193 193 193 193 193 193 193 193 19
	1921: January February March April May June	159 151 154 157 158 157	163 153 157 160 160 160	157 148 152 154 153 151	148 138 141 140 138 135	140 129 130 127 124 117	171 156 168 177 167 162	171 166 155 164 161 159	180 179 181 183 181 182	141 131 124 116 106 103	200 201 203 202 194 181	229 139 121 99 97 101	159 148 150 145 111 105	175 174 176 169 143 133	183 173 171 167 162 160	193 189 188 184 177 175	203 197 194 179 173 179	173 167 160 153 150 150	137 121 113 106 101 101	176 153 147 135 129 159	176 162 176 176 153 142	129 126 125 123 121 120	133 131 131 129 129 126	172 158 156 152 145 144

TREND OF RETAIL COST OF 22 FOOD ARTICLES, COMBINED, FOR THE UNITED STATES, BY MONTHS, JANUARY, 1913, TO JUNE, 1921.

[Average cost for 1913=100.]



# Retail Prices of Food in 51 Cities on Specified Dates.

AVERAGE retail food prices are shown in Table 5 for 39 cities for June 15, 1913, for June 15, 1920, and for May 15 and June 15, 1921. For 12 other cities, prices are shown for the same dates with the exception of June, 1913, as these cities were not scheduled by the bureau until after 1913.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES

[The prices shown in the tables following are computed from reports sent monthly to the bureau by retail

		1	tlant	a, Ga		Ва	ltim	ore, M	d.	Birr	ningl	nam, .	Ala.
Article.	Unit.	June	15—	May	June	June	15—		June	June	15—	May	
		1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921
Sirloin steak	do		41. 1 38. 9 31. 5 25. 9	34.5 29.3 20.8	34.5	22.0 18.7 15.7	44.8 36.7 29.3	36.0 31.3 22.5	35.8 30.3 22.1	22.5 19.9 16.8	41.3	35. 4 29. 9 23. 5	28. 22.
Pork chopsBaconHam. Lamb, leg ofHens.	do	22. 5 32. 0 29. 0 20. 0 20. 5	56. 1 56. 8	43.5 46.9 35.7	42.8 46.3 37.1	23.7 31.0 18.5	47.1 60.3 44.8	36. 4 52. 8	35.7 53.2 36.2	33.8 30.0 21.7		48. 5 50. 6 36. 8	47. 50. 37.
Salmon (canned) Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated Butter Oleomargarine	Quart. 15–16 oz. can. Pound. do.	10.0 37.9	31. 0 25. 0 16. 5 69. 9 46. 5	21.8 20.0 15.1 48.1 37.2	20. 0 15. 2 42. 0	8.8	16.0 14.4 71.3	13.8	12.0 13.2 43.9	10.3	16.0	20.0 15.6 46.7	20. 15. 40.
Nut margarine Cheese Lard Crisco Eggs, strictly fresh	do	25.0	39. 3 40. 2 29. 2 35. 7 48. 4	31.0 27.9 17.2 20.1	27.1 16.9 19.7	22. 0 14. 1	28.4	31.5 14.7 18.9	29. 2 14. 7 18. 7	21.8 15.4	30.0	29.1 17.1 25.9	27. 16. 26.
Bread. Flour Corn meal. Rolled oats. Corn flakes.	Pounddo	6.0 3.8 2.5	6.4	3.4	6.2	3.2	9.2	5.6 3.7 9.6	5.9 3.6 9.5	3.8	8.8	6.5 3.2 11.6	6 3 11
Cream of Wheat Macaroni. Rice. Beans, navy Potatoes	28-oz. pkg Pounddododododododo.	8.6	31. 4 21. 8 18. 2 13. 6 10. 4	31.6 22.6 7.7 9.7 3.2	7.5 10.0		20.3 17.7 10.8	9.3 7.8	21.0 9.5 7.8	8.2	21.4 18.8 13.6	22.0 8.5 9.0	22. 8. 9.
Onions. Cabbage Beans, baked. Corn, canned. Peas, canned.	do do do do do do		10.6 8.1 16.3 20.3 20.0	3.8 13.8 15.2	2.9 14.0 15.8		15.0 18.1	13.0	4.5 13.0 15.5		9.5 6.4 18.5 19.0 21.1	4.8 16.2 16.3	15 16
Tomatoes, canned Sugar, granulated Tea Coffee	do Pound do	5. 4 60. 0 32. 0	14.6 28.7 92.3 52.9	8.6	7.9 91.1	56.0	70.4		6.9		89.0	8.8	85
Prunes Raisins Bananas Oranges	do Dozendo		29. 1 24. 4 37. 1 65. 4	35.0 30.5	35.0		26.7 27.8 34.5 62.5	30.4	28.9 30.5			21. 2 32. 5 40. 9 45. 0	32

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of the cities included

OF FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES.

 $dealers. \ \ As some \ dealers \ occasionally \ fail \ to \ report, the \ number \ of \ quotations \ varies \ from \ month.$ 

	Boston	, Mass		Bridg	eport,	Conn.	В	uffalo	, N. T	Y.	Bu	tte, M	ont.	Ch	arlest	on, S	. C.
June	15—	May	June	June	May	June	June	15—	May			May	June	June	15—	May	June
1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	15, 1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	15, 1920.	15, 1921.	1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.
Cts. 1 37. 0 34. 0 25. 0 18. 0	44.1	53. 8 37. 0	53. 5 35. 8	49. 1 39. 7	Cts. 44.6 41.3 34.2 24.1 11.5	40. 9 33. 8 23. 9	19.8 17.5 15.5	28.2	32.5 28.9 21.0	32. 8 28. 7 21. 0	32. 2 25. 8	31. 5 27. 3 24. 7 18. 4	27. 2 24. 9	21.3 15.0	43. 0 34. 1 27. 5	32. 2 25. 1	37. 8
24. 0 25. 4 31. 8 23. 0 26. 2	50. 4 63. 3 44. 9	39. 4 55. 0 38. 2	38. 5 56. 0 40. 2	59.7 65.6 43.0	36. 3 47. 5 56. 3 35. 6 45. 3	47. 4 56. 3 39. 0	23.3 26.3	47.8	33. 5 47. 1 29. 4	33.3 48.3 29.7	63. 7 62. 9 36. 7	54.3 54.7 30.1		25.8 28.3 21.3	53. 0 55. 6 46. 8	44. 1 47. 8 41. 5	42.9 47.9 38.3
8. 9 35. 3	15.1	14.8	15. 3 14. 4 40. 0	15.0 14.7 66.3	39. 9 15. 0 14. 5 44. 5 30. 7	14.0 14.0	32.9	14.3	14. 0 13. 5 41. 1	13. 0 12. 6 38. 5	15. 6 15. 2 65. 3	14. 9 15. 3 35. 7	14.3 13.5 37.9	35. 2	36. 8 23. 7 14. 6 68. 6 44. 2	21. 0 13. 3 45. 1	20. 1 12. 9 39. 1
21. 4 16. 0	29. 2 35. 4	35. 4 17. 0	32. 0 16. 2	42.6 27.5 34.6	28. 1 35. 1 15. 5 20. 2 45. 6	20.0	14.2		31.3 14.9	27.9 14.3 19.2	35.0	37. 2 22. 3 28. 9	21. 4 26. 7	15.0	35, 3	28. 4 18. 9 20. 8	24. 18. 20.
5. 9 3. 7 3. 6	9,6	6. 4 5. 9 9. 0	8.8	10.4	11. 0 5. 7 8. 6 9. 9 11. 4	6.0 8.2	3.0 2.6	8.6	5. 0 4. 4 7. 6	4.3 8.2	9. 2 7. 7 10. 1	6. 3 5. 0 8. 6	4.9	3.7 2.4	13. 2 9. 1 5. 8 11. 3 14. 8	6.6 3.1 11.0	6. 3. 11.
9. 2	11.0	24. 4 10. 8	10.4	18. 2 11. 8	28. 8 24. 8 9. 4 8. 8 1. 8	25. 0 9. 8 8. 9	9.3	11.7		22.3 8.3 7.5	22.6 19.1 12.6	22. 0 10. 1 9. 1	34. 2 21. 7 9. 5 9. 1 1. 3	5.5	30. 0 21. 7 16. 1 14. 2 7. 9	20. 7 6. 0 10. 0	20. 3 6. 0 10. 3
	7. 2 9. 7 18. 3 21. 1 22. 1	7.0	16. 5 19. 5	9. 6 15. 3	5. 8 5. 8 13. 1 19. 8 20. 2	6. 1 13. 2 20. 1		8.2 7.9 14.2 17.9 18.1	5. 4 11. 9	5. 7 11. 5	6, 8	20. 8 17. 5	20. 5		9 5 6. 4 14. 9 19. 1 22. 1	2.6	2. 6 12. 6 14. 8
5. 1 58. 6 33. 0	15. 7. 25. 8 69. 9 53. 5	66. 3	11. 9 7. 5 66. 5 41. 4	27. 2 67. 1	11. 7 7. 8 58. 6 34. 8	11.6 7.5 58.1 34.9	5. 2 45. 0 29. 3	15. 7 25. 1 66. 8 47. 4	11. 6 7. 7 64. 1 33. 5	11. 7 7. 4 62. 9 33. 1	16. 4 27. 4 77. 5 60. 3	10. 4 75. 4	9. 6 76. 2	5, 0 50, 0 26, 3	14. 9 23. 2 79. 4 47. 5	7. 6 75. 2	10. ( 7. ( 75. 5 32. 4
	27. 8 26. 7 54. 3 64. 3	31. 4 48. 0	30.7	27.6 27.6 45.5 64.7	17. 8 31. 6 39. 4 47. 4	18. 1 31. 2 39. 4 53. 4		27. 0 27. 1 49. 8 61. 5	30. 2 48. 9	29. 9 48. 3	216. 1	32. 2 217. 1	18.8 32.3 215.6 41.9		26. 6 25. 2 51. 4 67. 5	31. 0 45. 5	31. ( 43. 8

in this report, but in this city it is called "sirloin" steak 2 Per pound.

### MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

### TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES

*		(	Chicag	go, Ill		Cin	cinna	ti, Ol	nio.	Cle	velan	d, Oh	io.
Article.	Unit.	June	15-		June	June	15—	May	June	June	15—		June
		1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.
Sirloin steak Round steak Rib roast Chuck roast Plate beef.	Pounddododododododododododododododo	Cts. 23. 4 20. 3 20. 0 15. 9 11. 2	37.8 35.0 26.7	31.0 30.4 21.1	30.0 20.1	21.3 19.4 15.8	38.8 33.7 25.0	30.1	33. 2 30. 0	22.0 20.0 17.2	33.6	33.0 27.4 21.7	32.9 27.6 21.3
Pork chopsBaconHam Ham Lamb, leg ofHens.	do	18.8 32.0 32.4 20.2 20.3	59.1 58.5 41.5	52, 3 50, 9 34, 4	51.6 51.3 35.1	26. 4 29. 2 16. 5	46.8 59.2 39.0	37.6 51.1 36.4	36.6 51.5 34.7	28.6 36.0	40. 2 55. 7 62. 6 41. 4 47. 4	43, 1 52, 2 32, 8	43. 3 52. 5 33. 3
Salmon (canned)	doQuart15-16-oz.can. Pounddo	8.0	38.3 14.0 14.2 61.1 39.2	37.1 14.0 13.8 37.6 25.2	13.1 37.2	8.0	14.3	13.0 13.9 39.8	13.0 13.6 39.0	8.0	15. 1	14.0 14.2 40.7	13.0 13.2 41.7
Nut margarine	do do do Dozen	25. 0 15. 0 24. 3	33. 4 43. 6 27. 8 35. 1	23.7 35.8 15.9 21.3	34. 5 15. 4 20. 7	21.0 14.2	26.0	27. 9 34. 0 13. 6 20. 9 27. 9	32.8 13.4	23.0 16.5	37.5	29.3 17.7 21.0	26. 9 16. 8 20. 7
Bread. Flour. Corn meal. Rolled oats. Corn flakes.			12. 4 8. 5 7. 0 9. 3 13. 5	5. 2 6. 1 9. 5	5. 4 6. 0 9. 1	3.3	8.9	3.6	6.0 3.5 10.2	3.2	9. 2 6. 8	5.8 4.7 9.8	6. (
Cream of Wheat	28-oz. pkg Pound	2 7		1 6.0	19.2 9.0 7.6	8,8	18.4 18.0 10.6	19.1 8.7	18.9 8.7 6.4		20.7	21.0 8.0 6.8	21.0 8.3 6.8
Onions	do do No. 2 can dodo		6.3 6.6 16.5 17.4 17.7	5.1 5.7 14.9 15.0 15.3	5.5 -6.7 14.6 14.7 14.9		8.0 7.7 15.2 17.7 17.6	5.7 5.3 13.3 15.3 17.2	6.3 13.1 15.2		7.7 8.0 15.8 20.3 21.5	6.1	6. 13. 17.8
Tomatoes, canned Sugar, granulated Tea Coffee	do Pounddododo	4.9 53.3 30.7	15. 2 28. 3 70. 2 45. 4	11.8 8.0 65.7	7.2 65.4	5.0 60.0	77.0	8.2 73.2	7.7	5, 0 50, 0	75.0	8.3 68.9	7. 68.
Prunes. Raisins Bananas Oranges.	do Dozendo		29. 4 28. 1 44. 1 63. 6	30.5	30.8		51.4	31.2	30.9 42.4			30.0	29.2

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mbox{\tiny 1}}$  The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of

# OF FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES—Continued.

Colu	mbus,	Ohio.	1	Dalla	s, Tex		I	enve	r, Col	0.	D	etroi	t, Mic	h.	Fa	ıllRi	ver, Ma	ass.
	May	June	June	15—	May	June	June	15—	May	June	June	15—	May	June	June	15—	May	June
15, 1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.
Cts. 40.1 37.4 31.4 27.1 19.5	32. 2 29. 4 23. 5	31.8 29.4 23.6	Cts. 22.5 20.8 19.2 16.3 12.8	38.3		36.6 34.3 29.9	22.1 17.8 15.8	38.9 31.6 26.2	28.1 24.3	29.0 24.2 18.2	19.4	41.2 35.7 27.6	32.5 29.3	32.2 29.0 21.2	27.5 23.5	Cts. 166.8 52.9 38.0 30.7	Cts. 1 56. 4 44. 4 29. 8 23. 0 15. 0	28.8 22.3
36.6 52.1 58.9 37.5 41.3	39.7 48.9 38.0	39.5 49.6 38.0	21.7 38.0 31.3 22.0 18.3	40.7 56.6 60.8 48.3 39.5		48.2 52.1 39.0	28.0 30.0 17.8	38.4 57.2 61.7 37.8 43.3	46.9 53.8 31.9	46.4	24.0 25.5 17.4	65.0 45.8	42.0 52.6 33.2	40.3	22.0 25.8 32.7 21.0 24.5	49.9 57.5 39.2	34.3 40.1 50.1 35.5 49.7	33.3 39.5 50.3 37.4
36.4 14.0 14.5 63.9 42.1	13.0 15.0 40.2	12.0 14.7 39.3	10.0 36.0	38.6 20.0 15.8 66.9 36.6	15.0 15.3 42.6	15.0 15.4 41.1	8.4	39.6 13.0 14.0 59.3 43.3	10.8 13.4	10.8 12.7	8.0	15.2	14.5	13.0 13.7	9.0	38.7 16.8 16.1 66.5 42.0	37. 0 13. 0 15. 9 43. 8 35. 4	36. 4 13. 6 15. 3 39. 3
35. 2 39. 9 26. 7 35. 5 45. 1	27.6 13.0 21.3	24.9 12.6 21.5	20. 0 17. 5	36.4	32.2 21.8 19.5	30 7	26.1	36.0 44.1 32.7 38.6 49.3	32.1 18.9 21.9	17.9 21.9	20.3	34.7 41.6 29.8 36.4 54.9	15.8 20.9	26.8 28.1 15.1 20.5 36.3		36.9 41.9 27.6 35.7 71.9	32. 5 34. 4 15. 6 21. 5 49. 0	25. 0 31. 0 14. 9 21. 8 51. 9
10.6 8.4 6.5 11.5 14.6	5.5 3.8 10.6	5.6 3.8 10.5	5. 4 3. 3 2. 7	12.1 8.6 6.3 11.9 14.1	10. 2 5. 6 3. 8 11. 7 13. 0	5.6 3.9 11.7	2.6	12.1 7.5 6.1 10.5 14.7	10.0 4.2 3.5 9.8 13.1	4.4	3.1 2.8	11.6 8.6 7.4 10.6 14.6		9.4 5.8 5.1 10.4 11.5	6.2 3.3 3.4	12.0 9.0 8.4 10.9 14.7	10.4 5.8 6.8 11.1 13.9	10.3 6.6 6.7 11.1 13.7
29.9 20.0 18.8 10.9 10.8	21.0 9.8 6.9	20.5 10.1 7.0	9.3	31.8 22.2 19.3 12.0 11.9	31. 4 21. 7 8. 9 9. 1 4. 1	21.6	8.6	30. 4 20. 1 19. 1 13. 0 12. 8	29.6 20.2 8.9 8.9 2.6	29.5 20.0 8.8 8.8 3.1	8.4	29.6 20.2 19.3 11.3 11.8	29.6 20.0 8.4 6.4 1.3	29.9 19.7 8.2 6.4 1.3	10.0	28.5 25.2 18.9 11.6 9.9	30.1 24.8 9.8 7.9 1.9	29.9 25.4 9.8 7.1
10.6 9.2 15.7 15.2 16.4	6.8 13.8 13.6	7.8 14.2 13.4		8.0 7.0 19.1 20.8 22.8	6. 0 5. 3 16. 4 17. 9 21. 4	5. 4 16. 3 18. 0		8.5 5.5 18.0 18.3 18.8	15.1	7.3 16.6 15.3		7.3 8.2 15.4 19.5 19.3	6. 4 6. 2 13. 1 16. 3 16. 9	5.7 7.1 12.7 15.3 17.1		8.0 10.4 16.4 19.2 20.2	7.1 6.8 14.1 16.4 18.6	6. 7 6. 9 14. 8 16. 8 18. 3
14.3 23.9 88.0 49.1	8.3 84.2	7.6 84.2	5. 7 66. 7 36. 7	15. 4 27. 7 90. 0 55. 4	12. 2 9. 2 84. 3 39. 6	8.7 86.8	5. 4 52. 8 29. 4	15.1 15.9 72.8 50.2	12.7 9.1 71.0 36.8	71.0	5. 0 43. 3 29. 3	66.7	11.3 7.7 64.7 35.9	11.1 7.4 63.2 34.7	5.3 44.2 33.0	15.5 26.6 59.8 51.3	12.1 8.3 57.6 41.1	12. 2 7. 8 56. 3 40. 5
29.3 27.8 49.6 61.0	31.3	30.7 $42.7$		28.8 26.6 44.3 63.2	21.3 33.7 34.3 48.7	33.7		30.8 27.0 53.4 60.1	18.9 33.0 45.6 44.6	19.1 32.8 47.2 48.5		30. 0 27. 4 44. 7 61. 5	29.4	28. 7 37. 1		27.6 28.1 46.2 60.4	18.3 30.0 38.8 50.2	17. 4 29. 3 38. 8 51. 4

the cities included in this report, but in this city it is called "rump" steak.

### TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES

	4	Hous	ston,	Tex.	Indi	anap	olis, I	nd.	Jacksonville, Fla.				
Article.	Unit.	15,	May 15, 1921.	15,	June 15—		May	June	June 15—		May	June	
					1913	1920	1921.	1921.	1913	1920	1921.		
Sirloin steak . Round steak . Rib roast . Chuck roast . Plate beef .	do	Cts. 35. 7 35. 4 30. 1 25. 8 21. 8	34. 2 28. 8 24. 2	32.7 26.9 22.5	24.7	42. 4 41. 8 30. 3 28. 3	35.1 27.0 22.9	37. 2 35. 8 27. 1 22. 2	26. 0 20. 3 23. 3 14. 0	40. 9 37. 4 30. 4 24. 1	37. 9 33. 6 29. 2	36. 3 31. 3 27. 3 18. 8	
Pork chopsBacon Harn Lamb, leg of Hens.	do	63. 3	53. 4 51. 5 37. 0	52. 1 51. 5 36. 3	29.0 31.2	52. 0 60. 3 50. 2	41.9 52.3 34.3	52. 4 34. 2	26. 3	51. 8 54. 2 35. 6	41.6 49.8 32.5	33. 41. 8 48. 0 32. 36.	
Salmon, canned Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated Butter. Oleomargarine.	An.	27 6	34. 2 16. 0 14. 8 37. 5 33. 1	34. 7 16. 0 14. 1 39. 0 33. 0		32. 4 14. 0 15. 7 64. 7 43. 1	12.0 14.3	12.0 13.8 38.2	12.5	14.9 70.9		20. 0 13. 3 40. 0	
Nut margarine	do	37. 3 39. 5 29. 6	28. 9 26. 4 19. 4	28.3 25.3 18.0 21.2	20.5	27.1 36.6	30.3 14.1 21.8	29.6 13.0 21.2	22. 5 15. 5	41.8 31.0 38.3	30.7 25.9 18.8 20.8 31.5	25. 20. 20.	
Bread Flour Corn meal Rolled oats Corn flakes	0.0	0. 2	6.1	6. 1 4. 0 10. 4	3.2	8. 8 6. 6 11. 1	5.5 3.3 9.7	5.7 3.4 9.5	3.8	9. 2 6. 3 11. 8	6.5 3.5 11.3	6. 3. 10.	
Cream of Wheat Macaroni Rice Beans, navy Potatoes.	do	17. €	20. 6 6. 6 8. 8	8.7	9.2	19.9	9.2	20. 4 9. 0 6. 9	6.6	21.8 17.0 13.2	22.0 7.3 9.2	20. 7. 9.	
Onions Cabbage. Beans, baked. Corn, canned. Peas, canned.	do	6. 5 4. 9 16. 4 16. 3 19. 6	3.6	4. 2 13. 2 13. 1		10. 5 7. 0 16. 7 17. 5 17. 1	6.1	7.0 14.2 13.7		10. 1 5. 8 17. 3 20. 2 22. 0	13.7 15.8	4.	
Tomatoes, canned Sugar, granulated Tea. Coffee	Pounddo	14. 8 29. 3 77. 3	8.3	7. 2	5.6	15.6 29.2 85.3 51.5	8.6	8.2		90.9	8.4	7. 9 86. 7	
Prunes Raisins. Bananas. Oranges	do do Dozendo	25. 7 26. 1 40. 3 58. 4	18.3 32.2 32.8 45.2	32. 6 34. 7		29.9 40.2	19.3 34.1 29.3 47.4	33. 8 33. 0		44.3	17.1 33.1 33.1 46.4	33.6	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of the cities included in

### OF FOOD FOR51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES-Continued.

Kansas City, Mo. Little Roo				ock, A	Ark. Los Angeles, Calif.						ouisv	rille, 1	Ky.	Manchester, N. H.					
15,			June	June	15—	May 15,	June	June	15—	May 15,	June	June 15—		May	June 15, 1921.	June 15—		May 15,	June
1913	1920	1921.	1. 1921.	1913	1920	1921.	1921.	1913	1920	1921.	1921.	1913	1920	1921.	1921.	1913	1920	1921.	1921.
24. 7 21. 6 18. 2 15. 0	Cts. 44. 0 39. 7 31. 9 24. 3 17. 8	37. 4 32. 4 27. 3 18. 8	33. 4 26. 9 17. 9	19.9 19.4 16.3	40.6 38.6 33.6 26.8	30.0 $22.7$	36. 3 33. 8 29. 8 22. 9	24. 0 20. 8 20. 0 15. 8	37. 2 32. 8 31. 3 22. 2	35.7 31.2 29.6 19.3	35. 0 30. 4 29. 6 19. 5	23.6 20.0 18.3 15.6	38. 9 30. 3 26. 4	32. 8 31. 3 25. 7	33. 5 31. 5 26. 4	Cts. 1 35.8 28. 8 20. 7 16. 8	164. 2 54. 9 36. 0	1 56.1 47.9 28.7	1 55.1 47. 28. 23.
28. 8 27. 8 19. 2	35. 4 56. 7 60. 3 36. 9 40. 5	50. 0 50. 2 31. 9	50. 8 51. 2 31. 8	37.0 31.3 21.3	60.3 42.8	48.6	49.6	33. 8	63. 8	39. 6 54. 6 60. 9 31. 6 45. 3	54. 2	29.1	51.0	37.5	37.4 47.3	23.7 28.8 21.5	49. 4 55. 7 41. 0	37. 8 44. 8 34. 3	36. 45.
8.7 34.8	37. 4 16. 0 15. 3 66. 0 41. 7	14.3 15.0	14.3 14.4	10.0	20. 0 15. 4	15. 0 15. 3 45. 1	15.0	34.5	16. 0 13. 2	45. 5 16. 0 12. 3 43. 4 32. 0	16.0 11.9	8.8	16. 0 15. 9	11.0 14.7 40.3	11.0	37.2	15.0 17.0		15. 15. 44.
21. 8 16. 2	35. 3 44. 0 30. 4 38. 8 48. 4	30. 1 17. 4 23. 8	29.1 17.0 22.9	21.7 15.8	38. 4	31.1 19.7 20.8	29.3 19.3 20.5	19.5 18.0	31.6	34.6 17.5	33. 4 16. 8 21. 2	15.3	27. 7 35. 5	13.1	12.7 21.3	21.5 16.0	29. 8 36. 7	33. 8 16. 4 22. 7	32, 15, 23,
3.0	12.8 7.9 7.7 11.9 15.2	5. 5 4. 8	5. 6 5. 0	2.4	8.7	9. 5 6. 0 2. 9 12. 0 12. 4	6.2	3.6	10.6 8.2 7.9 10.1 13.6	5. 9 5. 2 10. 4	5.8	5. 7 3. 7 2. 4	8.1	8. 9 5. 8 2. 6 10. 3 12. 0	$\frac{2.6}{10.2}$	3.4	9.4	6. 1 5. 7 9. 7	8. 6. 5. 9. 13.
8.7	29. 9 20. 4 19. 2 12. 3 11. 8		22, 4 8, 6 8, 2	8.3	30. 3 18. 6 18. 2 12. 2 9. 8		21.8 7.5	7.7	29, 9 19, 2 18, 3 10, 1 9, 5	18. 2 8. 9	17.5 9.7 8.0	8.1	28. 8 20. 2 18. 9 11. 8 11. 8	20.1 8.4 6.0	20.1 8.3 6.2	8.5	29. 9 25. 9 18. 8 11. 7 9. 4	25. 2 8. 5 7. 5	25. 8. 7.
	8. 7 6. 0 17. 4 15. 7 16. 7	6. 4 6. 2 14. 8 12. 7 14. 5	15. 1 12. 8		9. 4 6. 8 16. 4 18. 2 19. 0	6. 2 5. 5 14. 1 15. 2 17. 5	14. 1		5. 7 2. 7 18. 6 18. 9 19. 9	16.6	3.6 16.3 17.1		17.6	6. 1 12. 7 16. 1	4.7 12.7 15.6		7. 9 8. 7 17. 2 21. 2 22. 4	7.1 16.4 18.9	7. 15. 18.
5. 5 54. 0	15.3 30.7 81.7 49.2	8.8 79.8	8.3 79.0	5. 5 50. 0	90.8	9. 4 91. 5	11. 8 8. 9 91. 5 38. 5	5. 3 54. 5	26.4 72.5	68.7	7. 5 68. 9	5.1	29.6 84.5	8. 4 81. 7	7.9	5.1	27.6 63.5	59. 5	7. 5 60.
	29. 8 31. 1 52. 5 64. 7	34.0 47.9	47.5		. 11.0	33.3 411.9	$\frac{34.0}{412.3}$		24.0 413.6	17. 4 29. 2 4 13.6 27. 9	$30.0 \\ 413.6$		20. 4	29. 9 38. 0	30.0		413.2	18, 4 31, 9 411,8 45, 1	31. 3

this paper, but in this city it is called "sirloin" steak. 2 No.2½ can.. 3 No. 3 can 4 Per pound.

### MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

### TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES

		Me	mphi	s, Ter	n.	Mil	wauk	ee, W	is.	Minneapolis, Minn.			
Article.	Unit.	June	15—		June	June 15—		May	June	June 15—		May	
		1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.
Sirloin steak Round steak Rib roast Chuck roast Plate beef	do	20. 4 15. 5	('ts. 43. 4 40. 0 34. 7 27. 3 21. 7	29. 8 26. 5 18. 6	18.9	22. 5 21. 0 18. 5 16. 5	43.7 39.5 33.5 28.5	37. 2 33. 2 28. 7 22. 8	33.7 29.1 23.6	23, 5 21, 0 20, 5 16, 5	41. 2 37. 4 33. 1	28. 9 25. 8 20. 0	29. 25. 19.
Pork chops Bacon Ham. Lamb, leg of. Hens.	dododododododo	20, 0 30, 0 30, 0 20, 8 19, 7	37. 7 58. 1 60. 3 45. 8 41. 9	47. 9 32. 8	47. 9 35. 8	27. 8 19. 5	56. 8 55. 5 42. 9	44. 8 47. 1 36. 1	45. 1 47. 5 38. 1		58.0		44. 49. 32.
Salmon (canned) Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated Butter Oleomargarine	do	10. 0 37. 1	37. 9 18. 5 15. 6 65. 9 43. 8	38. 3 17. 3 15. 6 39. 8 28. 3	37. 4 17. 3 15. 1 39. 1 29. 2	7. 0	12.0 15.3 62.0	14.8	14.5	7.0	15.5	11. 0 14. 6 37. 2	10. 14. 35.
Nut margarine	do	21 3		27. 9 25. 9 15. 0 20. 8	26.6 25.3 14.8 19.1	21. 3 15. 4	29. 6 35. 9	25. 6 17. 3 22. 4	24. 8 16. 9	20. 0 15. 4	28.8	28. 6 15. 5 21. 5	27. 15. 21.
BreadFlour. Corn meal. Rolled oats	Pounddo	6. 0 3. 6 2. 0	8. 9 5. 4 11. 5	6. 2 2. 7 10. 9	2.8		8.9 7 0 8 7	5. 4	5.6 4.9 7.0	3.0	8.6 7.0	4.6	5. 4. 8.
Cream of Wheat	28-oz. pkg Pound do do do	8.0	30. 1 19. 5 17. 8 12. 8 10. 6	29.3 17.9 6.3 7.2 2.4	6.5	9.0	19.1	20. 2 9. 9 7. 3	19.1	9.1	18. 2	17. 4 8. 6 8. 2	17. 8. 8. 8.
Onions. Cabbage Beans, baked Corn, canned. Peas, canned.	dodo No.2 candododododododo		7. 4 5. 2 16. 9 18. 1 18. 9	5. 2 4. 3 14. 6 14. 3 16. 7	4. 9 5. 1 14. 3 14. 2 15. 9		7. 4 6. 0 15. 6 17. 9 17. 2	6.4	7.5		18. 2	6. 1 16. 6 13. 9	6. 16. 13.
Tomatoes, canned Sugar, granulated Tea. Coffee	Pounddododododo	5. 2 63. 8 27. 5	14. 8 29. 4 95. 2 52. 0	10. 7 8. 6 88. 4 36. 3	7. 8 89. 5	5. 3 50. 0 27. 5	71.7	7.9	7. 5 68. 7	5. 6	65.8	8. 7 65. 3	8. 65.
Prunes	Dozen		31. 7 25. 3 46. 3 54. 4	34. 1 37. 3	34.9		313. 9	30. 4	\$12.0		314.3	19. 8 30. 1 313. 8 49. 2	812.

1 Whole.

2No. 3 can.

#### OF FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES—Continued.

Mo	bile, A	Ala.	N	lewar	k, N.	J.	Nev	v Hav	en, C	onn.	New Orleans, La.				Ne	ew Yo	ork, N.	Y.
	May 15,		June	15—		June	June	15—	May 15,	June	June	15—		June	June	15—	May	June
15, 1920.	1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.		1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.
Cts. 36. 6 36. 6 31. 6 26. 7 22. 2	Cts. 34. 0 33. 3 28. 1 22. 2 17. 7		26. 8 21. 6 18. 0	39. 9 30. 9	41. 9 34. 1 23. 2	42. 0 34. 3 23. 1	29.6 24.2 19.2	40.7	35.5	41. 5 35. 7 26. 4	19. 5 19. 4 14. 5	33. 2 31. 9 23. 6	29. 8 38. 8	Cts. 32. 1 29. 3 28. 3 20. 4 16. 2	22. 5 16. 4	47. 6 41. 5 30. 8	Cts. 42. 9 42. 1 37. 3 24. 0 19. 2	42.0 36.7 23.2
46. 3 60. 0 57. 9 37. 7 47. 3	47. 1 47. 3 35. 0	45.9 47.3 34.4	24. 4 120. 8 21. 2	47.5	37.3	37. 2 132. 4 37. 8	33. 4 20. 8	55. 0 63. 6 43. 6	53. 2	45. 8 54. 2 37. 6	29.7 26.8 21.3	54. 6 56. 1 43. 2	47. 9 47. 5 36. 3	34. 4 43. 6 48. 2 36. 4 37. 2	26. 0 29. 5 17. 2	51. 8 62. 5 35. 9	38. 3 40. 9 52. 7 34. 3 42. 9	
38. 7 23. 5 17. 0 71. 7 42. 4	34. 1 19. 0 14. 5 47. 4 32. 3	13.8 39.5	9.0	13.9	17. 0 13. 1 42. 5	12.5 41.1	9.0	14.8	15. 0 14. 0 44. 0	14. 0 13. 5	10.0	14. 5	16. 5 14. 1	40. 8 16. 5 13. 2 39. 8 28. 0	9.0	14.0	40. 7 15. 0 13. 1 41. 5 32. 1	39. 3 14. 3 12. 6 39. 9 29, 8
39. 4 42. 3 30. 2 38. 6 50. 0		19.3	24. 2 15. 8	36. 1 42. 9 29. 7 33. 5 64. 0	36.3 15.1 19.2	34. 6 14. 7 19. 0		28. 3 34. 7	34. 7 15. 5 20. 2	32. 2 14. 9 19. 8	14. 9	27. 4 37. 8	16.2	26.8 27.9 15.7 21.7 31.8		35. 3 42. 4 29. 4 34. 2 63. 6	27.3 36.3 17.6 20.2 42.5	26.3 32.2 16.9 19.9 44.6
10. 8 9. 2 6. 8 11. 7 14. 8	9.8 5.8 3.2 10.3 12.2	9. 5 5. 9 3. 1 10. 2 12. 4	3. 6	11. 5 9. 2 7. 8 9. 4 12. 8	6. 8 8. 8	8.4	6. 0 3. 2 3. 0	8.1	9. 6 5. 5 6. 2 9. 9 11. 0	6. 1 10. 0	5. 2 3. 8 2. 6	10. 4 8. 8 5. 7 10. 5 14. 1	8. 5 6. 5 3. 1 9. 8 11. 4	8. 3 6. 6 3. 1 9. 2 10. 9	6. 2 3. 3 3. 5	11. 9 9. 7 8. 0 9. 2 12. 9	10. 7 5. 6 6. 6 8. 5 10. 8	10.0 6.0 6.4 8.3 10.6
31. 2 20. 9 18. 0 13. 7 9. 7	29. 1 19. 5 7. 4 8. 3 3. 0	29. 2 19. 6 7. 5 8. 5 3. 0	9.0	28. 6 25. 0 18. 4 11. 7 8. 9	21.8	28. 5 21. 9 8. 1 7. 6 3. 6	9.3	11.5	29. 1 21. 8 9. 6 7. 5 1. 9	28. 9 21. 8 9. 0 7. 4 1. 8	7. 4	30. 0 11. 5 16. 3 11. 2 9. 0		29. 5 10. 2 7. 4 7. 1 3. 0		12.4	28. 7 21. 9 8. 9 8. 6 2. 9	28. 8 22. 0 8. 7 8. 5 3. 7
8. 7 6. 0 16. 0 19. 1 19. 6	5. 4 2. 8 14. 4 15. 3 17. 1	14.9		7. 6 8. 6 14. 4 18. 6 18. 3	5.7 12.2 15.8	7. 8 5. 9 12. 1 16. 1 17. 5		8. 1 9. 2 16. 5 21. 9 22. 6	19.9	13. 9 19. 5		5. 5 2. 5 16. 7 16. 4 17. 4	13.6	3. 6 4. 8 14. 0 13. 6 18. 5		7. 2 9. 3 15. 1 18. 5 18. 7	6. 1 5. 3 13. 4 15. 2 16. 5	6.3 5.9 13.1 15.2 16.7
15. 2 27. 2 80. 4 46. 5	10. 3 8. 6 74. 7 33. 0	7. 9 74. 0		14. 0 24. 6 55. 5 45. 7			5. 1 55. 0 33. 8	27.4	55. 7	7. 5 54. 5	5. 1 62. 1 26. 7	15. 1 25. 5 73. 6 41. 5	11. 4 7. 6 72. 1 30. 0	11. 2 7. 0 71. 6 30. 2	43. 3	14. 9 25. 3 58. 7 46. 3	10. 6 7. 3 52. 4 32. 2	10.3 6.9 53.3 32.4
28. 2 26. 7 35. 6 65. 0	17, 8 29, 2 22, 8 50, 6	29.7 27.5		27. 4 27. 0 52. 7 69. 7	16. 2 29. 9 45. 8 53. 2	16. 9 29. 6 47. 1 57. 5		28. 3 27. 2 44. 1 63. 1	17. 7 29. 8 38. 8 48. 7			28. 0 28. 4 25. 0 65. 0	17. 6 30. 2 25. 0 50. 0	17. 4 30. 6 24. 2 49. 0		27. 2 27. 9 47. 1 70. 0	19.0 30.4 42.6 55.4	18.8 30.4 43.1 58.4

<sup>8</sup> Per pound.

#### TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES

		No	rfolk, V	Va.	(	maha	, Nebr		Pe	eoria, I	11.
Article.	Unit.	June	May	June	June	15—	May	June		May	June
		15, 1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	15, 1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1921.
Sirloin steak. Round steak Rib roast Chuck roast Plate beef.	Pounddodododo	Cts. 46. 9 41. 9 37. 8 29. 2 17. 9	37. 0 34. 7 22. 8	37. 0 34. 8 22. 0	22. 0 18. 1 16. 1	32. 4 26. 4	32. 8 26. 6 20. 2	33. 3 26. 8 20. 6	39. 2 28. 3 25. 9	Cts. 34. 2 32. 7 25. 5 22. 0 14. 2	
Pork chopsBaconHamLamb, leg ofHens.	.do. .do. .do. .do.	39. 3 50. 8 49. 4 46. 7 48. 7		41. 0 44. 3 40. 0	27. 5 29. 0 17. 8	41.9	52. 6 32. 8	52. 4 52. 6 32. 9	55. 3 59. 3 38. 3		46. 0 50. 7
Salmon (canned)	doQuart. 15-16-oz. can. Pounddo	35. 1 21. 3 14. 7 73. 6 45. 0	49.6	20. 0 14. 0 44. 9	7.9	15.4	37. 9 12. 0 14. 8 39. 0 32. 0	11. 9 14. 4 37. 5	14.3 15.4 59.3	13.3 14.7 39.5	12, 5 14, 9 37, 9
Nut margarine	o5	35. 5 40. 5 30. 7 37. 0 52. 1	28.6 17.0	16.8 19.6	22.3 17.3	32.3 39.3	18.6	29. 7 18. 2 22. 0	41. 4 28. 8 38. 8	28. 8 29. 8 16. 9 23. 2 26. 9	29. 7 16. 7
Bread. Flour. Corn meal. Rolled oats. Corn flakes.	do	11.7 8.8 6.5 10.8 14.8	3.7 9.9		2.8 2.3	8.3		4. 4 11. 2	6.9	4.3 11.1	5. 9 4. 0 11. 1
Cream of Wheat	do	28. 6 21. 4 20. 1 12. 3 9. 0	20. 2 10. 0 8. 0	19. 8 10. 0 8. 2		12.4	20. 0 8. 0	20. 6 8. 2 7. 6	19.8 19.5 12.2	20. 1 8. 9 7. 2	20. 1 8. 8 7. 2
Onions. Cabbage. Beans, baked. Corn, canned. Peas, canned.	do No. 2 can dodo	9. 5 8. 1 14. 3 21. 5 22. 7	4.3 11.6	3.9 11.8 17.1		10. 1 6. 2 20. 2 18. 7 19. 4	5. 4 17. 5 14. 4	6. 6 17. 1 14. 3	8. 3 17. 6 17. 6	6. 7 15. 0 15. 2	6. 8 14. 9 14. 8
Tomatoes, canned			8. 1 83. 2	7. 5 81. 8	5. 7 56. 0	81.9	8.9	74.6	28. 1 73. 4	12, 0 9, 1 63, 9 33, 9	8.3 64.6
Prunes	do do Dozendo	28. 2 26. 1 44. 6 74. 5	30. 9 38. 2	32. 0 38. 6		30. 0 29. 3 3 13. 6 66. 9		33.7 3 12.9	32. 5 28. 7 3 12. 5 61. 1		32, 0 8 12, 3

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of the cities included

OF FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES-Continued.

Phi	ladelj	phia,	Pa.	Pi	ttsbu	rgh, I	a.	Port	land,	Me.	Po	rtlan	d, Or	eg.	Pı	ovide	ence, R	. I.
June	15—		June	June	15—		June				June	15—	May	June	June	15—	May	June
1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	15, 1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.
Cts. 130.0 25.4 22.3 17.6 12.3	50. 2 40. 7 31. 0	41.9 35.2 22.0	150.0 41.3 34.9 20.8	23.7 22.0 17.0	53.7 49.1 38.4 31.2	33. 5 23. 1	44. 2 37. 6 33. 0 22. 5	163. 2 51. 3 33. 7 25. 5	45.5	157.6 45.7 30.0 19.4	23. 5 21. 2 19. 5 16. 9	33. 9 32. 4 31. 1	30.7 28.3 26.8 19.1	31.0 28.6 26.3 18.2	31. 0 23. 8 18. 8	170.4 55.5	49. 7 36. 8	49.6 37.2 28.9
20.8 27.1 31.6 21.4 23.2	49.8 64.0 47.9	53.9	38. 5 54. 5 39. 8	29.0 29.6 21.4	42. 3 57. 9 65. 2 44. 7 51. 5	46. 0 54. 5 38. 3	45. 5 54. 5	50. 4 57. 5 40. 4	41.9 49.2 33.6	49. 4 36. 9	30.6 30.8 18.1	58. 5 59. 3	46.7 47.7 29.2	46.3 48.3 26.7	23, 4 32, 3 20, 0	65.1 47.3	56. 0 38. 9	37.0 57.0 41.7
8. 0 39. 7	14.8	13.0 14.7 51.5	11.0 13.9 46.5	8. 6 36. 7	14.9	14.0 14.4	36. 8 14. 0 13. 5 42. 2 27. 9	15.0 15.8	15.5 14.9 52.6	14.7	9.3	43. 5 14. 8 13. 7 61. 9 42. 1	12.9 13.3	13.0 12.9 38.2	36.2	41. 5 16. 6 15. 4 68. 0 41. 1	14.9 14.8	15.0 14.2 41.3
25. 0 15. 3	28. 2 34. 4	39.3 14.9 19.6	34.6 14.5 19.6	24. 5 15. 5	28. 2 35. 0	33.6 14.1 20.8	31.0 13.5 20.1	28. 5 35. 6	36.3 15.9 22.3	31.7 15.4 22.1	20. 5 18. 2		30.8 22.0 24.7	27. 4 29. 7 21. 6 24. 2 30. 5	21. 7 15. 2	28. 5 35. 4	34. 4 15. 8 22. 0	15. 5 21. 7
4.8 3.2 2.7	10.6 9.1 6.2 9.3 12.5	5.6 4.4 9.1	5.9 4.4 9.2	3.2	11.8 8.9 7.9 10.4 13.9	5.7 5.0 10.8	5.8 4.4 10.8	9.1 7.1 8.9	5.8 4.8 8.0	6.1 4.8 7.7	2.9	7.7	5. 1 4. 7 9. 2	5.1 4.7 9.4	3, 5	9.4	6. 2 4. 6 10. 6	6. 4 4. 8 10. 4
9.8	11.1	21. 5 9. 4 8. 1	21.8 9.5 8.0	9.2	11.7	22. 2 9. 8 7. 1	22.6 9.8 7.2	23. 5 19. 1 11. 2	23. 4 10. 2 7. 7	23.8 10.2 7.6	8.6	34.3 17.0 20.1 10.0 12.9	17.8 9.5 7.2	17.8 9.4	9.3	11.4	9. 9 7. 8	23. 0 10. 1
	7.6 8.6 15.2 17.6 18.8	4.9 13.0	5. 1 12. 7 15. 2		6. 9 7. 5 15. 9 17. 7 18. 4	6.8 14.6 15.4	7.0 14.2 15.1	8.8 18.8	17.1 17.1	6.3 16.9 17.0		6. 5 6. 3 21. 0 21. 3 20. 7	6. 1 19. 0 18. 4	5.3 18.9		7.8 9.0 16.7 20.3 21.3	5. 9 14. 1 18. 2	6.0
4. 9 54. 0 25. 0	63.0	7.5 61.8	7.2 61.6	5. 5 58. 0	79.0	8. 4 77. 4	7.7	64.3	8.3 56.5	7.8 59.2	6. 2 55. 0	26. 1 65. 9	9.4 64.7	64.7	5.0 48.3	59.9		
	26. 2 26. 2 45. 2 66. 4	28. 9 38. 1	28.8 38.8		30. 2 29. 7 51. 8 59. 5	29.3 45.9	28. 5 47. 0	27.8 313.5	30.2 312.6			26.8 815.0	814.1	9. 1 30. 0 314. 0 50. 3		27.8 28.2 46.7 69.9	29. 4 42. 1	29. 9 42. 5

in this report, but in this city it is called "sirloin" steak. 2 No. 2½ can. 2 Per pound.

#### TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES

		Ri	chmo	nd, V	a.	Re	chest N. Y.	er,	St	. Lou	is, M	0.
Article.	Unit.	June	e 15.		June	June	May 15,	June	June	215.		June
		1913	1920				1921.		1913	1920	15, 1921.	1921.
Sirloin-steak. Round steak. Rib roast. Chuck roast. Plate beef.	do	18.9	45. 1 42. 0 35. 6 31. 1	Cts. 41. 3 37. 2 32. 1 24. 8 19. 1	32. 2	41. 9 38. 1 32. 5	39.6 34.1 29.9 23.8	39. 5 34. 8 30. 2 23. 8	Cts. 23. 7 22. 2 18. 3 14. 3 10. 7	Cts. 43. 4 42. 1 33. 6 25. 1 18. 6	29. 9 20. 3	37. 0 35. 0 30. 0 19. 1
Pork chops Bacon Ham Lamb, leg of. Hens	do.	20.8 25.0 25.7 19.3 21.3	40.9 48.9 54.0 47.8 46.9	36. 2 38. 5 43. 9 42. 0 42, 5	35. 2 37. 2 43. 2 42. 5 40. 4	42.2 44.4 57.3 41.2 48.7	37.5 35.3 48.2 35.0 47.2	34. 9 48. 8 36. 2	18. 2 26. 0 27. 3 18. 0 18. 5	51. 4 60. 7 40. 9	39. 4 47. 4 32. 9	40. 1 48. 9 32. 9
Salmon (canned) Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated Butter Oleomargarine								36. 7 12. 0 14. 3 38. 4 29. 4	8. 0 34. 4	36, 5 15, 0 14, 6 66, 9 40, 0	35. 4 14. 0 13. 4 41. 5 29. 4	35. 8 13. 0 12. 8 40. 2 28. 4
Nut margarine. Cheese. Lard Crisco Eggs, strictly fresh.	do	22. 3 15. 0 25. 0	38. 2 43. 1 31. 3 38. 3 53. 9	30. 3 31. 9 17. 4 22. 1 33. 0	28. 6 30. 0 17. 2 21. 6 33. 5	35. 4 40. 6 28. 9 35. 8 56. 1	20.0	18.9	19. 3 13. 6 21. 4	23. 9 34. 9	12. 0 21. 5	26. 5 12. 1 20. 6
Bread Flour Corn meal Rolled oats Corn flakes	Pound	5. 4 3. 3	13.0 9.4 6.9	10.7 5.8	10.7 6.1 4.2 11.1	11. 4 9. 1 7. 4 8. 3	5. 6 5. 4 8. 1	5. 8 5. 3 8. 0	3.0	6. 2 9. 4	5. 1 3. 4 9. 7	5. 3 3. 4 9. 6
Cream of Wheat Macaroni Rice Beans, navy Potatoes.	28-oz. pkg Pounddododododododo	10.0	30. 6 21. 3 20. 2 13. 5 9. 9	30. 7 21. 0 10. 5 8. 8 2. 2	30. 8 23. 2 10. 1 8. 8 3. 1	18.9 11.8	20.8 8.7 8.0	20.4	8.3	17.0	21. 2	20. 9 8. 0 6. 8
Onions Cabbage Beans, baked Corn, canned Peas, canned	do		11 5	5.2	00	7. 6 8. 3 14. 4 19. 8 19. 9	6. 0 5. 7 12. 0 16. 1 18. 6	6. 5 11. 9 15. 7			5.3	4. 9 12. 0 14. 9
Tomatoes, canned	Pounddo	5. 0 56. 0 26, 8	14. 8 26. 1 89. 2 50. 7	12. 1 8. 6 84. 0 36. 7	11.6 7.9 84.6 36.7	16. 2 26. 4 65. 8 48. 5	12.6 7.7 60.6 33.0	7. 3 59. 1 33. 9	5. 0 55. 0 24. 3	74. 9 44. 8	8.0	7. 5
Prunes Raisins Bananas Oranges	do do Dozen do		28. 6 26. 6 51. 5 67. 0	21, 8 32, 0 40, 6 44, 1	21. 2 31. 4 45. 3 47. 2	28. 6 28. 8 47. 1 65. 0	21. 0 30. 3 45. 3 46. 9	20. 5 30. 2 44. 9 48. 0		28. 1 26. 6 40. 3 56. 6	30. 4	30. 8

<sup>1</sup> No. 2½ can.

#### OF FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES-Continued.

St	. Pau	l, Min	ın.	Sa	lt Lal Ut	ke Cit	y,	Sa	n Fr	ancisc	ю,	Savannah, Ga.			5	Scrant	on, Pa	1.
Jun	e 15.	May 15,	June	Jun	e 15.	May 15,	June	June	e 15.	May	June	June	May	June	June	e 15.	May	June
1913	1920		1921.	1913	1920	1921.		1913	1920	1921.	1921.	1920.		1921.	1913	1920	1921.	15, 1921.
Cts. 25. 9 23. 0 21. 0 17. 1 10. 8	42. 4 36. 6 29. 3	29.3	36. 7 31. 0 29. 1 21. 5	19.9 15.7	34.8 32.9 27.6 23.5	30. 5 27. 9 25. 0 19. 7	31. 2 28. 1	20.7 19.0 21.0 14.6	31. 4 29. 8 30. 6 20. 7	31.0	29. 9 27. 8 27. 7 18. 1	33. 5 25. 8	30. 8 27. 1 18. 8	30. 0 26. 1 19. 0	25.8 21.5 23.5 17.5	46.7 40.0 33.3	26.5	40. 2 35. 6 26. 2
18. 9 26. 7 28. 3 19. 1 20. 3	56. 6 60. 0 35. 9	43. 9 47. 1 31. 2	44. 2 47. 8 32. 5	31.7 30.7 18.8	53. 9 54. 6 36. 1	45. 4 46. 2 30. 2	45.8	33. 9 30. 0 16. 7	63.3 62.1 33.8	56. 4 54. 3 30. 2	55. 0 53. 3	54. 8 53. 8 50. 0	40. 8 42. 8 38. 8	41. 1 42. 5 40. 0	27.5 31.0 20.0	57.8 61.3 47.9	53. 1 43. 3	41. 4 53. 0 44. 0
6.4	15. 5	11. 0 14. 6 36. 5	10.0 14.2 34.6	8.7	14.3	12. 5 13. 5 38. 5	12.5 12.7 38.8	10.0	13. 2 65. 1	14.6 12.7	14.6 12.2 46.6	24.7 15.1	20.0 14.0 45.7	20. 0 13. 4 41. 2	35.3	14.7		12.5 13.7 39.3
21. 0 15. 0	29.7 40.4	29. 2 16. 6 . 24. 4	28. 2 16. 1 23. 8	23.3 19.2	33. 1 42. 8	28. 4 19. 0	25.3 18.5	19.0 18.4	32.8	27. 0 20. 9 22. 3	26. 5 19. 3 21. 8	28. 0 38. 3	29. 9 17. 2 20. 0	28. 7 15. 6 19. 3	18.3 15.6	29.3 37.1	17. 5 22. 9	28. 9 16. 6 21. 4
5. 9 3. 1 2. 5	9. 2	5. 5 4. 7 9. 4	5.8 4.5 9.1	2.6	7. 4 7. 3 10. 3	3. 4 4. 1 9. 3	9.8 3.7 4.3 9.5	5. 9 3. 4	10. 9 8. 5	6. 3 5. 1 10. 3	6. 3 5. 2 10. 5	9. 1 5. 7 11. 7	5. 9 2. 8 11. 1	6.3 3.0 11.1	3.5	13.6 9.3 8.7 11.4 14.5	6 6 7.6 11.1	6.7 7.7 11.0
10.0	11.9	19. 4 8. 9 9. 0	19. 2 8. 8 8. 6	8.2	22.0	22. 5 8. 3	21.8 8.3 9.0	8, 5	9.4	14. 5 9. 0	14. 3 8. 9 6. 8	22. 4 17. 8 14. 2	20. 0 7. 3 9. 7	20. 1 7. 8 9. 6	8.5	29. 2 24. 7 18. 9 13. 6 9. 4	24. 2 9. 7 10. 0	24. 0 9. 6 9. 8
	10. 4 5. 8 19. 7 18. 4 18. 1	6. 2 17. 8 16. 5	6. 5 17. 8 16. 6		7. 5 20. 0 18. 3	7. 5 18. 1 17 0	7.4 17.5 16.8		18.6 19.6 18.7	17. 7 18. 3	17. 0 17. 7	10. 3 7. 1 18. 3 19. 4 19. 2	3. 7 14. 2 15. 0	3. 2 . 13. 6 15. 3		9. 3 8. 8 15. 6 18. 6 18. 7	6. 2 13. 9	5. 9 13. 3 16. 3
5. 4 45. 0 30. 0	30.6	70.8	8.4	5. 9	80.6	9. 4	8.8	5. 3 50. 0	26. 6 59. 5	8. 8 58. 1		23. 3 82. 1	8. 0 69. 2	7.4	5.3 52.5	69.5	8. 2 63. 6	7. 9 62. 4
	215. 0	19. 7 32. 3 213. 1 52. 7	32. 5		28. 3 216. 4		30. 2		48. 6	29. 1 41. 4	15. 6 29. 4 42. 9 47. 8	25. 2	31. 1 45. 0	31.0		26. 1 28. 3 42. 6 63. 7	30. 7 36. 8	30.6

<sup>2</sup> Per pound.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES—Concluded.

		1	Seattle	, Wasl	1.	Spri	ngfield	, Ill.	Was	hingt	ton, I	). C.
Article.	Unit.	June	15—	May	June		May	June	June	15—		Jun
		1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	15, 1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921
Sirloin steak Round steak Rib roast Chuck roast Plate beef	do do	Cts. 23. 8 21. 5 20. 0 16. 8 13. 0	Cts. 37. 0 34. 6 30. 4 23. 1 18. 5	30.1 27.5 19.8	Cts. 32.3 29.1 26.4 18.1 13.8	42.1 28.2 25.3	Cts. 37. 9 36. 4 25. 4 20. 9 15. 5	36.8 25.1 21.0	23.9 21.6 17.9	53. 2 48. 5 41. 1	41.3 36.7 25.3	41. 36. 24.
Pork chops	do dodo	24. 2 31. 7 30. 8 20. 8 24. 3	45. 5 64. 3 62. 4 37. 6 43. 0	30.8	35. 8 53. 1 52. 6 29. 3 33. 9	43.1	32. 0 39. 7 48. 5 35. 8 34. 5	40. 3 48. 9 35. 0	26. 8 30. 0 20. 9		55. 5 41. 2	40. 55. 42.
Salmon (canned)	doQuart	8.5	37.3 13.2 13.5 60.7 43.4	35. 7 12. 0 12. 3 35. 4 27. 5	34. 8 12. 0 12. 2 38. 7 25. 7	14.3	39.1 12.5 15.6 40.9 29.9	15. 2	37.4	15.2	14. 0 14. 6 46. 7	13. 14. 42.
Nut margarine	dod	21.7	37.1 40.9 30.3 39.6 49.9	20. 9 24. 4	25, 7 29, 3 19, 9 23, 1 31, 8	31. 4 38. 9	27. 8 32. 4 16. 2 23. 7 28. 7	30.1 15.9 22.2	22. 8 14. 8	35.4	34.0 15.8 21.0	31, 15. 20.
Bread. Flour Corn meal Rolled oats. Corn flakes.	do do 8-oz. pkg	3.1	11.5 7.7 7.4 10.4 14.8	9. 9 5. 1 4. 7 8. 8 13. 8	9. 9 5. 2 4. 6 9. 0 13. 7	9.1 7.5	10. 4 5. 9 4. 5 11. 3 14. 6	11.1	3.8	12.3 9.3 5.9 11.5 14.2	6. 2 3. 9 11. 2	6. 3. 11.
cream of Wheat	do	7.7	32. 2 18. 7 19. 7 10. 4 12. 3	30.7 18.1 10.0 7.3 2.2	30.7 18.5 9.6 7.0 2.2	19. 4 12. 9	30. 5 23. 1 9. 5 7. 6 2. 2	30. 5 22. 4 9. 4 7. 5 2. 1	9.6	29. 9 23. 5 19. 0 12. 2 9. 0	22.1 9.4 7.8	22. 10. 7.
Onions labbage Beans, baked Jorn, canned Peas, canned	No. 2 candodododo		7. 4 6. 4 20. 5 19. 8 20. 1		3. 4 6. 6 17. 4 16. 9 17. 2	18. 2 17. 5	7. 6 6. 7 15. 4 14. 0 17. 1	8. 4 15. 0		7.8 7.9 14.6 17.8 18.2	12.1 13.8	5. 12. 14.
Comatoes, canned	do	50. 0 28. 0	1 16, 2 26, 2 68, 5 48, 9	64, 4	1 12. 4 8. 7 64. 5 37. 4	31.8	12. 2 9. 3 81. 3 37. 0		57.5	15.3 25.4 78.7 47.4	8. 0 74. 0	7. 74.
Prunes Laisins Bananas Dranges	do Dozen		26. 9 27. 3 2 15. 1 64. 2	30. 4 2 16. 8	16. 4 30. 3 2 16. 9 41. 7	28, 9	22. 0 34. 2 2 11. 0 45. 4			28. 4 25. 9 47. 5 64. 0	42.5	44.

1 No. 21 can.

2 Per pound.

## Comparison of Retail Food Costs in 51 Cities.

TABLE 6 shows for 39 cities the percentage of increase or decrease in the retail cost of food <sup>7</sup> in June, 1921, compared with the average cost in the year 1913, in June, 1920, and in May, 1921. For 12 other cities comparisons are given for the one-year and the one-month periods. These cities have been scheduled by the bureau at different dates since 1913. These percentage changes are based on actual retail prices secured each month from retail dealers and on the average family consumption of these articles in each city.<sup>8</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> For list of articles, see note 2, p. 52.

8 The consumption figure used from January, 1913, to December, 1920, for each article in each city is given in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for November, 1918, pp. 94 and 95. The consumption figures which have been used for each month beginning with January, 1921, are given in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for March, 1921, p. 26.

TABLE 6.—PERCENTAGE CHANGES IN THE RETAIL COST OF FOOD IN JUNE, 1921, COMPARED WITH THE COST IN MAY, 1921, JUNE, 1920, AND WITH THE AVERAGE COST IN THE YEAR 1913, BY CITIES.

[Percentage changes of five-tenths of 1 per cent and over are given in whole numbers.]

			e decrease 921, com- ith—		Percent- age increase June,	Percentag June, 1 pared w	921, com-
City.	1921, compared with year 1913.	June, 1920.	May, 1921.	City.	1921, compared with year 1913.	June, 1920.	May, 1921.
AtlantaBaltimore.Birmingham	43 46 49	33 33 34	1 1 1	Milwaukee Minneapolis Mobile	41 39	38 40 36	0 2 3 0. 2 2
Boston Bridgeport	47	31 32	1	New Haven	39 40	32 34	0.2
Buffalo	51 48 50	37 39 29 35	2 0.4 3 a 2 a 3	New Orleans	41 48 44	32 31 30 40 38	2 1 0 a 0. 1
Cleveland	40 44 34 45	37 35 31 38 40	0.3 2 a 0.1 a 1 1	Philadelphia. Pittsburgh Portland, Me. Portland, Oreg. Providence.	43 46 28 49	32 32 32 39 39	a 2 1 a 1 1
Fall River Houston Indianapolis Jacksonville Kansas City	36 37 43	33 31 40 31 38	$\begin{array}{c}1\\1\\1\\1\\2\end{array}$	Richmond	55 49 29	32 36 37 40 37	0.1 2 a 3 1 a 0.3
Little Rock Los Angeles Louisville Manchester Memphis	42 37 32 46 40	31 30 39 34 37	$egin{array}{c} a \ 1 \\ a \ 0.4 \\ 0.2 \\ 2 \\ a \ 2 \\ \end{array}$	San Francisco Savannah Scranton Seattle Springfield, III Washington, D. C.	39 49 32 53	31 33 33 37 39 29	a 0. 1 a 0. 3 2 0. 2 1 a 0. 4

a Increase.

For the month of June only 6 merchants failed to send in their reports in time for their prices to be included in the city averages. One report was lacking in New York, Bridgeport, Dallas, and Houston, and two reports were not received from Seattle. With the exception of these 5 cities, however, the record of the other 46 cities was perfect; that is, every merchant cooperating with the bureau in the other 46 cities sent in promptly his report to the bureau.

The following summary shows the promptness with which the

merchants responded in June:

RETAIL PRICE REPORTS RECEIVED DURING JUNE.

	TT 1. 1		Geogra	aphical div	vision.	
Item.	United States.	North Atlantic.	South Atlantic.	North Central.	South Central.	Western.
Percentage of reports received	99	99	100	100	99	99
Number of cities in each section from which every report was received	46	12	a 8	a 14	6	6

a Total number of cities in this division.

#### Retail Prices of Coal in the United States.a

HE following table shows the average retail prices of coal on June 15, 1920, and on May 15 and June 15, 1921, for the United States and for each of the cities included in the total for the United States. Prices for coal are secured from the cities from which monthly retail prices of food are received.

In addition to the prices for Pennsylvania anthracite, prices are shown for Colorado, Arkansas, and New Mexico anthracite in those cities where these coals form any considerable portion of the sales for

household use.

The prices shown for bituminous coal are averages of prices of the several kinds used. The coal dealers in each city are asked to quote prices on the kinds of bituminous coal usually sold for household use.

The prices quoted are for coal delivered to consumers, but do not include charges for storing the coal in cellar or coal bin where an extra handling is necessary.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL, PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JUNE 15, 1920, AND ON MAY 15 AND JUNE 15, 1921.

	1920	19	)21
City, and kind of coal.	June 15.	May 15.	June 15.
United States:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	\$14.065	\$14.794	\$14,766
Chestnut	14. 135	14. 878	14. 834
Bituminous	10.188	10.392	10.385
Atlanta, Ga.:			
Bituminous	12.545	8.813	8. 813
Baltimore, Md.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	1 13. 500	1 14. 500	1 14. 500
Chestaut	1 13, 600	1 14. 500	1 14. 500
Bituminous.	1 8. 786	8. 139	8. 125
Birmingham, Ala.: Bituminous			
Boston, Mass.:	8.791	8. 733	8. 625
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	11 500	4 4 000	
Chartnit	14.500	15.000	15.000
Chestnut. Bridgeport, Conn.:	14.500	15,000	15.000
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	15 000	14 000	11 000
Chestnut	15, 000 15, 000	14.000 14.000	14.000
Buffalo, N. Y.:	15.000	14.000	14.000
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	12,000	12.720	12, 820
Chestnut	12.000	12.720	12. 820
Butte, Mont.:	12.000	12.120	12. 820
Bítuminous	10, 444	12, 014	12,003
Charleston, S. C.:	20.111	12.011	12.000
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	1 16, 200	1 17, 000	1 17. 000
Chestnut	1 16, 300	1 17, 100	1 17, 100
Bituminous	12.000	12.000	12.000
Chicago, Ill.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	14.150	14.910	14.990
Chestnut	14. 288	15.060	15. 140
Bituminous	8. 414	8. 588	8. 634
Cincinnati, Ohio:			100
Pennsylvania anthracite—		a la salue d	
Stove	*********	15. 500	15. 333
Chestnut	14,000	15.750	15. 750
Bituminous	8.000	6. 929	6.786

a Prices of coal were formerly secured semiannually and published in the March and September issues of the Monthly Labor Review. Since June, 1920, these prices have been secured and published monthly.

1 Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL, PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JUNE 15, 1920, AND ON MAY 15 AND JUNE 15, 1921—Continued.

	1920	19	21
City, and kind of coal.	June 15.	May 15.	June 15.
Cleveland, Ohio:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—	#10 FOF		
Stove Chestnut	\$13.525 13.500	\$13.913 13.938	\$14. 12
Bituminous	9. 200	8, 212	14. 13 8. 51
Columbus, Ohio:		0,212	0.01
Pennsylvania anthracite—	11 050	41 000	
Chestnut Bituminous	14.650 9.982	14. 833 7. 638	15.00
Dallas, Tex.:	0. 004	1,000	7, 57
Arkansas anthracite—			
Egg	17.000	17,000	17, 08
Bituminous	14. 000	14. 500	14,00
Colorado anthracite—			
Stove, 3 and 5 mixed	14,600	16.083	16, 10
Furnace, 1 and 2 mixed	14. 530	16.083	16. 10
Bituminous Detroit, Mich.:	9. 371	10.699	10.88
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	14, 250	14, 550	14, 45
Chestnut Bituminous	14. 200	14. 550	14. 550
Fall River, Mass :	10, 933	9.882	10. 06
Fall River, Mass.: Pennsylvania anthracite—	0 - 0 - 0 - 0 - 0		
Stove	14. 500	15, 250	15. 250
Chestnut Bituminous	14. 250	15.000	15, 083
Houston, Tex.:	12, 250	11. 500	11, 500
Bituminous	11.500	13.000	12, 800
Indianapolis, Ind.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	13.750	15, 375	15 050
Chestnut	14, 250	15. 417	15. 250 15. 417
Bituminous	9.313	8,650	8. 638
Jacksonville, Fla.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove		17. 167	16,000
Chestnut		17. 875	16.000
Bituminous	14,000	12, 250	12. 250
Kansas City, Mo.: Arkansas anthracite—			
Furnace	15, 150	16.500	16.714
Stove, or No. 4	15.750	17.188	17. 438
BituminousLittle Rock, Ark.:	9, 118	9, 600	9, 633
Arkansas anthracite—			
Egg		16.000	16.000
Bituminous Los Angeles, Calif.:	11.950	12,600	11.808
Bituminous	17.000	18, 111	18.000
Louisville, Ky.:		201222	20.000
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove.		18 000	40.000
Chestnut	15. 000	17. 000 17. 000	16. 873 16. 873
Bituminous	9. 813	7. 923	7, 80
Manchester, N. H.:		11.505	.,
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove	15,000	10 500	10 70
Chestnut.	15, 000	16. 500 16. 500	16. 50 16. 50
Bituminous	12,000	11. 333	11.33
Memphis, Tenn.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove.	17,000	18,000	18,00
Chestnut.	17.000	18.000	18.00
Bituminous	8, 850	8. 196	8. 07
Ailwaukee, Wis.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	14.688	15, 800	15, 900
Chestnut	14.788	15.800	15. 900
Bituminous	11.469	10.639	10.64
Minneapolis, Minn.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.	16. 440	17, 220	17. 580
		17, 320	17. 600
Chestnut	16.480		
	11. 918	12. 292	12. 303

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL, PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JUNE 15, 1920, AND ON MAY 15 AND JUNE 15, 1921—Continued.

Newark, N. J.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. New Haven, Conn.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. New Orleans, La.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut Bituminous New York, N. Y.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut Norfolk, Va.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut Bituminous Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut Bituminous Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut Bituminous Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut Bituminous Peoria, Ill: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut Bituminous Peoria, Ill: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut	11, 750 11, 750 14, 250 14, 250 18, 500 10, 333 12, 800 12, 814 14, 500 14, 500 11, 727	12, 375 12, 375 12, 376 13, 708 13, 708 20, 750 20, 750 10, 409 13, 133 13, 117	June 15,  12, 500 12, 500 13, 792 16, 500 16, 500 10, 250 13, 242
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove	11. 750 14. 250 14. 250 18. 500 10. 333 12. 800 12. 814 14. 500 14. 500	12, 375 13, 708 13, 708 20, 750 20, 750 10, 409 13, 133 13, 117	12, 500 13, 792 13, 792 16, 500 16, 500 10, 250
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove	11. 750 14. 250 14. 250 18. 500 10. 333 12. 800 12. 814 14. 500 14. 500	12, 375 13, 708 13, 708 20, 750 20, 750 10, 409 13, 133 13, 117	12, 500 13, 792 13, 792 16, 500 16, 500 10, 250
Chestnut. New Haven, Conn.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. New Orleans, La.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous New York, N. Y.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Norfolk, Va.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous Pennaylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous Peoria, Ill.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut.	11. 750 14. 250 14. 250 18. 500 10. 333 12. 800 12. 814 14. 500 14. 500	12, 375 13, 708 13, 708 20, 750 20, 750 10, 409 13, 133 13, 117	12, 500 13, 792 13, 792 16, 500 16, 500 10, 250
New Haven, Conn.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. New Orleans, La.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous. New York, N. Y.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Norfolk, Va.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous. Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous. Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous. Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous. Peoria, Ill.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous. Peoria, Ill.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut.	14, 250 14, 250 18, 500 10, 333 12, 800 12, 814 14, 500 14, 500	13. 708 13. 708 20. 750 20. 750 10. 409 13. 133 13. 117	13. 792 13. 792 16. 500 16. 500 10. 250
Stove. Chestnut. New Orleans, La.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous. New York, N. Y.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Norfolk, Va.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous. Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous. Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous. Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous. Peoria, Ill.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous.	14, 250 18, 500 10, 333 12, 800 12, 814 14, 500 14, 500	13. 708 20. 750 20. 750 10. 409 13. 133 13. 117	13, 792 16, 500 16, 500 10, 250
Chestnut.  New Orleans, La.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous.  New York, N. Y.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut.  Norfolk, Va.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous. Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous. Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous. Penrisylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous. Peoria, Ill.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous.	14, 250 18, 500 10, 333 12, 800 12, 814 14, 500 14, 500	13. 708 20. 750 20. 750 10. 409 13. 133 13. 117	13, 792 16, 500 16, 500 10, 250
New Orleans, La.:  Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous New York, N. Y.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Norfolk, Va.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous Peoria, Ill.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut.	18. 500 10. 333 12. 800 12. 814 14. 500 14. 500	13, 133 13, 117	16, 500 10, 250
Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous. New York, N. Y.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Norfolk, Va.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous Penria, Ill.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut. Bituminous Peoria, Ill.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut.	10. 333 12. 800 12. 814 14. 500 14. 500	10. 409 13. 133 13. 117	16, 500 10, 250
Chestnut Bituminous New York, N. Y.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut Norfolk, Va.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut Bituminous Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut Bituminous Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut Bituminous Peoria, Ill: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut Bituminous Chestnut Bituminous Chestnut	10. 333 12. 800 12. 814 14. 500 14. 500	10. 409 13. 133 13. 117	16, 500 10, 250
New York, N. Y.:   Pennsylvania anthracite—  Stove	12. 800 12. 814 14. 500 14. 500	13. 133 13. 117	
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove	12. 814 14. 500 14. 500	13. 117	13. 242
Stove.   Chestnut.	12. 814 14. 500 14. 500	13. 117	13. 242
Norfolk, Va.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove	14. 500 14. 500		10 010
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove	14.500	1/ 000	13, 242
Chestnut. Bituminous Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove Chestnut. Bituminous Peoria, Ill.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove Chestnut.	14.500		
Bittimmons Omaha, Nebr.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut Bituminous Peoria, Ill: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut	11 797	14, 000 14, 000	14. 000 14. 000
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut Bituminous Peoria, III: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut	11: 141	11. 464	11. 464
Stove. Chestnut Bituminous Peoria, Ill.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut.			
Chestnut Bituminous Peoria, Ill.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut	19, 940	22,000	22,000
Peoria, Ill.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove Chestrut	20, 080	22, 000	22,000
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut	11. 168	12, 281	12. 281
Chestnut			
		15. 500 15. 500	15, 375 15, 250
Bituminous	6.375	6. 250	6, 438
Philadelphia, Pa.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove	13. 286	1 13. 813	1 13, 938
Chestnut 1	13. 250	1 13, 813	1 13, 938
Pittsburgh, Pa.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove. 1	15. 250	1 15. 000	1 15. 750
Chestnut. 1 Bituminous. 1	15. 125 7. 333	1 15. 467 7. 781	1 15. 950 7. 250
Portland, Me.:	7.000	1, 101	1.200
Pennsylvania anthracite—	15 000	15 100	15 100
Stove. Chestnut	15. 360 15. 360	15. 120 15. 120	15, 120 15, 120
Bituminous	12.650	9, 800	9, 800
Portland, Oreg.: Bituminous	11.800	13, 105	13, 194
Providence, R. I.:	224 000	201200	20, 101
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove	14. 500	2 15, 000	2 15, 000
Chestnut. 2	14, 500	2 15, 000	2 15, 000
Bituminous. 2 Richmond, Va.:	13. 167	2 10. 500	2 10, 333
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	13. 500	14. 188	13. 750
Chestnut Bituminous	13, 500 10, 286	14. 188 10. 816	13. 750 10. 447
Rochester, N. Y.:	20, 200	10.010	20, 11,
Pennsylvania anthracite—— Stove.	12.100	13, 050	13, 183
Chestnut	12. 200	13. 050	13, 183
St. Louis, Mo.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	14, 433	16,000	16,000
Chestnut.	14, 433	16. 188	16, 188
Bituminous St. Paul, Minn.:	6,650	6, 895	6, 816
Pennsylvania anthracite—			1
Stove. Chestnut.			
Bituminous.	16. 380 16. 420	17. 217 17. 317	17. 533 17. 567

 $<sup>^1</sup>$  Per ton of 2,240 pounds.  $^2$  Fifty cents per ton additional is charged for "binning." Most customers require binning or basketing the coalinto the cellar.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL, PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JUNE 15, 1920, AND ON MAY 15 AND JUNE 15, 1921—Concluded.

	1920	19	921
City, and kind of coal.	June 15.	May 15.	June 15.
Salt Lake City, Utah:			
Colorado anthracite—			
Furnace, 1 and 2 mixed	17, 833	18, 100	19, 300
Stove, 3 and 5 mixed	18, 167	19, 200	20,000
Bituminous	9, 256	9, 488	9, 250
San Francisco, Calif.:			
New Mexico anthracite—			
Cerillos egg	23,000	26, 500	26, 500
Colorado anthracite—			
Egg.	21.750	26,000	26,000
Bituminous	15.643	18, 455	18.455
Savannah, Ga.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.	3 16. 100	8 17. 100	8 17. 100
Chestnut	8 16, 100	8 17, 100	3 17, 100
Bituminous	8 13, 267	3 12, 500	3 12, 767
Scranton, Pa.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	9, 100	9, 517	9, 517
Chestnut	9, 100	9, 517	9, 517
Bituminous	4 9.463	4 11, 597	4 11, 597
opringhera, in.,			
Bituminous	4,420	4.300	4, 425
Washington, D. C.:	7		
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	1 13, 650	1 14, 229	1 14, 414
Chestnut	1 13. 729	1 14. 171	114.286
Bituminous	19,840	1 10, 136	1 10, 068

<sup>1</sup> Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

<sup>3</sup> All coal sold in Savannah is weighed by the city. A charge of 10 cents per ton or half ton is made. This additional charge has been included in the above prices.

<sup>4</sup> Prices in zone A. The cartage charge in zone A is \$1.85, which has been included in the average. The cartage charges in Seattle range from \$1.85 to \$3.15, according to distance.

# Wholesale Prices in June.

HOLESALE prices in the United States were generally lower in June than in the previous month, as shown by information collected by the United States Department of Labor through the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Of 327 commodities, or series of quotations, for which comparable data for May and June were obtained, decreases were recorded for 136 commodities and increases for 79 commodities. In the case of 112 commodities no

change in the price level was observed in the two months.

Farm products, after the increase of last month, again showed decided price decreases, the index number dropping from 117 to 113, or nearly  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. Fuel declined over  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent from May to June, while the groups of metals and house-furnishing goods each showed a decrease of approximately  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. Declines of less than 1 per cent took place among food products, clothing, and miscellaneous commodities, while no change in the general level occurred for building materials and chemicals. All commodities, taken in the aggregate, decreased about 2 per cent. Compared with the high peak of prices in May, 1920, the June level showed a decrease of  $45\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.

Some of the more important price changes occurring between May and June, as measured by average prices in each month, are as

follows:

# IMPORTANT ARTICLES INCREASING OR DECREASING IN AVERAGE PRICE IN JUNE, AS COMPARED WITH MAY, 1921, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES.

#### Increases.

Commodity.	Per cent.	Commodity.	Per cent.	Commodity.	Per cent.
Farm products.  Hay, timothy, No. 1, Chicago. Hides, packers', Chicago: Heavy, Texas steers. Heavy, Texas steers. Peanuts, No. 1, Norfolk.  Food, ctc. Butter, creamery, extra: Chicago. New York. San Francisco.	1.5 18.8 21.7 14.7	Food, etc.—Continued.  Lard, prime, contract, New York. Corn meal, white, Decatur. Meat, Chicago: Bacon, short clear sides. Hams, smoked. Lamb, dressed, round. Olive oil, Spanish, New York.  Cloths and clothing. Cotton varn, Boston:	5. 5 19. 0 3. 4 3. 7 11. 5	Metals and metal products.  Copper wire, bare, f. o. b. mill.  Building materials.  Linseed oil, raw, New York.  Chemicals and drugs.  Copper sulphate, New York.  Soda. caustic. New York.	2. 0 7. 1 4. 8 9. 2
Coffee, Rio, New York. Eggs, fresh: Firsts, Chicago. Firsts, New York. San Francisco. Cheese, San Francisco. Flour, wheat: Straights, Kansas City. Standard patent, Minneapolis. Soft straights, St. Louis. Fruit, Chicago: Lemons. Oranges.	7. 2 9. 7 8. 0 26. 8 20. 0 1. 0 3. 0 1. 6 98. 7 36. 9	Carded, 10/1. Twisted, 40/2. Leather, glazed kid, black, Boston. Silk, Japan, Kansai, New York. Yarn, worsted, 2/50s, Philadelphia. Fuel and lighting. Coal, bituminous, prepared sizes, Chicago.	2. 2 4. 7 7. 7 1. 7 2. 4	Soda ash, light, New York.  Miscellaneous.  Cottonseed meal, prime, New York. Cottonseed oil, prime, New York Phosphate rock, f. o. b. mine. Linseed meal, New York. Soya-bean oil, crude, New York.	13. 1 5. 1 14. 0

IMPORTANT ARTICLES INCREASING OR DECREASING IN AVERAGE PRICE IN JUNE, AS COMPARED WITH MAY, 1921, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES—Concluded.

#### Decreases.

Commodity.	Per cent.	Commodity.	Per cen	Commodity.	Per cent.
Farm products.		Cloths and clothing.		Metals and metal pro-	
Cotton, middling:		Shoes, factory:		ducts—Concluded.	
New Orleans	6.5	Children's, gun metal Women's, kid, McKay	2.8	Steel plates, tank, Pitts- burgh	
New YorkOats, cash, Chicago	7.0	Women's, kid, McKay sewed	6.6	Steel, structural, Chicago	11.4
Rye, No. 2 cash, Chicago Wheat:	12. 4	Youth's, gun metal, blucher	4.1	Tin, pig, New York	10.0
No. 1 northern spring, Chicago	4.3	Denims, Massachusetts,	1.9	Zinc, pig, New York	6.7
No. 2 red winter, Chi-		New York Drillings, brown, Massa-	1.9	Building materials.	7.8
No. 2 hard winter, Kan-	8.3	chusetts D standard,	2.0	Brick common, building,	
sas City	6.4	New York	3, 2	Cincinnati	2.6
No. 1 hard white, Port-	4.2	Sheeting, bleached, Pepperell, 10/4, New York.	2.8	Lath, eastern spruce, New York	
land, Oreg Hay, alfalfa, Kansas City	13.8	Muslin, bleached, Lons- dale, 4/4, factory	7.7	Turpentine, New York	2.9
Hides, calfskins, Chicago Hops, Pacifics, Portland,	7.9	Leather, sole, hemlock,		Shingles, cypress, New Orleans	
Oreg	23.1	Wool, Ohio, scoured fleece,	2.7	Spruce, eastern, Boston	3.8
Live stock, Chicago: Cattle, steers, good to		and grades, Boston	3.6	Chemicals and drugs.	
choice	3.9	Yarn, worsted, 2/32s, Boston	4.0	Acid, muriatic, New York.	6.2
Hogs, light	2. 4 34. 9	Fuel and lighting.		Alum, lump, New York Borax, New York	6.3
Sheep, lambs	8.6			Glycerine, refined, New	3. 2
Sheep, wethers Poultry, live, New York	26. 2 6. 9	Alcohol, denatured, New York	1.3	York Soda, nitrate of, New York	5. 2
Tobacco, good leaf, dark		Coal, bituminous:	1.0	Sulphur, crude, New York	6.4
red, Louisville, Ky	4.3	Screenings, Chicago Run of mine, Cincinnati.	4. 6 5. 2	House-furnishing goods.	
Food, etc.		Run of mine, St. Louis	8.7	Plates, white granite,	
Cheese, New York	3, 2	Coke, Connelsville, furnace, at ovens	7.0	Teacups and saucers, fac-	10.0
Codfish, large, Gloucester	6.7	Gasoline, motor, New		tory	10.0
Mackerel, large, Boston Salmon, canned, New	11.8	York Petroleum, crude, at well:	3.8	Bedroom sets, 3 pieces, Chicago	1.2
York	5. 4	California	8.1	Bedroom chairs, rockers,	
Flour, rye, white, Minne- apolis	5. 9	Kansas-Oklahoma Pennsylvania	20.8	Chicago Kitchen chairs, Chicago	12. 5 9. 7
Fruit, raisins, New York.	5. 0	Petroleum, refined, New		Kitchen tables, Chicago	3. 5
Beef, fresh, good native steers, Chicago	3.0	York, water white,	8, 3	Knives and forks, factory Pails, galvanized, factory	6. 9 5. 1
Beef, salt, mess, New York	19.1	Metals and metal products.		Tubs, galvanized, factory	3. 1
Mutton, dressed, New		*		Miscellaneous.	
York Pork, salt, mess, New	32.0	Bar iron, best refined, Philadelphia	2, 6	Bran, Minneapolis Jute, raw, New York	10.0
Y OFK	4.3	Iron ore, Mesabi, Besse-		Paper, wrapping, New	4.8
Poultry, dressed, New York	7.4	mer, lower lake ports Lead, pig, New York	6.9	Rope, manila, New York.	2. 3 5. 0
Milk, fresh, New York	13.4	Lead pipe, New York	2.1	Rubber, Para, island, New	0.0
Oleomargarine, Chicago Rice, blue rose, New	6.4	Nails, wire, Pittsburgh Pig iron:	1.6	York Hemp, manila, New York.	8.5 14.7
Orleans	7. 2	Basic, valley furnace	5.7	Mill feed, middlings, Min-	
Pepper, black, Singapore, New York	1.4	Foundry, No. 2 northern, Pittsburgh	6.0	neapolis Tankage, 9 and 20 per cent,	5. 4
Potatoes, white, Chicago	19.8	Pipe, cast-iron, New		Chicago	7.4
Sugar, New York: Raw	14.1	York Silver, bar, fine, New	13. 1	Wood pulp, domestic, sulphite, New York	6. 5
Granulated	10.0	York	2.0	Coconut oil, New York	1.7

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN SPECIFIED YEARS AND MONTHS, 1913 TO JUNE, 1921, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES.

[1913=100.]

Year and month.	Farm products.	Food, etc.	Cloths and clothing.	Fuel and lighting.	Metals and metal prod- ucts.	Build- ing mate- rials.	Chemicals and drugs.	House- fur- nishing goods.	Miscel- lane- ous.	All com- modi- ties.
1913	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
January. April July October	97	99	100	103	107	100	101	100	100	100
April	97	96	100	98	102	101	101	100	98	98
July	101	102	100	99	98	101	99	100	101	100
October	103	102	100	100	99	98	100	100	100	101
1914	103	103	98	96	87	97	101	99	99	100
January	101	102	98	99	92	98	100	99	99	100
April	. 103	95	99	98	91	99	100	99	101	98
January April July October	104 103	104 107	99	95 93	85 83	97 96	105	99	97 96	100
1915	105	104	100	93	97	94	114	99	99	101
January	102	106	96	93	83	94	103	99	100	99
January April July October	107	105	99	89	91	94	102	99	99	100
July	108	104	99	90	102	93	108	99	98	101
October	105	103	103	96	100	93	124	99	99	101
1916	122	126	128	119	148	101	159	115	120	124
January	108	113	110	105	126	99	150	105	107	110
April	114	117	119	108	147	101	172	108	110	117
January. April July. October	118 136	121 140	126 138	108 133	145 151	99	156 150	121 124	120 132	119
1917	189	176	181	175	208	124	198	144	155	134
January	148	150	161	176	183	106	159	132	138	151
April	181	182	169	184	208	114	170	139	149	172
January	199	181	187	192	257	132	198	152	153	186
October	208	183	193	146	182	134	252	152	163	181
1918	220	189	239	163	181	151	221	196	193	196
January February March.	207	187	211	157	174	136	232	161	178	185
Merch Merch	208 212	186	216 223	157	176	138	232	161	181	186
April	217	177 178	232	158 157	176 177	144 146	232 229	165	184	187
May	214	177	237	160	178	148	223	172 173	191 194	190 190
June	217	179	245	159	178	150	219	198	196	193
March. April. May June July August September October	224	184	249	166	184	154	216	199	190	198
August	230	191	252	166	185	157	222	221	191	202
September	237	199	255	167	184	159	220	226	194	207
October November		201	257	167	187	158	218	226	196	204
November	221 222	206	256	171	188	164	215	226	203	20€
December	234	210 210	250 261	171 173	184 161	164	195	227	204	206
January	222	207	234	170	172	192 161	179 191	236 218	217 212	212
February	218	196	223	169	168	163	185	218	208	197
February March April May	228	203	216	168	162	165	183	218	217	201
April	235	211	217	167	152	162	178	217	216	203
May	240	214	228	167	152	164	179	217	213	207
	231	204	258	170	154	175	174	233	212	207
August	246 243	216 227	282 304	171	158 165	186 208	171	245	221	218
Sentember	226	211	306	175 181	160	208	172 173	259 262	225 217	226 220
October.	230	211	313	181	161	231	174	264	220	223
July August September October November	240	219	325	179	164	236	176	299	220	230
	244	234	335	181	169	253	179	303	220	238
January. February March April May	218	236	302	238	186	308	210	337	236	243
January	246	253	350	184	177	268	189	324	227	248
February	237	244	356	187	189	300	197	329	227	249
March	239	246	356	192	192	325	205	329	230	258
May June July August September	246 244	270 287	353 347	213 235	195 193	341 341	212 215	331 339	238 246	265 272
June	243	279	335	246	190	337	218	362	247	269
July	236	268	317	252	191	333	217	362	243	262
August	222	235	299	268	193	328	216	363	240	250
September	210	223	278	284	192	318	222	371	239	242
October November December.	TON	204	257	282	184	313	216	371	229	223
November	165	195	234	258	170	274	207	369	220	207
December	144	172	220	236	157	266	188	346	205	189
1921:	136	162	208	228	150	990	100	000	100	4 ***
February	129	150	198	218	152 146	239 221	182 178	283 277	190 180	177 167
March.	125	150	198	207	139	208	178	277	167	
January February March April	115	141	186	199	138	203	168	275	154	162 154
May	117	133	181	194	138	202	166	262	151	151
June 1	113	132	180	187	132	202	166	250	150	148

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Preliminary.

Comparing prices in June with those of a year ago, as measured by changes in the index numbers, it is seen that farm products have declined 53½ per cent, food 52½ per cent, and cloths and clothing 46¼ per cent. Building materials show a decline of 40 per cent and metals and house-furnishing goods a decline of over 30 per cent. Fuel and chemicals were approximately 24 per cent cheaper than in June of last year, while commodities classed as miscellaneous and including important articles not falling within other groups were 39 per cent cheaper. All commodities, taken together, were 45 per cent cheaper.

## Changes in Wholesale Prices in the United States.

THE downward movement of prices for many important commodities in the three months from April to June of the present year is in striking contrast to their strong upward trend in the corresponding months of 1920. Among articles showing decided price decreases during the quarter were cattle, sheep, mess beef, mess pork, mutton, butter, potatoes, sugar, coke, pig iron, crude and refined petroleum, plate and window glass, Douglas fir lumber, and cast-iron pipe.

Smaller but very perceptible declines in price were recorded for hogs, milk, wool, sole leather, steel billets, pig tin, tinplate, nails,

gasoline, building brick, lime, and hemlock and oak lumber.

On the other hand wheat, corn, flour, meal, cotton yarns, hides, anthracite coal, yellow-pine flooring, and linseed oil increased

materially in price during the quarter.

Comparing prices in June with those of a year ago, the bureau's records show decreases of from 25 to 50 per cent for cattle, hogs, fresh beef, bacon, hams, lard, salt pork, mutton, butter, eggs, milk, wheat and wheat flour, rye and rye flour, worsted yarns, wool serge, oak sole leather, women's shoes, ingot copper, copper wire, pig iron, steel billets, pig tin, pig lead, spelter, building brick, lath, hemlock

lumber, cast-iron pipe, and structural steel.

In the 12-month period wool, worsted suitings, and chrome calf shoe leather decreased 51 per cent in price, linseed oil and yellow-pine flooring decreased 55 per cent, Pennsylvania grade crude petroleum decreased 57 per cent, packers' hides and cotton sheeting 59 per cent, Douglas fir lumber 61 per cent, sheep (ewes) and oak lumber 63 per cent, cotton yarns 65 per cent, corn meal, oats, and Kansas-Oklahoma crude oil 66 per cent, corn 67 per cent, and barley, rice, and turpentine 68 per cent.

Larger decreases were cotton 70 per cent, print cloth 72 per cent, granulated sugar 73 per cent, furnace coke 81 per cent, and potatoes

90 per cent.

Article.	Unit.	1913		July—				19	920					19	021		
Atuas.	Ome.	1913	1917	1918	1919	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.
FOODSTUFFS. (a) Animal.																	
Cattle, good to choice steers. Beef, fresh, good native steers. Beef, salt, extra mess Hogs, heavy Bacon, short, clear sides Hams, smoked, loose Lard, prime, contract. Pork, salt, mess Sheep, ewes Mutton, dressed Butter, creamery, extra Eggs, fresh, firsts Milk.	Lb Bbl 1001bs Lb Lb Lb Lb Lb Lb Lb Lb Lo	.130 18.923 8.365 .127 .166 .110 22.471	\$12, 560 . 164 30, 500 15, 460 . 248 . 240 . 201 42, 250 8, 600 . 145 . 376 . 318 . 050	\$17. 625 . 240 34. 875 17. 720 . 276 . 303 . 264 48. 500 10. 975 . 206 . 432 . 374 . 054	\$16. 869 .208 34. 300 22. 225 .337 .384 .351 58. 900 8. 125 .159 .512 .416 .071	\$13. 906 . 209 17. 000 14. 806 . 219 . 331 . 200 42. 813 14. 250 . 251 . 639 . 413 . 061	\$12.600 .195 17.000 13.975 .218 .356 .208 42.250 12.525 .195 .571 .411	\$15. 031 .223 17. 000 14. 725 .212 .365 .206 40. 400 7. 344 .172 .549 .388 .067	\$15. 381 . 255 18. 125 14. 856 . 207 . 377 . 191 36. 250 6. 594 . 170 . 553 . 423 . 070	\$15. 450 .255 18. 500 15. 130 .200 .373 .189 32. 900 6. 575 .139 .540 .471 .078	\$15. 250 . 260 19. 250 16. 544 . 202 . 363 . 201 31. 000 5. 544 . 118 . 568 . 527 . 084	\$9.840 .174 17.000 9.305 .143 .249 .136 29.750 3.450 .113 .483 .598 .075	\$9, 313 , 160 17, 000 9, 156 , 144 , 260 , 125 31, 500 3, 688 , 094 , 476 , 352 , 062	\$9. 563 .163 17. 000 9. 463 .154 .273 .122 30. 100 4. 031 .116 .460 .271 .052	\$8.719 .165 17.000 8.225 .139 .276 .105 28.063 4.406 .134 .450 .238 .052	\$8. 425 . 165 17. 000 8. 195 . 134 . 273 . 097 25. 350 4. 125 . 136 . 292 . 218 . 056	\$8. 094 .160 13. 750 8. 125 .138 .282 .102 24. 250 2. 688 .093 .319 .239 .049
(b) Vegetable.  Wheat, No. 1, northern. Wheat fiour, standard, patent. Corn, No. 2, mixed. Corn meal Oats, standard, in store. Rye, No. 2 Rye flour. Barley, fair to good, malting. Rice, Honduras, head. Potatoes, white. Sugar, granulated.	Bbl	4.584 .625 1.601 .376 .636	2. 582 12. 750 2. 044 4. 880 7.64 2. 226 11. 620 1. 391 .071 2. 375 .075	2. 170 210.702 1. 665 4. 825 . 765 1. 705 10. 440 1. 125 . 094 1. 035 . 074	2. 680 12. 155 1. 920 4. 488 . 764 1. 555 8. 050 1. 268 . 117 1. 683 . 088	3.006 14.281 1.706 3.775 1.003 2.007 11.138 1.656 .123 4.249 * .192	3. 075 15. 031 1. 995 4. 220 1. 095 2. 174 11. 869 1. 725 . 122 4. 425 8. 225	2. 900 14. 160 1. 851 4. 375 1. 114 2. 208 12. 010 1. 520 .123 3. 975 8. 212	2. 831 13. 669 1. 549 3. 590 . 935 2. 232 11. 650 1. 214 . 125 3. 570 3. 191	2. 550 12. 235 1. 541 3. 400 .699 1. 963 10. 250 1. 085 .102 2. 097 .167	2. 490 12. 594 1. 315 2. 863 . 585 1. 945 9. 988 1. 006 . 095 1. 395 . 143	1. 788 9. 625 . 682 1. 350 . 454 1. 648 9. 756 . 750 . 046 . 780 . 076	1.671 9.181 .665 1.425 .431 1.488 8.794 .689 .048 .683 .071	1. 614 8. 730 . 649 1. 375 . 432 1. 447 8. 150 . 714 . 045 . 732 . 078	1. 406 7. 950 . 578 1. 200 . 378 1. 339 7. 531 . 636 . 040 . 596 . 073	1. 492 8. 745 . 616 1. 250 . 392 1. 467 7. 760 . 657 . 035 . 510 . 063	1, 499 9, 006 614 1, 488 .377 1, 284 7, 300 .639 .039 .409 .057
TEXTILES AND LEATHER GOODS. Cotton, upland, middling. Cotton yarn, carded, 10/1. Print cloth, 27-inch Sheeting, brown, Pepperell. Bleached muslin, Lonsdale. Wool, \(\frac{1}{2}\) and \(\frac{3}{2}\) grades, secured. Worsted yarn, 2-32s. Clay worsted suitings. 16-onnec. Storm serge, all-wool, 56-inch.	Lb	.073 .081 .471 .777 1.382	. 261 . 450 . 073 . 140 . 157 1. 200 1. 600 3. 250 1. 176	.312 .641 .113 (4) .245 1.437 2.150 4.450 1.470	. 351 . 591 . 116 . 219 . 274 1. 236 1. 600 (4) 1. 223	. 424 .778 .165 (¹) .333 1.200 2.200 5.423 1,421	. 413 . 767 . 160 (4) . 333 1. 164 2. 000 5. 423 1. 421	. 393 . 730 . 154 (4) . 333 1. 000 2. 000 5. 423 1. 421	.410 .701 .142 (4) .333 .909 1.750 5.423 1.421	. 360 . 631 . 117 . 277 . 305 . 873 1, 750 5, 423 1, 421	.301 .543 .100 .238 .304 .830 1.600 4.499 1,267	.167 .288 .058 .121 .154 .546 1.150 3.363 1.047	. 139 .278 .053 .118 .152 .546 1.150 2.858 .885	.118 .245 .045 .113 .152 .527 1.200 2.575 .885	.121 .239 .043 .100 .152 .527 1.200 2.565 .885	.129 .249 .043 .100 .149 .509 1.250 2.565 .885	. 120 . 255 . 043 . 100 . 137 . 491 1. 200 2. 565 . 885

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H	ides, packers' heavy native		,	,												-		
L	steers	Lb Sq. ft Lb	.184 .270 .449	.330 .540 .815	. 324 . 640 . 830	. 486 1. 100 . 950	.361 1.250 .915	. 354 1. 175 . 910	.341 1.075 .900	294 .875 .900	.285 .875 .875	. 284 . 800 . 875	. 168 . 525 . 600	. 136 . 525 . 550	.115 .525 .575	. 101 . 525 . 575	.119 .525 .550	.140 .525 .550
SI	vici calf, blucher	Pair	3.113 2.175	4, 750	5. 645 5. 000	7. 476 7. 250	9, 600 8, 250	9. 600 8. 250	9. 100 7. 750	9. 100 7. 750	9. 100 7. 218	9.100	7, 250	7, 250	7. 250 6. 871	7.000 6.000	7.000 5.884	7.000 5.600
	NERAL AND METAL PRODUCTS.				01000	11200	0.200	0.200	******	11100	11210	7.000	1.000	1.000	0.011	0.000	0.004	3,000
Co Co Co Co Pi St Ti Pi Pi Pi Pi	pper, electrolytic pper wire, bare, No. 8. giron, Bessemer eel billets n plate, domestic, coke g tin glead elter troleum, crude, Pennsylvania. troleum, crude, Kansas-Okla-		25. 789 3. 558 . 449 . 044 . 058 2. 450	5. 933 5. 000 15. 000 .318 .338 57. 450 100. 000 12. 000 .620 .114 .093 3. 100	6.693 4.100 6.000 .255 .285 36.600 47.500 7.750 .932 .080 .087 4.000	8.304 4.000 4.172 .215 .244 29.350 38.500 7.000 .702 .056 .079 4.000	8. 522 5. 500 10. 500 192 230 43. 650 60. 000 7. 000 .623 .090 .086 6. 100	9. 059 6. 000 12. 000 .191 .230 44. 025 60. 000 7. 000 .556 .086 .081 6. 100	9, 462 6,000 15,400 190 230 44,800 60,000 7,000 490 0,855 080 6,100	9, 551 6, 000 17, 250 190 230 47, 150 62, 500 7, 500 491 086 082 6, 100	9.711 6.000 17.600 .190 .230 49.112 61.000 9.000 .472 .090 .083 6.100	10, 541 7, 100 16, 625 187 229 50, 460 58, 750 9, 000 444 082 078 6, 100	10.637 5.600 5.063 .129 .159 33.960 43.500 7.000 .355 .050 .059 5.775	10. 637 5. 100 4. 500 .129 .157 31. 460 42. 250 7. 000 .326 .047 .054 4. 188	10. 642 4. 850 4. 350 .122 .151 28. 160 38. 400 7. 000 .288 .041 .052 3. 000	10. 141 4. 850 3. 500 .125 .148 26. 160 37. 500 6. 438 .304 .043 .052 3. 188	10, 241 4, 850 3, 250 128 152 26, 160 37, 000 6, 250 322 050 054 3, 350	10, 360 4, 600 2, 938 128 1, 155 24, 710 37, 000 6, 250 045 049 2, 625
Pe	noma. troleum, refined, water-white soline, motor	Bbl Gal	. 934 . 123 . 168	1.700 .120 .240	2.250 .171 .241	2. 250 . 205 . 245	3. 500 . 260 . 285	3.500 .260 .294	3.500 .260 .300	3.500 .260 .300	3.500 .260 .300	3.500 .275 .310	3.400 .290 .310	1. 938 . 275 . 290	1.750 .263 .268	1.750 .254 .260	1.500 .240 .260	1,188 .220 .250
	BUILDING MATERIALS.																	
Ce	rick, red, domestic, building ment, Portland, domestic me, common, lumpass, plate, polished, 5 to 10	1,000 Bbl Bbl		8. 875 1. 650 1. 900	12.750 1.700 2.500	15.000 1.650 2.700	25. 000 1. 650 4. 100	25. 000 1. 742 4. 100	25, 000 1, 800 4, 225	25. 000 1. 800 4. 600	22. 484 1. 887 4. 600	15.767 1.950 4.600	16.500 1.931 4.800	16, 500 1, 718 4, 800	16. 250 1. 700 4. 800	15.000 1.700 4.800	14. 500 1. 700 4. 500	14. 500 1. 700 4. 500
GI La D H O: Pi Sh N Pi St La Li	squarefeet. ass, window, single, B th, 14-inch slab. buglas fir, No. 1. emlock uk, white, plain. ne, yellow, flooring.	Sq. ft 50 sq. ft 1,000 ft 1,000 ft 1,000 ft 1,000 ft 1,000 ft 1,000 ft Louis ft 1,000 f	4. 284 9. 208 624, 227 760, 591 323, 036 1. 967 1. 819 23, 371 016 068 462	. 400 3. 420 5. 625 18. 500 628. 000 769. 000 33. 420 3. 000 4. 100 65. 525 062 128 1. 120 420	.460 5.700 5.125 19.500 634.500 775.500 34.030 3.080 3.600 61.750 .033 .136 1.770	.580 6.200 5.750 28.500 39.150 70.000 61.630 4.820 3.350 50.920 .027 .130 2.115 1.176	. 820 6. 555 17. 000 37. 500 55. 350 155. 200 97. 090 5. 720 4. 100 74. 300 .035 .155 1. 828 2, 575	.820 6.555 17.000 37.500 53.750 155.000 86.270 4.990 4.100 76.300 .035 .155 1.690 2.475	.820 6.555 16.000 29.500 52.750 148.500 71.440 4.190 76.300 .035 .155 1.653 1.868	. 820 6. 555 16. 000 29. 500 51. 750 142. 500 65. 320 4. 570 4. 100 76. 300 .032 .155 1. 520 1. 599	.820 6.555 16.000 29.500 51.750 127.500 66.200 4.350 76.484 .031 .155 1.413 1.624	.820 6.555 10.500 25.500 25.500 51.063 119.500 62.220 3.880 4.350 77.220 .032 .155 1.215 1.473	.820 6.555 8.750 15.500 40.750 75.000 36.890 2.490 3.350 63.300 .028 .132 .782 .724	.820 6.555 8.250 12.500 36.000 67.500 33.990 2.560 3.313 63.300 .028 .130 .655 .609	.820 6.555 8.750 12.500 35.500 61.000 31.920 2.400 3.120 63.300 .026 .130 .658 .584	.820 6.555 8.750 12.500 33.500 57.500 30.710 2.420 3.225 63.300 .026 .130 .604 .591	.700 5.130 8.750 11.500 33.300 53.500 31.780 2.570 3.150 61.300 .026 .130 .700 .717	.700 5.130 8.500 11.500 32.000 55.000 2.5520 3.100 53.300 0.25 130 .750 .604

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This table is published quarterly, in the February, May, August, and November issues of the Monthly Labor Review.

<sup>2</sup> Standard war flour.

<sup>3</sup> Estimated price. No market quotation.

No quotation.
 Prior to January, 1918, prices are for gun metal, button.
 Price at New York; prices in subsequent months are at Chicago.
 Price at New York; prices in subsequent months are at Cincinnati.

# WHOLESALE PRICES IN JULY, 1917 TO 1919, AND IN CERTAIN MONTHS OF 1920 AND 1921, AS COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICES IN 1913—Concluded. \*Relative prices.\*

			July—				19	20					19	21		
Article.	1913	1917	1918	1919	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.
FOODSTUFFS.																
(a) Animal.																
Cattle, good to choice steers. Beef, fresh, good native steers. Beef, salt, extra mess Hogs, heavy Bacon, short, clear sides. Hams, smoked, loose. Lard, prime, contract. Pork, salt, mess. Sheep, ewes. Mutton, dressed. Butter, creamery, extra Eggs, fresh, firsts. Milk	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	147. 6 126. 2 161. 2 184. 8 195. 3 144. 6 182. 7 188. 5 140. 8 121. 3 140. 7 142. 9	207. 2 184. 6 184. 3 211. 8 217. 8 217. 8 215. 8 234. 2 200. 0 139. 4 165. 6 154. 3	198. 3 160. 0 181. 3 265. 7 265. 4 231. 3 319. 1 173. 4 154. 4 165. 2 184. 1 202. 9	163. 5 160. 8 89. 8 177. 0 172. 4 199. 4 181. 8 190. 5 304. 0 243. 7 206. 1 182. 7 174. 3	148.1 150.0 89.8 167.1 171.7 214.5 189.1 188.1 189.3 184.2 181.9 174.3	176. 7 171. 5 89. 8 176. 0 166. 9 219. 9 187. 3 179. 8 156. 7 167. 0 177. 1 171. 7 191. 4	180. 8 196. 2 95. 8 177. 6 163. 0 227. 1 173. 6 161. 3 140. 7 165. 0 178. 4 187. 2 200. 0	180. 4 196. 2 97. 8 180. 9 157. 5 224. 7 171. 8 146. 4 140. 3 135. 0 174. 2 208. 4 222. 9	179. 3 200. 0 101. 7 197. 8 159. 1 218. 7 182. 7 138. 0 118. 3 114. 6 183. 2 233. 2 240. 0	115.7 133.8 89.8 111.2 112.6 150.0 123.6 132.4 73.6 109.7 155.8 264.6 214.3	109. 5 123. 1 89. 8 109. 5 113. 4 156. 6 113. 6 140. 2 78. 7 91. 3 153. 5 155. 8 177. 1	112. 4 125. 4 89. 8 113. 1 121. 3 164. 5 110. 9 134. 0 86. 0 112. 6 148. 4 119. 9 148. 6	102, 5 126, 9 89, 8 98, 3 109, 4 166, 3 95, 5 124, 9 94, 0 130, 1 145, 2 105, 3 148, 6	99. 0 126. 9 89. 8 98. 0 105. 5 164. 5 88. 2 112. 8 88. 0 132. 0 94. 2 96. 5 160. 0	95. 1 123. 1 72. 97. 1 108. 1 169. 92. 1 107. 90. 1 102. 91. 1 140. 0
(b) Vegetable.																
Wheat, No. 1, northern Wheat flour, standard, patent Corn, No. 2, mixed Corn meal. Oats, standard, in store Rye, No. 2 Rye flour Barley, fair to good, malting Rice, Honduras, head Potatoes, white Sugar, granulated	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	295. 4 278. 1 327. 0 304. 8 203. 2 350. 0 372. 1 222. 6 139. 2 386. 8 174. 4	248. 3 <sup>2</sup> 233. 5 266. 4 301. 4 203. 5 268. 1 334. 3 180. 0 184. 3 168. 6 172. 1	306. 6 265. 2 307. 2 280. 3 203. 2 244. 5 257. 8 202. 9 229. 4 274. 1 204. 7	343, 9 311, 5 273, 0 236, 1 266, 8 315, 6 321, 2 265, 0 241, 2 692, 0 3 446, 5	351, 8 327, 9 319, 2 263, 9 291, 2 341, 8 342, 2 276, 0 239, 2 720, 7 3 523, 3	331. 8 308. 9 296. 2 273. 6 296. 3 347. 2 346. 3 243. 2 241. 2 647. 4 3 493. 0	323. 9 298. 2 247. 8 224. 5 248. 7 350. 9 335. 9 194. 2 245. 1 581. 4 3 444. 2	291. 8 266. 9 246. 6 212. 6 185. 9 308. 6 295. 6 173. 6 200. 0 341. 5 388. 4	284. 9 274. 7 210. 4 179. 0 155. 6 305. 8 288. 0 161. 0 186. 3 227. 2 332. 6	204. 6 210. 0 109. 1 84. 3 120. 7 259. 1 312. 4 120. 0 90. 2 127. 0 176. 7	191. 2 200. 3 106. 4 89. 0 114. 6 234. 0 281. 6 110. 2 94. 1 111. 2 165. 1	184. 7 190. 4 103. 8 85. 9 114. 9 227. 5 261. 0 114. 2 88. 2 119. 2 181. 4	160. 9 173. 4 92. 5 75. 0 100. 5 210. 5 241. 1 101. 8 78. 4 97. 1 169. 8	170. 7 190. 8 98. 6 78. 1 104. 3 230. 7 248. 5 105. 1 68. 6 83. 1 146. 5	171. 196. 98. 92. 100. 201. 233. 102. 76. 66. 132.
TEXTILES AND LEATHER GOODS.																
Cotton, upland, middling Cotton yarn, carded, 10/1 Print cloth, 27-inch Sheeting, brown, Pepperell Bleached muslin, Lonsdale. Wool, 4 and 8 grades, scoured	100 100 100 100 100 100 100	203. 9 203. 6 208. 6 191. 8 193. 8 254. 8	243. 8 289. 6 322. 9 (4) 302. 5 305. 1	274. 2 267. 4 331. 4 300. 0 338. 3 262. 4	331.3 352.0 471.4 (4) 406.1 254.8	322. 7 347. 1 457. 1 (4) 406. 1 247. 1	307. 0 330. 3 440. 0 (4) 406. 1 212. 3	320.3 317.2 405.7 (4) 406.1 193.0	281. 3 285. 5 334. 3 379. 5 371. 9 185. 3	235. 2 245. 7 285. 7 326. 0 370. 7 177. 5	130. 5 130. 3 165. 7 165. 8 190. 1 115. 9	108. 6 125. 8 151. 4 161. 6 187. 7 115. 9	92. 2 110. 9 128. 6 154. 8 187. 7 111. 9	94.5 108.1 122.9 137.0 187.7 111.9	100.8 112.7 122.9 137.0 184.0 108.1	93. 115. 122. 137. 169. 104.

	Worsted yarn, 2-32s	100 100	205. 9 235. 2	276. 7 322. 0	205.9	283.1 392.4	257. 4 392. 4	257. 4 392. 4	225. 2 392. 4	225, 2 392, 4	205.9 325.5	148.0 243.3	148.0 206.8	154. 4 186. 3	154. 4 185. 6	160.9 185.6	154. 4 185. 6	
	Storm serge, all wool, 50-inch. Hides, packers' heavy native steers. Leather, chrome calf. Leather, sole, oak. Shoes, men's, Goodyear welt, kid, 8-inch. Shoes, women's, Goodyear welt, kid, 8-inch.	100 100 100 100 100	208.9 179.3 200.0 181.5 152.6	261.1 176.1 237.0 184.9 181.3	217.2 264.1 407.4 211.6 240.2	252, 4 196, 2 463, 0 203, 8 308, 4	252, 4 192, 4 435, 2 202, 7 308, 4	252. 4 185. 3 398. 1 200. 4 292. 3	252. 4 159. 8 324. 1 200. 4 292. 3	252. 4 154. 9 324. 1 194. 9 292. 3	225. 0 154. 3 296. 3 194. 9 292. 3	186.0 91.3 194.4 133.6 232.9	157, 2 73, 9 194, 4 122, 5 232, 9	157. 2 62. 5 194. 4 128. 1 232. 9	157. 2 54. 9 194. 4 128. 1 224. 9	157.2 64.7 194.4 122.5 224.9	157. 2 76. 1 194. 4 122. 5 224. 9	
	lace 5	100	160.9	189.2	274.5	312.3	312.3	293, 3	293.3	273.2	265.0	265.0	265.0	260.2	227.2	222.7	212.1	
	MINERAL AND METAL PRODUCTS.																	
[347]	Coal, anthracite, chestnut. Coal, bituminous, run of mine. Coke, furnace, prompt shipment. Copper, electrolytic. Copper wire, bare, No. 8. Pig iron, Bessemer Steel billets. Tin plate, domestic, coke. Pig tin Pig lead. Spelter. Petroleum, crude, Pennsylvania Petroleum, crude, Kansas-Oklahoma. Petroleum, refined, water-white. Gasoline, motor	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	111, 7 227, 3 591, 0 282, 5 202, 4 335, 3 387, 8 337, 3 128, 1 259, 1 160, 3 126, 5 182, 0 97, 6 142, 9	126.0 186.4 236.4 162.4 170.7 213.6 184.2 217.8 207.6 181.8 150.0 163.3 240.9 139.0 143.5	156, 3 181, 8 164, 4 136, 9 146, 1 171, 3 149, 3 196, 7 156, 3 124, 7 136, 2 163, 3 240, 9 166, 7 145, 8	160, 4 250, 0 413, 7 122, 3 137, 7 254, 8 232, 7 196, 7 138, 8 204, 5 148, 3 249, 0 374, 7 211, 4 169, 6	170, 5 272, 7 472, 8 121, 7 257, 0 232, 7 196, 7 123, 8 195, 5 139, 7 249, 0 374, 7 211, 4 175, 0	178, 1 272, 7 606, 8 121, 0 137, 7 261, 5 232, 7 196, 7 193, 2 137, 9 249, 0 374, 7 211, 4 178, 6	179. 8 272. 7 679. 7 121. 0 137. 7 275. 2 242. 4 195. 5 141. 4 249. 0 374. 7 211. 4 178. 6	182.8 272.7 693.5 121.0 137.7 286.7 236.5 253.0 105.1 204.5 143.1 249.0 374.7 211.4 178.6	198. 4 322. 7 655. 0 119. 1 137. 1 294. 5 227. 8 253. 0 98. 9 186. 4 134. 5 249. 0 374. 7 223. 6 184. 5	200. 2 254. 5 199. 5 82. 2 95. 2 198. 2 168. 7 79. 1 113. 6 101. 7 235. 8 184. 5	200.2 231.8 177.3 82.2 94.0 183.6 163.8 196.7 72.6 106.8 93.1 170.9 207.5 223.6 172.6	200.3 220.5 171.4 77.7 90.4 164.4 148.9 196.7 64.1 93.2 89.7 122.4 187.4 213.8 159.5	190, 9 220, 5 137, 9 79, 6 88, 6 157, 4 145, 4 180, 9 67, 7 97, 7 89, 7 130, 1 187, 4 206, 5 154, 8	192.8 220.5 128.1 81.5 91.0 152.7 143.5 175.7 71.7 113.6 93.1 136.6 195.1 154.8	195.0 209.1 115.8 81.5 92.8 144.2 143.5 175.7 64.6 102.3 84.5 107.1 127.2 178.9 148.8	
	Brick, red, domestic, building. Cement, Portland, domestic. Lime, common, lump. Glass, plate, polished, 5 to 10 square feet. Glass, window, single, B Lath, 19-inch slab. Douglas fir, No. 1 Hemlock. Oak, white, plain Pine, yellow, flooring. Shingles, red cedar. Nails, wire, 8-penny. Pipe, cast-iron, 6-inch Steel, structural. Lead, carbonate of (white) Linseed oil, raw. Turpentine, spirits of.	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	135, 2 169, 9 165, 8 125, 8 154, 0 131, 3 200, 9 6 115, 6 7 113, 9 145, 1 152, 5 225, 4 280, 4 387, 5 188, 2 242, 4 98, 1	194.3 175.0 218.1 144.7 256.6 119.6 211.8 142.4 7 124.6 147.7 156.6 197.9 264.2 206.3 200.0 383.1 163.5	228.6 169.9 235.6 182.4 279.2 134.2 336.5 6 169.5 7 160.9 267.5 245.0 184.2 217.9 163.8 191.2 457.8 274.8	380, 9 169, 9 358, 0 257, 9 295, 1 396, 8 407, 3 244, 5 388, 4 421, 5 290, 8 225, 4 317, 9 218, 8 227, 9 395, 7 601, 6	380, 9 179, 4 358, 0 257, 9 295, 1 396, 8 407, 3 237, 5 388, 4 374, 5 225, 4 326, 5 218, 8 227, 9 365, 8 578, 3	380, 9 185, 4 369, 0 257, 9 295, 1 373, 5 320, 4 233, 0 372, 0 310, 1 213, 0 225, 4 326, 5 218, 8 227, 9 357, 8 436, 4	380. 9 185. 4 401. 8 257. 9 295. 1 373. 5 320. 4 228. 6 357. 1 283. 6 232. 3 225. 4 200. 0 227. 9 329. 0 373. 6	342. 6 194. 3 401. 8 257. 9 295. 1 373. 5 320. 4 228. 6 319. 5 287. 4 252. 2 239. 1 327. 3 193. 8 227. 9 305. 8 379. 4	240, 2 200, 8 401, 8 257, 9 295, 1 245, 1 276, 9 225, 5 299, 4 270, 1 197, 3 239, 1 330, 4 200, 0 227, 9 263, 0 344, 2	251. 4 198. 8 418. 8 257. 9 295. 1 204. 3 168. 3 180. 0 187. 9 160. 1 126. 6 184. 2 270. 8 175. 0 194. 1 169. 3 169. 2	251. 4 176. 9 418. 8 257. 9 295. 1 192. 6 135. 8 159. 0 169. 2 147. 6 130. 1 182. 1 270. 8 175. 0 191. 2 141. 8	247. 6 175. 0 418. 8 257. 9 295. 1 204. 3 135. 8 136. 7 152. 8 138. 6 123. 0 171. 5 270. 8 191. 2 142. 4 136. 4	228.6 175.0 418.8 257.9 295.1 204.3 135.8 148.0 144.1 133.3 270.8 162.0 191.2 130.7 138.1	220.9 175.0 392.7 220.1 231.0 204.3 124.9 147.0 134.1 138.0 7 173.2 262.3 162.5 191.2 151.5 167.5	220. 9 175. 0 392. 7 220. 1 231. 0 198. 4 124. 9 141. 3 137. 8 140. 6 128. 1 170. 4 228. 1 156. 3 191. 2	

<sup>2</sup> Standard war flour.
3 Estimated prices. No market quotation.
4 No quotation.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Prior to January, 1918, prices are for gun metal, button.
<sup>6</sup> Price at New York; prices in subsequent months are at Chicago.
<sup>7</sup> Price at New York; prices in subsequent months are at Cincinnati.

## Prices of Various Commodities in Chile in 1920.

HE following table shows the increase in prices of various commodities in Santiago, Chile, from 1910 to 1920. In the absence of a direct statement in the report from which the figures are taken, the unit is assumed to be the kilogram (2.2 pounds), and the time, March, 1920.

INCREASE IN COST OF ARTICLES OF PRIME NECESSITY IN SANTIAGO, 1920, AS COMPARED WITH 1910.

[1 peso at par=36.5 cents.]

Article.	Price per kil	ogram in-	Per cent of
Article.	1910	1920	increase.a
	Pe808.	Pesos.	
Beans Bread	0. 43	0. 64 1. 05	49 150
Flour	.38	1.00	163
Maize	. 20	. 35	75
Meat	.96	1.84	92 32
Rice	.53	2. 22	319
Sugar	.70	3.00	329
Wheat	. 25	. 60	140

a Computed.

At the same time the following prices prevailed in certain districts in the mining Provinces of Conception and Arauco, the data being obtained from eight shops in the town of Curanilahue, generally patronized by miners, and from a company store:

AVERAGE PRICES IN INDEPENDENT AND COMPANY STORES IN CURANILAHUE.

[1 kilogram=2.2 pounds; 100 grams=3.5 ounces; 1 liter=1.1 quarts; 1 peso at par=36.5 cents.]

		Price	at—
Article.	Unit.	Independent stores.	Company store.
Meat Milk Oil Ol, cottonseed Paraffin Potatoes Rice Salt Sugar Tobacco Vermicelli Wheat	Kilogram do. do. do. Liter do. do. do. Kilogram do. do. Silogram do. Silogram do. Kilogram Kilogram do. Kilogram	4. 11 1. 60 4. 50	Pesos.  a 1, 00 2, 60 .33 .25 .3, 80 .70 .18 1, 43 .38 2, 26 .87

a 360-gram package.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Boletín de la Oficina del Trabajo. Núm. 15. Santiago, 1920.

The following table <sup>2</sup> gives the average price of various articles of prime necessity at several points in the Provinces of Antofagasta and Tarapaca in the latter part of 1919 or early in 1920:

AVERAGE PRICES OF ARTICLES OF PRIME NECESSITY IN SPECIFIED PROVINCES.

[1 kilogram=2.2 pounds; 100 grams=3.5 ounces; 1 liter=1.1 quarts; 1 peso at par=36.5 cents.]

Article.	Unit.	A	verage price in	ı—
Al ticle.	Omt.	Antofagasta.	Iquique.	Pisagua.
		Pesos.	Pesos.	Pesos.
Beans	Kilogram		0.77	0.35
Bread	do	. 90	0.11	1,20
Candles	400-460 grams	. 98		21.00
Cheese	Kilogram		3, 53	2,00
	do		. 87	. 40
Coffee	do	3. 13	3, 33	1.70
Flour	do	.68	.70	. 40
	do		3,65	1,70
	do		1.16	1,10
	do		. 44	
Meat	do	2, 20	2.41	8 1, 00
Milk	Liter	. 80	1.00	1,00
	do		3.44	3, 65
Paraffin	do		. 85	. 85
Penners dwarf	Kilogram		3.87	2.30
Potatoes		. 42	.35	.171
Rice.			1.40	.70
Salt		. 20	.21	.10
Sugar			4 1. 12	4.60
Tobacco	25 grams		2. 22	.00
Vermicelli			1.06	. 50
Wheat	do	. 47	. 50	. 20
Wine		.94	.78	.80
Wood				.00
Yerba	Kilogram	1.78	1.71	.90

According to Commerce Reports (Washington), November 8, 1920, page 626, a decline in the price of sugar, beans, rice, coffee, and other foodstuffs has led to financial difficulties for many firms.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> 140 grams. <sup>2</sup> 460 grams.

<sup>3</sup> With bone.

<sup>4</sup> Granulated.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Boletín de la Oficina del Trabajo. Núm. 13. Santiago, 1920.

# Retail Prices of Food in Germany.

CONSULAR report of June 18, 1921, just received by this bureau, contains figures showing the retail prices of 22 articles of food in 18 large cities of Germany, on April 13, 1921. These figures are given in the table below:

RETAIL PRICES OF 22 ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 18 LARGE CITIES OF GERMANY ON APR. 13, 1921,

[Mark at par=23.8 cents.]

Article.	Ber- lin.	Ham- burg.	Mu- nich.	Dres- den.	Bres- lau.	Frank- fort on the Main.	Stutt- gart.	Kö- nigs- berg in Prus- sia.	Mann- heim.
Rye bread, official price. per kilogram. Rye flour, official price. do. Barley groats do. Oat flakes do. Oatmeal do. Rice do. Peas, yellow do. Beans, white do. Potatees do. Carrots, yellow do. Spinach do. Poes, soup meat with bones do. Pork, fat, fresh do. Bacon, fat, unsmoked do. Butter:	Marks. 2, 37 2, 70 5, 60 5, 80 8, 00 7, 50 4, 00 1, 10 1, 30 2, 50 28, 00 33, 00 33, 00	Marks. 2, 40 5, 50 5, 60 6, 00 5, 00 6, 00 1, 30 1, 80 28, 00 32, 00	Marks. 2, 50 2, 64 5, 50 5, 80 5, 60 5, 00 4, 40 1, 00 26, 00 28, 00	Marks. 2, 30 2, 80 5, 80 5, 90 6, 60 4, 40 1, 20 1, 60 28, 00 36, 00 40, 00	Marks, 2, 40 2, 80 5, 60 5, 50 6, 40 5, 80 4, 50 3, 10 1, 40 2, 80 26, 60 32, 00 36, 20	Marks. 2, 67 5, 30 5, 60 5, 20 4, 20 2, 40 1, 20 1, 20 3, 00 24, 00 34, 00 42, 00	Marks. 2. 50 2. 90 5. 00 7. 00 10. 60 5. 50 3. 40 95 1. 00 2. 70 24. 00 28. 00 36. 00	Marks. 2, 20 2, 50 5, 20 5, 60 5, 30 5, 20 4, 80 4, 00 1, 00 1, 20 28, 90 30, 00 32, 00	5. 000 6. 00 9. 80 5. 000 4. 40 4. 00 1. 10 1. 20 2. 00 32. 00
Official price do. Market price do. Margarine. do. Lard do. Fresh haddock do. Marmelade do. Sugar:	51. 20 62. 00 21. 80 22. 00 6. 50 11. 00	50, 00 54, 00 22, 00 25, 00 6, 00 11, 00	23, 60 42, 00 22, 00 24, 00 5, 60 10, 00	50. 40 70. 00 24. 00 24. 00 6. 00 6. 00	40.00 58.00 18.00 21.80 4.80 8.80	58. 33 20. 00 22. 00 7. 00 7. 60	25. 00 40. 00 20. 00 24. 00 7. 50 9. 00	28. 00 50. 00 18. 00 22. 00 3. 00 9. 00	36, 00 48, 00 19, 40 22, 00 7, 00 6, 00
Official price do Market price do Eggs each Unskimmed milk: Official price per liter	7. 60 27. 00 1. 35	7. 72 32. 00 1. 35 2. 00	7. 80 . 95 1. 52	7. 60 30. 00 1, 25 2, 58	7. 12 14. 00 1. 20 2. 30	8. 40 28. 00 1. 50	7. 80 24. 00 1. 45	7. 68 22. 00 1. 05	8, 00 20, 00 1, 60 2, 20
Market pricedo	4. 50	2.50	1.04	4. 50	3.60	0.00	3.00	4. 00	3. 50
Article.	Aix la Cha- pelle.	Karls- ruhe.	Mag- de- burg.	Nu- rem- berg.	Augs- burg.	Essen.	Chem- nitz.	Dort- mund.	Lü- beck.
Rye bread, official price, per kilogram. Rye flour, official price. do. Barley groats. do. Oat flakes. do. Oatmeal. do. Rice. do. Peas, yellow. do. Beans, white. do. Beans, white. do. Spinach. do. Spinach. do. Beef, soup meat with bones. do. Pork, fat, fresh. do. Bacon, fat, unsmoked. do. Bacot, do. Bacot, fat, unsmoked. do.	Marks. 2. 40 5. 50 6. 00 12. 00 5. 00 6. 50 1. 20 1. 30 3. 20 30. 00 44. 00 44. 00	Marks. 2, 53 2, 90 5, 20 6, 00 10, 60 7, 00 5, 00 3, 20 92 1, 80 26, 00 34, 00	Marks. 2, 30 2, 80 6, 80 5, 28 5, 82 4, 14 4, 74 1, 11 1, 02 1, 40 27, 80 32, 80 30, 30	Marks. 2. 40 5. 60 6. 40 6. 40 5. 60 6. 00 6. 00 1. 00 1. 20 23. 00 23. 00 35. 00	Marks, 2, 40 2, 50 6, 00 7, 00 5, 30 5, 50 90 1, 40 28, 00	Marks. 2, 25 2, 84 5, 80 6, 50 6, 50 6, 50 1, 00 1, 35 2, 30 24, 00 36, 00 38, 00	Marks. 2, 50 2, 80 5, 60 5, 80 7, 20 6, 00 5, 00 1, 20 3, 60 28, 00 32, 00 36, 00	Marks. 2, 33 2, 70 5, 60 6, 00 7, 60 6, 50 4, 50 1, 20 1, 20 1, 60 29, 00 38, 00 36, 00	Marks. 2. 68 5. 60 5. 40 6. 00 6. 00 4. 40 5. 00 1. 20 1. 00 28. 00 32. 00
Official price do do Market price do Market price do Margarine do Lard do Fresh haddock do Marmelade do Sugar:	51. 00 56. 00 20. 00 23. 00 7. 00 14. 00	37. 00 60. 00 22. 00 23. 00 6. 00 9. 00	45. 00 64. 00 22. 05 23. 80 3. 54 7. 50	22. 60 44. 00 26. 00 26. 00 9. 00 9. 00	23. 00 36. 00 24. 00 24. 00 7. 00 7. 00	48, 00 64, 00 20, 00 24, 00 4, 50 7, 00	53. 60 76. 00 20. 00 24. 00 7. 00 10. 00	64. 00 23. 50 24. 00 5. 00 10. 00	34. 00 50. 00 20. 00 23. 00 3. 00 9. 00
Official pricedoMarket pricedoEggseach	8. 00 18. 00 1. 70	8. 00 20. 00 1. 60	7.70 20.00 1.22	7. 60 23. 00 . 90	7. 60	8, 80 22, 00 1, 50	7.60 38.00 1.25	8. 00 30. 00 1. 40	7. 60 28. 00 1. 25
Official priceper liter Market pricedo	2. 80	2. 20 4. 00	2.40 3.00	1.50	1. 45 2. 20	2.60	2.70 3.50	2. 40 4. 00	1.80

#### Trend of Wholesale Prices in Great Britain.

THE changes in wholesale prices in Great Britain are shown in the following table of index numbers taken from the Economist and published by the United States Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce in Commerce Reports of July 6, 1921. Prices at the time of the armistice (November, 1918) are taken as the base or 100. The report states that if prices at the end of July, 1914, be taken as 100, the group totals at the end of May, 1921, would read: Cereals and meat, 206; other foods, 196; textiles, 161; minerals, 207; miscellaneous, 192; total, 190.

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN GREAT BRITAIN, NOVEMBER, 1918, TO MAY, 1921.

[Prices	in	Novem	ber,	1918=	100.]
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Date.	Cereals and and meat.	Other foods.	Textiles.	Minerals.	Miscella- neous.	Total.
November, 1918	100	100	100	100	100	100
March, 1919	100	100	81	94	93	92
September, 1919		101	107	116	97	100
December, 1919	112	113	132	126	104	118
March, 1920	117	116	161	138	123	13
August, 1920	111	118	136	144	112	12
September, 1920	117	119	128	145	110	12
October, 1920	121	115	104	145	104	110
November, 1920	115	111	89	139	96	100
December, 1920	104	103	69	134	92	98
January, 1921	100	102	64	125	87	90
February, 1921	91	99	56	116	82	8
March, 1921	94	93	56	111	81	85
April, 1921	93	93	56	104	76	79
May, 1921	93	89	54	107	77	79

Prices of Building Materials in Naples, Italy, August, 1920, and April, 1921.

CCORDING to a report from the American consul at Naples, Italy, under date of May 12, 1921, there was a marked increase in prices of building materials between August, 1920, and April, 1921.

The report gives the average prices of lumber on the two dates, the conversions into United States money having been made on the basis of 20 lire to the dollar, the average exchange rate prevailing during the period.

AVERAGE PRICES OF LUMBER IN NAPLES, ITALY.

Waterland	Price per 1,000 board feet.			
Material.	August, 1920.	April, 1921.		
Calabrian fir lumber. American pine timbers American pine lumber. Poplar logs Poplar lumber Beech lumber Oak lumber Local pine.	\$40.62 118.75 143.75 21.87 34.37 40.62 56.25 50.00	\$45, 00 103, 13 131, 25 26, 87 51, 87 43, 12 59, 37 81, 25		

The report states that cement shows a decrease of 12.2 per cent between August, 1920, and April, 1921, while building stone (pietra tufo), which enters into building construction more than any other one material, shows an increase of 9.8 per cent.

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices in Tokyo, Japan, April, 1920, and March and April, 1921.

THE United States Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, in Commerce Reports of July 6, 1921, quotes index numbers of wholesale prices in Tokyo, as computed by the Bank of Japan and published in an issue of the Yokohama Chamber of Commerce Journal. The figures are based upon the average monthly wholesale prices of 56 representative commodities, the average price of which for October, 1900, was taken to represent 100.

The index number for all commodities combined is 251 for the month of April, 1921, as compared with 253 for the previous month and with 197 for April, 1920. Of the 56 commodities, 21 show an advance in price from March to April, 1921, 24 show a decrease, and in the case of 11 there was no change in price.

The index numbers for some of the important articles are shown in the following table:

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN TOKYO, APRIL, 1920, AND MARCH AND APRIL, 1921.

[Prices in October, 1900=100.]

Commodity.	April, 1920.	March, 1921.	April, 1921.
Rice	434	219	220
Wheat	326	226	260
Sugar	610	357	329
Raw silk	353	197	197
Cotton yarns	589	201	222
Iron	315	181	178
Copper	152	102	104
Lumber	440	342	342
Foreign paper	625	459	441
Coal	444	347	324

# Wholesale and Retail Prices of Food in Trondhjem, Norway.

THIS bureau is in receipt of a consular report of June 30, 1921, according to which the wholesale and retail prices of food and certain other articles on June 16 and 17, 1921, were as follows:

WHOLESALE AND RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD AND OTHER ARTICLES IN TRONDHJEM, NORWAY, JUNE 16 AND 17, 1921.

[Crown at par=26.8 cents; kilogram=2.2 pounds.]

Article.		per kilo- am.			oer kilo am.
211 01010	Whole-sale.	Retail.	Article.	Whole-sale.	Retail
	Cr.	Cr.		Cr.	Cr.
Rock candy	2.10	2.60	Nutmegs	11.00	
Potato meal	.95	1.20 1.10	Mace Sirup:	13.00	
Rice:			American extra light	. 65	
Small yellow	.70		Ordinary light	. 50	
Rangoon	. 65	. 80	Handieh honor	1.20	
No. 1 polish	. 85	1.00	Semouli wheat	. 95	
Sago:		. 90	Pulverized sugar	1.95	
Red	1.53	1.80	Rio, Johnston's (type 2)	2.25	
White	1.13	1.20	Santos Superior	2.45	
Peas: Yellow No. 1	.90	1.00	Salvador	2.70	
Yellow, No. 1 Yellow, No. 2	. 90	.80	Salvador, washed	3.30	
Green, marrowfat	.75	1.00	Java Crown	3.85	
Green, prime	. 65	. 90	Java Malang	3.85	
Split	. 80	. 90	Liberia Brown	2.50	
Oried fruits: Prunes—			Liberia Yellow Java	2.95	
70-80	1.80	2,00	Meat, city killed:		
80-90	1.60	1.90	Cow meat, prime		2.
90-100	1.00	1.70	Beef, small		2.
Raisins—			Beef, large.		3.
Valencia	2.50	3.50	Pork, 60-80 kilograms		2.
Kandia Currants, California—	2.40	3.00	Cow meat, prime Cow meat, ordinary Beef, small Beef, large Pork, 60-80 kilograms Pork, large Meat, country killed: Cow meat, prime Cow meat, ordinary Beef, small Beef, large Young calf Average calf Mutton		2.0
50-60	2.25		Meat, country killed:		0 '
60-70	2.10		Cow meat, ordinary		2.
70-80	1.80		Beef, small		2.
80-90	1.70		Beef, large		2.
90–100	1.50 3.00		Young calf		2.
Pears.	2.80		Mutton.		2.
Apricots, extra	4.40	5. 20	Pork, 60-80 kilograms		2.
Apricots, choice	4.30	5.00	Pork, large		2.
Apples	2.35	2.80	Horse		1.
Pork: Minced		2 00	Potatoes		
Clear back		3.20 3.00	Eggs Wood:		3.
hocolate:		0.00	Birch		1 53.
No. 1		.95	Pine		1 43.
No. 2		.90	Fir		1 43. (
No. 3. Unsweetened, milk.		1.85	Hay		
hort clear backs.	2.85	1.05	Skins: Sheep		2 1.
ompound lard.	1.90		Calf	******	2 5. (
lmonds	3.50		Goat		2 4.
oconut	2.50		Kid		2 2.
innamon	3.25		Lamb		2.
llspiceloves	2. 25 5. 75		Hides:		
epper:	0.70		FreshSalted		
Black	2.50		Horse		<sup>2</sup> 13. (
White	3.50				20.1
linger	4.00				
Pardemon: Bleached	24.50				
Medium bleached	24.50				
Unbleached	15. 50				

<sup>1</sup> Per fvn.

<sup>2</sup> Each.

## Food Prices in Poland, 1918 and 1921.

ROM the June 29, 1921, issue of Commerce Reports, published by the United States Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, is taken the following note regarding retail prices in Poland:

A translation from Kurjer Polski of April 19, 1921, forwarded by Consul General L. J. Keena, at Warsaw, Poland, gives the following table of prices on foodstuffs (including a few household supplies) for 1921 as compared with those of 1918:

	***	Price.		A material co	Tinit	Price.	
Article.	Unit.	1918	Article. Unit.	1918	1921		
Bread. Wheat flour. Butter. Potatoes Pork Tea	Pound 200 - Ib. bag. Pound Peck Pound	Polish marks.1 3 820 12 85 8 60	Polish marks.1 55 16,000 240 1,100 120 280	Sugar Mushrooms Pepper Soap Kerosene Thread Linen	Pounddododo QuartSpool	Polish marks.1 5 14 50 10 20 25 12	Polish marks. <sup>1</sup> 186 246 186 55 36 76 206

 $<sup>^1</sup>$  The exchange value of the Polish mark on Apr. 15, 1921, was \$0.0062; but, owing to fluctuations in this value, the above prices have not been converted into United States currency.

# Index of Wholesale and Retail Prices in Sweden, 1920 and 1921.

CCORDING to the June 22, 1921, issue of the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin, a continued decline in wholesale and retail prices in Sweden is shown by a cable-gram received by the New York office of the Federal Reserve Board from the Skandinaviska Kreditsktiebolagot of Sweden. This information is presented in tabular form below:

Wholesale price index. Compiled by Svensk Handelstinding (base July, 1914=100).	Retail price index. Compiled by Labor Department (base July, 1914=100).
1920—	1920—
May 361	May 294
June 366	June
July 363	July 297
August 365	August
September	September
October	October 306
November	November 303
December	December
1921—	1921—
January 267	January 283
February 250	February
March	March
April	April
May 218	May 237

#### WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR.

## Wages of Women in Colorado.

A TYPEWRITTEN report, the result of a recent survey made by the Colorado Minimum Wage Commission and transmitted to this bureau by that commission, contains the following statistics of wages paid adult woman employees in Colorado.

#### WEEKLY WAGES OF ADULT WOMAN EMPLOYEES.

Class of work.		em-	Employees receiving, per week—				
	Number of reports.		Under \$12.		Under \$15.		
			Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	
Laundries. Mercantile. Public housekeeping Miscellaneous	31 61 87 31	796 1,739 890 897	251 317 65 127	31. 5 18. 2 7. 3 14. 2	555 964 359 267	69. 7 55. 4 40. 8 29. 8	
Total	210	4,322	760	17.6	2, 145	49. (	

# Wages and Cost of Living in Cartagena, Colombia.

THE following figures taken from a consular report dated June 18, 1921, received by this bureau, show the wages paid for various classes of work in Cartagena, Colombia.

#### WAGES PAID IN CARTAGENA, COLOMBIA, IN 1920, BY OCCUPATION.

#### [Paper dollar at par=97.3 cents.]

Occupation.	Rate of wages per 8-hour day.	Occupation.	Rate of wages per month.
Casual or common laborers.  Masons.  Longshoremen. Painters. Carpenters. Machinists. Blacksmiths, first class. Boilermakers Riveters. Seamen.	1 \$0. 80-\$1. 00 1 2. 20 1 1. 20 1 1. 20 1 1. 00 - 1. 50 1 2. 50 - 3. 50 1 2. 50 - 3. 50 1 3. 00 1 1. 50	Checkers Office clerks Clerks in stores Bookkeepers Chauffeurs Launch operators	80.00-100.00

<sup>1</sup> Double pay for overtime.

It is stated that there was no reduction in wages in 1920 but that, on the contrary, wages were in some cases higher than in 1919.

The table following shows the retail prices of food in 1920.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Day is of indefinite length.

#### RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD IN CARTAGENA, COLOMBIA, IN 1920.

[Paper dollar at par=97.3 cents.]

Commodity.	Unit.	Price.	Commodity.	Unit.	Price.
	dododododo	\$0.30 .09 \$0.2025 .1518 .2530 .06 .1620 .10	Sugar, brown. Coffee, ground. Fish, fresh-water Lard, pork. Chickens, young. Hens. Turkeys. Eggs. Butter, native. Butter, imported.	Bottle, small Each do Dozen Pound	\$0.10 \$0.1520 .1825 .3050 .80- 1.00 3.00- 5.00 .6072 1.00

#### Wages in Various Occupations in Denmark, 1920.

THE following wage rates, published by the Statistical Department of Denmark in "Statistiske Efterretninger," May 7, 1921 (pp. 54, 55), show the average wages per hour in most of the important industries of that country during the last two quarters of 1920, the rates for Copenhagen and for the rest of the country being shown separately.

AVERAGE HOURLY WAGES IN DENMARK DURING THE LAST TWO QUARTERS OF 1920.

[1 Øre at par=0.268 cent.]

*	(	Copenhager	1.	Outs	ide Copenh	agen.
Industry and occupation.	Number			Number	Average hourly wages.	
	workers Dec. 31, 1920.	October to Decem- ber, 1920.	July to Septem- ber, 1920.	workers Dec. 31, 1920.	October to Decem- ber, 1920.	July to Septem- ber, 1920.
Building industry.  Building joiners, skilled. Glaziers, skilled. Painters, skilled. Bricklayers, skilled. Bricklayers, skilled. Mill builders, skilled. Mill builders, skilled. Carpenters, skilled. Carpenters, skilled. Carpenters, unskilled. Linoleum layers. Various laborers. Insulating mechanics.	1,017 131 912 851 673 16 55 643 48 51 67 70	Øre.  284 219 274 376 284 261 278 371 239 239 239 210 340	9re. 272 206 237 350 286 269 261 350 218 223 227 283	1,372 67 491 1,337 1,037 8 6 1,367 38	Ore. 204 176 215 218 189 208 226 216 179	Øre. 179 172 197 207 181 213 231 209 180
Chemical industry. Journeymen dyers Match factories: Laborers Women	44 131 262	199 209 121	207 208 119	13	207	206
Clay, stone, and glass industry.  Reinforced concrete workers. Other laborers. Stoneoutters, skilled. Stoneoutters, unskilled. Glass grinders. 'Teirzzzo'' workers.	1,693 131 112 65 26 35	284 257 272 203 219 231	275 262 264 197 217 234	1,755 475 228 108 37	188 178 184 167 212 187	190 183 183 164 201

AVERAGE HOURLY WAGES IN DENMARK DURING THE LAST TWO QUARTERS OF  $1920-\!\!\!\!$  Continued.

		Copenhager	1.	Outs	ide Copenl	nagen.
Industry and occupation.	Number			Number	Average hourly wages.	
	workers Dec. 31, 1920.	October to Decem- ber, 1920.		workers Dec. 31, 1920.	October to Decem- ber, 1920.	July to Septem- ber, 1920.
Clothing industry. Tailors, skilled. Dressmakers. Hatters, skilled. Hatters, women. Furriers, skilled. Shoemakers, skilled. Shoe workers, men. Shoe workers, women.	344 1,166 62 258 43 108 996 813	<i>Ore.</i> 223 128 266 150 233 220 247 148	Øre. 221 131 287 161 231 225 257 153	68 256 5 22 42 136 80	Øre. 207 112 237 115 178 196 130	Øre. 200 11: 233 14:
Commerce and transportation.  Laborers.  Dock laborers.	1, 225 598	181 290	185	1, 433 587	170 258	17-
Food industries. Bakers. Millers.	942 108	220 212	221 210	542 238	193 186	18' 186
Chocelate: Skilled workers Unskilled workers Women	70 83 621	248 205 129	251 200 130	26 20 117	211 186 116	21; 18; 11;
Canning: Unskilled workers Women	13 91	182 114	180 111	9 68	169 103	15 9
Margarine:	39 2	173 110	174	472 190	173 113	17 11
Unskilled workers	276 18	194 113	193 115	864 65	183 109	18 11
Unskilled workers	53 51	187 153	192 153	298 14	187 147	186 148
Unskilled workers	481 191	207 129	219 128	3, 688 177	195 116	18-
Iron and other metal industries. Electricians Molders Gold workers Braziers Coppersmiths Painters Metal grinders Metal grinders Sniths and machinists Woodworkers Other unskilled labor	31 679 380 105 135 59 191 136 67 234 6,578 490 4,376	260 234 300 220 252 270 266 251 289 320 268 256 212	251 225 289 223 252 261 235 254 275 301 256 246 206	6 669 581 19 57 70 236 76 9 395 5,926 905 5,126	210 226 256 182 222 263 227 204 259 253 232 221 189	203 214 244 182 216 244 211 197 236 242 222 211
Leather industry.  Fannery workers, skilled.  Fannery workers, unskilled.  Fannery workers, women	166 216 18	279 223 168	286 236 168	101 286 26	243 205 122	241 209 - 130
Printing and allied industries.  Paper mills: Laborers. Women	182 34	189 125	188 131	969 319	176 117	170 120
Printing: Typesetters Lithographers	1,609 154	261 250	259 247	1,123 96	226 217	220
Chemigraphers. Unskilled workers. Women Bookbinders, skilled Bookbinders, women	98 158 395 388 540	230 202 139 258 139	226 207 140 255 139	52 132 133 54	184 120 193 106	183 121 192 112

AVERAGE HOURLY WAGES IN DENMARK DURING THE LAST TWO QUARTERS OF 1920—Concluded.

	(	Copenhager	1.	Outside Copenhagen.			
Industry and occupation.	Number of workers Dec. 31, 1920.		e hourly ges.	Number	Average hourly wages.		
		October to Decem- ber, 1920.	July to Septem- ber, 1920.	workers Dec. 31, 1920.	October to Decem- ber, 1920.	July to Septem- ber, 1920.	
Textile and allied industries.  Rope: Skilled workers. Unskilled workers. Women	8 24 90	Øre. 178 175 120	Øre. 174 189 119	30 86 64	Øre. 183 170 105	Øre. 187 169 105	
Lace: Skilled workers. Women Sailmakers, skilled	23 28 15	229 124 271	226 121 260	2 5 32	241 119 223	207	
Tobacco industry.  Cigars: Cigar makers Unskilled workers Women  Wood and furniture industries.	927 79 1,984	198 189 145	204 175 143	961 179 1,496	198 174 127	205 169 123	
Coopers, skilled Brush makers, skilled Carvers, skilled Turners, skilled Gilders, skilled Gilders, skilled Coach makers, skilled Basket makers, skilled Furniture joiners, skilled Machinery joiners, skilled Upholsterers and saddle makers.	42	249 209 230 228 256 254 222 235 227 250	241 210 237 223 237 251 215 241 225 247	304 111 26 97 35 5 10 181 1,174 139	219 172 222 202 211 189 245 200 187 199	214 186 216 200 215 182 219 194 188	

# Attitude of German Christian Trade-Unionists Toward Reduction of Wages.

SOZIALE Praxis<sup>1</sup> publishes a letter from Jos. Treffert, Berlin, secretary of the Christian Trade-Unions,<sup>2</sup> in which this trade-union leader expresses his views on the problem whether wage reductions should precede price reductions in Germany. He says:

The question whether a reduction of wages or one of prices should take place first has of late been the subject of animated discussions, for the future of German economic life depends on the solution of this problem. The Deutsche Arbeitgeber-Zeitung (German Employers' Journal) has also taken up this question in a recent issue (No. 10) and arrives at the conclusion that a gradual reduction of wages must come first if economic ruin is to be prevented. It asserts that the costs of production are in the main determined by wages and interest on capital, and that an increase of wages is always followed by an increase of prices for the simple reason that it increases the costs of production and also because increased wages increase the purchasing power of all wage earners and cause a greater demand for goods. It further asserts that demands for wage increases were chiefly responsible for the fact that the present injurious development of wages and prices is still progressing. The fact that the prices of raw materials also play a rôle in the movement of prices is dismissed by the Arbeitgeber-Zeitung with the remark that the prices of raw materials contain next to the interest on capital chiefly wages. According to the Arbeitgeber-Zeitung prices are a function of wages and therefore there were only two means for improving the present economic situation: Either a gradual reduction of wages or a temporary increase of the hours of labor (to 60 hours per week) without special compensation, i. e., 48 hours' pay for 60 hours' work.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Soziale Praxis und Archiv für Volkswohlfahrt, Vol. 30, No. 20. Berlin, May 18, 1921. Pp. 532-534. <sup>2</sup> The Christian Trade-Union League, with an approximate membership of 2,000,000, is the second largest trade-union organization in Germany. The unions affiliated with this central organization represent the most conservative element among German organized labor.

In view of the fact that similar ideas prevail in larger circles and the daily press day after day asserts that wage increases are the chief or sole cause of the present high cost of living, the writer deems it necessary to look at matters from a different point of view.

He calls attention to the fact that in his Handbook of Political Economy, Philippovich says that wages and interest on capital form only part of the costs of production. The costs of production contain also charges for depreciation of machinery and tools and costs of distribution. The so-called unearned increment (rent, interest, profits from speculation and manipulation, etc.) plays also an important rôle. The rate of exchange must likewise be considered in

the determination of prices.

The prices of certain raw materials and manufactured articles have increased by 2,000, 5,000, and even 10,000 per cent, while wages, on the average, he asserts, have risen only 800 to 1,000 per cent. To quote only a few examples: An egg has at times cost as much as 3 marks, i. e., 40 times the prewar price, butter and fat 30 times, meat and meat products 20 times, milk 15 times the prewar price. Textiles cost now 20 times, furniture, crockery, and other household goods 20 to 30 times, coffee, tea, cocoa, chocolate, beer, and cigars about 20 times the prewar price. Prices of articles required by the electrical and chemical industries have risen by 5,000 to 10,000 per cent. These facts he thinks should be compared with the fact that wages to-day are but 8 to 10 times as high as in prewar times. Even if one adds a certain percentage for the shortening of the hours of labor, wages on the average are now only 10 to 12 times higher than in 1914. Under these circumstances he questions the assertion that wages are responsible for the present high prices, and that therefore wage reductions must precede price reductions.

A further fact to be considered is that the prices of food and all other necessaries have risen first and that wages have but slowly followed the upward movement of prices. During the war the upward movement of prices began with the day of mobilization and ever since then prices have steadily risen. On the other hand, extensive wage reductions and dismissals of workers took place at the beginning of the war. In some industries high cost-of-living bonuses, much too small to compensate the workers for the increase in prices, were not granted until 1915, and in the printing and allied industries not until 1916. The term high cost-of-living bonus in itself shows that it is intended as a bonus for an increase in prices which has already taken place. And whenever a demand was made for an increase of this bonus, employers as well as the National Ministry of Labor always requested proof that prices have considerably risen since the granting of the last bonus.

wages are a function of prices, and for this reason a reduction of prices must take place first before thoughts can be entertained of reducing wages. For the great majority of the working population it has only been possible to make ends meet up till now because they have subsisted on their prewar supply of clothing, underwear, shoes, and household articles. The more these are being used up,

These well-known facts, he thinks, justify the statement that

the more new purchases become necessary, the more health has suffered through undernutrition, the greater is and will be the workers'

distress, and the more one can comprehend why demands for wage increases are still being made. Various corporations composed of experts, such as the National Economic Council, have determined that the rise in prices is generally and principally not due to the rise in wages and salaries but chiefly to the high cost of raw materials. The National Economic Council has made the following statement: "In addition to unwarrantedly high prices of raw materials, excessive profits of manufacturers and dealers as well as excessive speculative and middlemen's profits are essential causes of the present

high prices."

Immediate reductions of wages in advance of price reductions or a general lengthening of the hours of labor will not, he believes, bring about healthier conditions. Other means must be adopted, and several of them simultaneously, if the German economic system is to be rehabilitated. The present high prices of raw materials, which in part are entirely unjustified, must be reduced. The excessive manufacturers' and dealers' profits must be cut down. The many middlemen between producer and consumer increase the cost of goods considerably. Simplification of the exchange of products is needed. Production must be increased, and the workers must do their share in bringing it about. The hours of labor need not be lengthened but during working hours each worker must put his full efficiency in the service of production. In addition there must be introduced improved working and operating methods. Out-of-date, unprofitable establishments should no longer be permitted to be operated in their present form.

It is interesting in this connection, he points out, that even the Arbeitgeber-Zeitung admits "that wage increases are not the sole price-raising factor but that a number of other factors are also respon-

sible for the present upward movement of prices."

There is no single cure-all, he states, for rehabilitating the German economic system. Several means must be adopted for bringing such a rehabilitation about, and all classes of the population, the worker, the producer, the dealer and the consumer, will have to make sacrifices. The view, however, that the high wages are solely responsible for the present economic condition he opposes, for agriculture, industry, and commerce, and the chaotic internal and foreign political situation have exercised and still exercise a decisive influence.

## Wage Policy of the Christian Trade-Unions.

AT THEIR tenth congress, which was in session at Essen during the second half of November, 1920, the Christian Trade-Unions adopted the following resolution defining their wage policy:

In determining wage rates the interests of the whole nation should be taken into consideration. Greatest stress should be laid upon sufficient production by the workers. To achieve this end piecework rates regulated by collective bargaining will have to be resorted to in many instances. Piecework must, however, be so regulated that it does not lead to injurious overwork and does not cause an increase of industrial accidents. In view of the fact that wages represent not only a part of the costs of production but also the income of the worker on which the latter and his family must live, wages sufficiently high to make possible the existence of a whole family should be paid. To this end the conjugal condition and number of children of the worker should be considered by the granting of sufficient bonuses out of the adjustment fund (Ausgleichskasse) to be created for this purpose. Such measures

should, however, not lead to wage rates being based on the minimum of existence. Single workers must be paid wages sufficiently high to enable them to found a household of their own.

In the "Zentralblatt der Christlichen Gewerkschaften Deutschlands," Ludwig Wimmer supplements this resolution by the following remarks:

The capitalistic conception which valuates the worker merely as a part of the costs of production can no more be accepted by us than the current socialistic conception that each worker is entitled to the full value of his labor. As labor, in addition to nature, is the creator of all values, labor must produce the means of existence for all people, i. e., also for those who for various reasons are not able to exercise a gainful occupation. The solidarity so much vaunted by the trade-unions must therefore begin with the distribution of the product of labor. In the collective agreements hitherto concluded the trade-unions have followed the principles of the liberal-capitalistic economic system and have tacitly accepted a wage system in which the actual performance of labor is the sole measure for determining the compensation as the only suitable wage system. The wage no longer adjusted itself to the worker but the worker had to adjust his personal and family conditions to the wage.

New ways must be found to come as near as possible to the ideal of a fair wage, i. e.,

the assuring of an existence to the workman's family. It seems precluded to assure to all a wage representing the minimum of existence of a normal family, i. e., to all without consideration of age, conjugal condition, and size of family. It would not even be suitable to grant to all such an income. Birth control, formerly practiced only by the rich and educated classes, is now spreading among other classes of the population. Such limitation of births has become now a necessity owing to the

economic impossibility of raising a large family.

Is it possible, in view of the present economic depression in Germany, to allow to all workers annual earnings of 24,000 marks, which sum represents the minimum of existence of a family not unnaturally limited in size? This question must be answered flatly in the negative. Two proposals have been made to assure to workers a fair wage, making it possible to support a family: Mothers' pensions and family bonuses. Mothers' pensions are not practical for several reasons. Among other things, they could not be adjusted to the fluctuations in the value of German currency. Family bonuses are to be preferred because the workers are, through their organizations, in a position to regulate in accordance with the cost of living the basis upon which family or children bonuses are to be granted.

# Wages in Building Trades of Naples, Italy.

HE American consul at Naples, Italy, in a recent report states that there has been a marked increase in wages in the building trades during the last eight months.

The table following shows the hourly wage for various building trade occupation in August, 1920, and April, 1921, the hours worked

being eight per day.

HOURLY RATE OF WAGES.

[1 lira at par=19.3 cents.]

Occupation.	August, 1920.	April, 1921.	Occupation.	August, 1920.	April, 1921.
Bricklayers: First class	Lire. 13, 00	Lire. 17, 00	Marble cutters: First class	Lire. 20.00	Lire. 30.00
Second class	10.00	15.00	Second class	16.00	25.00
Concrete workers Carpenters:	13.00	17, 00	Laborers: First class	8.50	12, 00
First class	14.00	22.00	Second class		7.00
Second class	12, 00	16, 00	Teamsters with 3 horses	78.00	110.00
First class	16.00	18.00			
Second class	12.00	16.00			

Wages and Hours of Labor of Farm Workers in Scotland, 1919-20.

CCORDING to a report to the Board of Agriculture for Scotland on the results of an inquiry into the wages and conditions of labor on farms in Scotland 1 the average total weekly earnings in 1919–20 of farm workers between 21 and 60 years of age ranged from 46s. 2d. (\$11.23, par) for orramen (odd men) to 49s. 2d. (\$11.96, par) for plowmen. These men form the greater part of the workers, and in each class their wages were higher than those of the old men over 60 and the youths under 21 years. Their earnings include the value of allowances made in addition to cash wages. Classified according to age, the average total weekly earnings of farm workers were as follows:

AVERAGE TOTAL WEEKLY EARNINGS OF MALE FARM WORKERS IN SCOTLAND, 1919-20, BY AGE GROUPS.

[1 shilling at par=24.3 cents; 1 penny at par=2.03 cents.]

	Average total weekly earnings of workers-						
Class of worker.	Under 21 years.	Between 21 and 60 years.	Over 60 years.				
Plowmen Cattlemen Shepherds Orramen <sup>1</sup>	s. d. 43 2 37 1 40 1 37 7	s. d. 49 2 48 4 47 5 46 2	8. d. 45 7 47 0 42 6 42 7				

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Farm workers other than plowmen, cattlemen, and shepherds.

Foremen received average total weekly earnings of 54s. 4d.

(\$13.22, par).

The plowmen form the most important class of farm workers in Scotland, and their average weekly earnings of 49s. 2d. (\$11.96, par) for 1919–20 show an increase of 150 per cent over their earnings of 19s. 8d. (\$4.79, par) in 1907, and 129 per cent over their estimated earnings of 21s. 6d. (\$5.23, par) in 1914. As, according to the estimates made in the British Labor Gazette, the increase in the cost of living of a working-class family in the United Kingdom since July, 1914, rose from 125 per cent on December 1, 1919, to 132 per cent on April 1, 1920, 141 per cent on May 1, 1920, and 150 per cent on June 1, 1920, it appears that the rise in wages of plowmen corresponded closely to the increase in the cost of living, except in the last two months of the winter half year.

The earnings of married plowmen during the summer of 1920 were estimated on the basis of the previous year's ascertained averages, joint agreements entered into, and reports regarding various hiring fairs, where new labor is engaged, giving as a result average total earnings of 55s. (\$13.38, par) a week or nearly £143 (\$695.91, par) a year. This is an increase of 150 per cent over the estimated average weekly earnings of 22s. (\$5.35, par) for 1914. As the increase in the cost of living over 1914, according to the Labor Gazette, was 150 per cent June 1, 1920, 155 per cent on August 1, 1920, and 161 per cent on

 $<sup>^1</sup>$  Report to the Board of Agriculture for Scotland on Farm Workers in Scotland in 1919–20, by Sir James Wilson, K. C. S. I. Edinburgh, 1921. 78 pp.

September 1, 1920, it would appear that the average married plowman's earnings in the summer of 1920 increased in an amount corre-

sponding approximately to the increased cost of living.

There is a sharp distinction between married and single men drawn throughout Scotland in regard to farm workers. The married man generally receives higher cash wages and large allowances and is provided with a house, while the unmarried man either lives with his relatives, is provided with bare sleeping accommodations and food from the farm kitchen, or receives considerably smaller allowances than the married man. The allowances of a married man consist generally of oatmeal, milk, and potatoes; in some counties coal or firewood is provided, and in some instances allowances in kind, such as a pig, poultry, a fat sheep, straw, manure for the garden, etc., are made. In some counties an additional harvest fee in cash is paid, and free cartage for coal and firewood and for moving is universally allowed. The average cash wages and value of allowances for the principal classes of farm workers, given separately for married and single men, in the winter of 1919–20 were as follows:

AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS OF MARRIED AND SINGLE MALE FARM WORKERS, 21 TO 60 YEARS OF AGE, IN SCOTLAND, 1919-20.

[1 shilling at par = 24.3 cents; 1 penny at par = 2.03 cents.]

		Married men.					Single men.					
Class of worker.	ca wa	rage sh ges veek.			Ave earn per v	ings	ca wa	rage sh ges veck.	valu	ances	Ave earn per v	
Plowmen Cattlemen Shepherds Orramen <sup>1</sup>	8. 39 36 33 39	d. 8 5 7 11	8. 10 13 14 7	d. 7 4 9 8	8. 50 49 48 47	d. 3 9 4 7	8. 35 29 28 34	d. 1 11 11 2	s. 11 13 13 9	d. 2 8 8 5	8. 46 43 42 43	d. 3 7 7

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Farm workers other than plowmen, cattlemen, and shepherds.

It is seen from this table that the average total weekly earnings of married men between 21 and 60 years of age ranged from 47s. 7d. (\$11.58, par) for orramen to 50s. 3d. (\$12.23, par) for plowmen, and those of single men of the same ages ranged from 42s. 7d. (\$10.36, par)

for shepherds to 46s. 3d. (\$11.25, par) for plowmen.

In certain sections of Scotland it is common for women to be employed as outworkers, taking their share in all the work of the farm except plowing; in other sections they work in the dairy and do household work, and on small farms often help in the fields during haymaking and harvesting. During the war the number of woman workers increased considerably, but the increase was only temporary, The average total earnings per week of a woman worker in 1919–20 were, on the whole, about double what they were in 1914, and for those between 21 and 60 years of age were 26s. 2d. (\$6.37, par), not much more than half what the plowman between those ages receives—49s. 2d. (\$11.96, par).

While most of the farm workers are part of the permanent staff, being engaged for the year or half year, temporary hands are customarily employed at hay time and harvest and during potato planting. During the harvest of 1919 men employed by the week were usually paid from 30s to 40s. (\$7.30 to \$9.73, par) with board and lodging, or

from £2 10s. to £3 (\$12.17 to \$14.60, par) without board. The most common rate for day labor during harvest was 10s. (\$2.43, par) per day of 10 hours for men and 5s and 6s. (\$1.22 and \$1.46 par) for women.

Before the war the recognized summer working-day on farms was one of 10 hours, although in some sections a shorter workday had been adopted. In harvest time almost everywhere the workday was 10 hours or longer when the weather permitted. During the four winter months 8 hours' work was the general rule. As a result of endeavors of the Scottish Farm Servants' Union to reduce the working hours on farms, in a great part of the country many farms have adopted the 9-hour day in summer and the Saturday half holiday. During harvest, however, when the weather permits, the farm day is still 10 hours (including Saturdays) almost everywhere, and the winter hours are the same as before the war, except for the Saturday half holiday. The plowman's working week now averages about 50 hours' work, besides about 7 hours' stable work, an average reduction of about 5 hours a week as compared with prewar working hours. The working hours of the cattleman depend on the varying needs of the cattle which it is his duty to tend and feed, while it is not possible to fix working hours for shepherds, because of the nature of their work, the life of a shepherd being generally an isolated one. Orramen and permanent woman workers generally have the same working hours as plowmen, except that they have no stable work.

# Wages in Swedish Textile Mills, 1921.

CCORDING to a report from the American consul at Goteborg, Sweden, under date of May 1, 1921, relative to the conditions prevailing in Swedish textile mills on February 15, 1921, of the 151 cotton and woolen mills from which reports were received only 26 with 2,870 employees were in operation six days per week. Five mills were shut down; 1 mill with 84 employees was working but one day per week; 37 mills with 6,220 employees were in operation three days per week; 68, representing 9,556 workers, were working only four days; and 14 with 1,763 employees were operating five days per week. On the average, the working time amounted to about 33.9 hours per week.

The hourly wages paid Swedish textile workers, effective until June 30, 1921, are shown in the table following. From July 1 to September 30, there is to be a reduction of 5 per cent, and from October 1 to December 31, 1921, a further reduction of 5 per cent.

HOURLY WAGES OF SWEDISH TEXTILE WORKERS, EFFECTIVE TO JUNE 30, 1921.

[1 krona at par=26.8 cents.]

Male workers.	Hourly wage.	Female workers.	Hourly wage
Age 14	Kroner. 0, 42 63 . 80 . 94 1, 07 1, 19	Age 14	Kroner. 0.40 .60 .77 .77

# Wages in Certain Occupations in South Africa, December, 1920.

THE April, 1921, number of the Quarterly Abstract of Union Statistics of the Union of South Africa contains a tabular statement of standard or average wages paid to European adult males in certain occupations in the more important towns of that country in December, 1920. The table is here reproduced.

STANDARD OR AVERAGE WAGES PAID EUROPEAN ADULT MALES IN SPECIFIED OCCUPATIONS, DECEMBER, 1920.

[1 shilling at par=24.3 cents; 1 penny=2.03 cents.]

Occupation.	Cape Town.	Port Eliz- abeth.	Lon-	Kim- ber- ley.	Piet- ermar itz- burg.	Dur- ban.	Pre- toria.	Jo- han- nes- burg.	Bloem- fon- tein.
				R	ate per	day.	,		
Engineering and metal working.									-
Blacksmiths, boilermakers, brass finishers, coppersmiths, fitters, molders, pattern makers, and turners	s. d. 27 4	s. d. 28 0	s. d. 28 0	s. d. 30 0	s. d. 30 0	s. d. 27 6	8. d. 29 4	8. d. 28 0	s. d. 26 0
				Ra	te per l	nour.			
Building.					1				
Bricklayers, carpenters, and masons Painters, glaziers, paper hangers, and sign	3 71/2	3 6	3 3	3 9	3 6	3 101	4 0	4 0	4 0
ranters, glaziers, paper langers, and sign writers. Plasterers. Plumbers.	$\begin{array}{c} 2 \ 3 \\ 3 \ 7\frac{1}{2} \\ 3 \ 5\frac{1}{4} \end{array}$	3 0 3 6 3 6	2 9 3 3 2 9	$\begin{array}{c} 3 & 1\frac{1}{2} \\ 3 & 9 \\ 3 & 9 \end{array}$	3 0 3 6 3 6	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	4 0 4 0 4 0	4 0 4 0 4 0	3 6 4 0 4 0
		-		Rat	e per v	veek.			
Printing, bookbinding, etc.									
Bookbinders, rulers, lithographers, and compositors	168 0	152 9 168 0 184 6 152 9	152 9 168 0 184 6 152 9	164 6 181 0 199 0 164 6	152 9 168 0 184 6 152 9	181 0	206 9 227 6	188 0 206 9 227 6 188 0	176 3 193 9 213 3 176 3

## MINIMUM WAGE.

## Revision of Wisconsin General Order.

THE Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, which is charged with the administration of the minimum wage law of the State, has pursued a policy of establishing a general order covering all industries. The order in force since August 1, 1919, was believed to be inadequate to supply the needs of women and minors, and a petition filed November 18, 1920, by the State Federation of Labor, the Milwaukee Council of Social Agencies, and the Wisconsin Consumers' League asked for a revision of the rates and also the issue of orders limiting the hours of labor to not more than 8 per day and 44 per week. Hearings were held in various parts of the State during the first six months of the year, and at the conclusion the commission

decided on a revision of rates.

The order of 1919 was the first issued under the law, though it had been on the statute books since 1913, the delay being due to contests as to constitutionality. The order was of uniform application throughout the State, but the current revision makes a distinction between cities having a population of 5,000 or more and those of smaller population. Instead of a uniform rate for experienced females or minors over 17 years of age of 22 cents per hour, such persons employed in cities of 5,000 or more inhabitants are to receive not less than 25 cents per hour, the 22-cent rate being retained for the smaller localities. This increase was based on the finding that "in the two years which have intervened room rents have materially increased in practically all of the larger cities, with little or no tend-ency to come down. Board and restaurant prices have also increased, with only comparatively slight reductions in the last month." The earlier rate was based on a budget of \$4.50 per week for board and \$2 for room rent, while the present rate, assuming a 50-hour week, would allow \$5.25 for board, \$2.50 for lodging, the same amount as before (\$2.50) for clothing, and \$2.25 for incidentals, an increase of 25 cents. The higher rate is to prevail not only in the cities proper, but in communities and isolated establishments lying within the industrial area of the cities, although outside their territorial limits. These rates were said to be a compromise, but since they were agreed upon by representatives of employers, employees, and the public by unanimous action, the commission felt justified in adopting them, although "lower than the rate prescribed in most other States which have minimum wage laws."

The board was unable to make any recommendations as to hours, the evidence before the commission being "very scant." Such testimony as was submitted was said to be "merely general impressions and not accurate investigations as to the effect of longer hours of labor on the life, health, safety, and welfare of women employees." No change, therefore, could be recommended, but the commission

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declared that as the law prescribed the duty, "the commission must and will discharge the same by making investigations in various industries in which the present regulations may be unsatisfactory or

injurious to the health of women employees."

Another matter that the commission considered, though not presented to it by the wage board, was as to length of learning period and rates payable to learners. The rate of 18 cents fixed by the order of 1919 was so high that employers hesitated to take on beginners. A wider difference was therefore approved, and for learners 17 years of age or over 16 cents may be paid for the first three months, though the 20-cent rate for the second three months remains unchanged. Minors between 14 and 16 years must be paid not less than 16 cents during the first year of their employment and 20 cents per hour thereafter, while those between 16 and 17 must be paid 20 cents if they have had six months' experience; otherwise not less than 16 cents per hour. Those producing output equal to employees in a higher wage class must be paid not less than the minimum of that class.

Employers using piece rates were formerly required to guarantee the minimum for all employees. This permitted abuse by lazy or incompetent workers, and the present order declares the rate adequate if 75 per cent of the experienced employees earn 3 cents per hour more than the minimum fixed, so that the employer need make

up no deficits where such a condition prevails.

The allowance for board and lodging, where the same is computed as part of the wages, was advanced from \$4.50 per week for board to \$5.25 and from \$2 for lodging to \$2.50 in cities of 5,000 or more, the earlier rates remaining unchanged in smaller places.

The order became effective August 1, 1921.

## RECENT LABOR AGREEMENTS AND DECISIONS.

#### Railroads.

NUMBER of interpretations and decisions recently have been handed down by the Railroad Labor Board. Addenda to and interpretations of Decision No. 119 have been made necessary by circumstances arising in the railroad industry. Decision No. 119, it will be remembered, terminated the national agreements governing rules and working conditions in force under authority of the United States Railroad Administration and called upon officers and system organizations of employees of each carrier to designate and authorize representatives to confer and decide as much of the dispute relating to rules and working conditions as possible before July 1, when undecided questions would be determined by the board.

In an interpretation (No. 2) made public on June 16 the board decided that Decision No. 119 did not affect existing schedules or agreements of the train, engine, or yard employees, since these agreements were not included in the dispute before the board when Decision No. 119 was made. "Changes in such schedules or agreements, however, may be made after the required notice either by agreement of the parties or by decision of this board after conference between the parties and proper reference in accordance with the provisions of

the transportation act and the rules of the board."

Interpretation No. 4 to Decision No. 119, issued on June 25, excludes, on the same grounds, the railroad telegraphers from the

jurisdiction of this decision.

The following interpretation (No. 5) made public on June 28 concerns the inclusion of employees in general offices in the agreements made between the carriers and the Brotherhood of Railway and Steamship Clerks, Freight Handlers, Express, and Station Employees.

Decision.—The employees in general offices now covered by existing agreements of the Brotherhood of Railway and Steamship Clerks, Freight Handlers, Express, and Station Employees do not constitute, within the meaning of principle 15 of Decision No. 119, a craft or class separate and different from other employees in clerical and station service. They should, therefore, be included within the agreement to be made between the carrier and the organization representing the majority of the employees in clerical and station service. This decision will not operate to prevent the exclusion of the personal office force and confidential positions in the general offices from the application of the agreement.

On June 27 Addendum No. 2 to Decision No. 119 was promulgated, providing as follows:

Reports of the results of conferences held in accordance with the direction contained in Decision No. 119 have been and are now being received in considerable number. In some instances the carriers and the employees have reached an agreement upon all rules. In a considerable number of instances there remain certain rules upon which no agreement has been reached, while in others conferences have not as yet been begun. Under these circumstances, in order that no misunderstanding may exist or unnecessary controversy arise, it appears necessary, purely as a modus vivendi, that the Labor Board establish a uniform policy to be pursued with regard to the undecided rules until such time as it is possible to make a decision.

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In the available reports from the conferences held in accordance with the direction ontained in Decision No. 119, it is found that the principal rules still the subject of dispute are those governing the payment of overtime. The Labor Board directs as follows, effective July 1, 1921, with the understanding that if the rules promulgated by the Labor Board to be effective July 1 are more favorable to the employees, adjustment in compensation due the employees will be made by the carrier:

1. All overtime in excess of the established hours of service shall be paid for at the pro rata rate; provided, that this will not affect classes of employees of any carrier which have reached an agreement as to overtime rates, nor classes of employees of any carrier who by agreement or practice were receiving a rate higher than pro rata prior to the promulgation of any general order of the United States Railroad Administration relating to wages and working conditions. Inasmuch as this board has not as yet given consideration to any dispute on overtime rates, this order should not be construed to indicate the final action and decision of the Labor Board on disputes as to overtime rates which have been or may be referred to the board.

2. In lieu of any other rules not agreed to in the conferences held under Decision No. 119, the rules established by or under the authority of the United States Railroad Administration are continued in effect until such time as such rules are considered

and decided by the Labor Board.

3. This direction shall not be understood to modify Decision No. 119 in any respect

other than is specifically provided for herein.

4. Rules agreed upon by carriers and employees to be effective as of July 1, 1921.

In carrying out the provision of Decision No. 119 with respect to the holding of conferences and the negotiating of agreements, the question arose as to whether such negotiations should be carried on with each of the six shop crafts or with the federated shop crafts, and whether the federated crafts have a right to insist upon one agreement to cover employees whom they represent. On this point Decision No. 153, issued June 7, provides as follows:

Decision.—The Labor Board decides that the work of the six shop crafts and the conditions under which it is performed are so similar in their main characteristics as to make it practicable and economical to treat said crafts as constituting such an organization or class of employees as is contemplated in the Transportation Act, 1920, and in Decision No. 119 of the Labor Board, for the purpose in question, and that said six shop crafts may negotiate and enter into said agreement jointly through the federated shop crafts, if they so elect, provided said System Federation represents a majority of each craft or class.

Several later disputes between various carriers and their employees on this point have been decided by the board in which this position is substantiated.

## Chicago Cloth Hat and Cap Industry.

OLLOWING is the decision, effective June 27, of the board of arbitration in the Chicago cloth hat and cap industry, upon the request of the Chicago Cloth Headwear Manufacturers' Association for a wage reduction of 25 per cent in all departments.

This decision modified the ruling of the board of February 21, when temporary reductions of 15 per cent were directed, and operated for about five weeks only, or until August 1, when the present agreement expired. Negotiations for the renewal of the agreement are now under wav.

The board accordingly directs that a reduction of 10 per cent be made in wages of Chicago cap makers, to be applied as follows:

1. Operators.—A reduction of 10 per cent is made in the wages of operators earning \$35.01 and up. Operators earning \$35 and less are not to be reduced. No reduction is to carry the wage below \$35.

2. Cutters and blockers.—A reduction of 10 per cent is to be made up of the wages of cutters and blockers who receive \$40.01 and up. Cutters and blockers earning \$40 or less are not to be reduced. No reduction is to carry the wage below \$40.

3. Lining makers and trimmers.—In general a reduction of 10 per cent is to be made

but no wage of these two branches is to be reduced below \$23.

The temporary reduction of 15 per cent for cutters, blockers, lining makers, and trimmers is hereby modified so that the 10 per cent reduction when it becomes effective shall be made on the basis of the wage these workers were receiving last February The present 15 per cent reduction is to stand until the 10 per cent reduction goes into effect. The board will not undertake to set standards and no back pay will be granted for the period since February 21. The temporary reduction will be treated as it was in New York. The decision of the board in Chicago, February 21, was controlled in general by the action in the New York market. \* \* \*

6. Certain firms failed to observe the rulings of the board of arbitration in the decision of February 21 when temporary reductions were directed to be made for cutters, blockers, lining makers, and trimmers, until standards could be set. That decision required a 15 per cent reduction in those branches and further required that tickets be issued so that records of the work could be kept in order to furnish a basis for fixing standards. A subsequent decision, April 20, reinforced the direction to keep tickets.

An investigation shows that some firms made no reductions, others made individual

bargains with the workers, and others provided no tickets. Some firms fall in all three classes. This irresponsible action, participated in both by employers and workers, has contributed in very great measure to the critical condition of the Chicago market. Both employers and workers have suffered from this disloyalty to the

In order to express disapproval of these practices the board has decided to lay a penalty upon those firms that failed to observe the agreement and the rulings of the board. Fines will be assessed against each employer thus delinquent. These fines are to be paid in to the board of arbitration before the day when this ruling takes effect. Unless the fine is paid prior to that date the employer shall not reduce wages. A supplementary note is attached to this ruling, giving the names of the firms and companies against whom the fine is assessed, together with the amount of the fine. The money thus paid in will be under the supervision and control of the adjustment board and the board of arbitration to be used for the relief of invalid or unemployed workers, or for any other purpose that may seem good to the boards.

7. These rulings are to go into effect beginning June 27. Reductions may begin that day if it is the first day of the pay-roll week, or any date thereafter which marks the beginning of a pay-roll week.

# Silk Ribbon Industry, New York City.

IN A decision effective June 1, 1921, the Association of Ribbon Manufacturers of Greater New York were refused their request for a general reduction in wages of their employees. The decision, which affects about 500 workers, was handed down by Charles B. Barnes, chairman of the trade council of the silk ribbon industry of

Two readjustments are made, however, to cut labor costs in the manufacturing of cheaper grades of ribbon, and thus enable firms under this agreement to compete in markets where wages in the manufacture of this class of goods are lower. These readjustments will increase the maximum "ligneage" allowed for two looms operated by one worker, and will cut minimum wages 12½ per cent on high-speed looms making the lighter draft ribbons. A minimum of 87½ cents an hour is established for a weaver operating two looms.

# Shirt Industry, New York City.

SHIRT operators and pressers in the New York branch of the industry, members of the Shirt and Boys' Waist Workers' Union, whose wages were reduced by 15 to 25 per cent in February by verbal agreement with the United Shirt Manufacturers' Association (Inc.), have been granted an increase from present scales which will modify the previous reductions to a flat 15 per cent. The decision, which became effective June 6, was made by Dr. W. M. Leiserson, special arbitrator for the case, and puts the reduction of wages in this industry on the same basis as that recently set for the men's clothing industry.

# Chicago Printing Trades.

BOUT 12,000 members of the job printing trades in Chicago were affected by the agreement signed on May 5 by 12 of the leading job printing firms of Chicago, members of the Franklin Typothetæ, and the representatives of Typographical Union No. 16, Printing Pressmen's Union No. 3, Franklin Union No. 4, and Bookbinders and Paper Cutters Union No. 8. This agreement provides for the 44-hour week and a reduction of \$4.35 per week for each of the four major crafts. Compositors will receive \$46.65 a week, pressmen \$47.65, feeders \$39.65, and bookbinders \$42.15. The arbitration board which handled this case consisted of nine members, four chosen by each of the parties in dispute and the ninth selected by the eight thus chosen. Prof. Ralph Emerson Heilman, dean of the school of commerce of Northwestern University, acted as impartial arbiter.

# New Classification of Steam Railroad Occupations.

PRIOR to July 1, 1915, the service and compensation of railroad employees were reported annually by the carriers to the Interstate Commerce Commission under 18 occupational groupings. On July 1, 1915, a revised classification, providing for the separation of railroad occupations into 68 groups, was issued by the Interstate Commerce Commission, and this grouping was used by the carriers in their reports up to June 30, 1921. These groupings proved inade-

quate, however.

Under new forms and new rules worked out by the United States Railroad Labor Board and the Interstate Commerce Commission, and effective July 1, 1921, the railroads will be required to render to the Interstate Commerce Commission and to the United States Railroad Labor Board monthly reports of information on railroad employees. On the two new forms provided for such reports the occupations of all railroad workers are classified under 148 occupational headings. The first form, known as Form A, which applies to all employees except those in train and engine service, includes 130 of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> United States Railroad Labor Board. Rules for reporting information on railroad employees, together with a classification and index of steam railroad occupations. May, 1921, 320 pp.

the occupational groups and calls for the following information for each group:

Number of employees middle of month.

Number of full-time positions.

Service hours (or days)

Straight time actually worked. Overtime paid for at pro rata rates. Overtime paid for at punitive rates. Time paid for but not worked. Total time paid for.

Compensation:

Straight time paid for.
Overtime paid for at pro rata rates. Overtime paid for at punitive rates. Time paid for but not worked.

On Form B, designed to cover train and engine service, which includes the remaining 18 occupational groups, the following information is called for:

Number of employees:

Middle of month.

On dates of month-

15th.

22d. 28th.

Service hours:

Straight time actually worked.

Straight time paid for.

Overtime paid for.

Constructive allowances.

Total

Compensation:

Straight time actually worked.

Straight time paid for.

Overtime paid for.

Constructive allowances. Total (see instructions).

Grand total:

Miles:

Actually run.

Paid for but not run.

Total number of trips for which not less than a minimum day was paid.

Compared with previous report forms, the number of occupational groups has been largely increased and more information is being

asked for as to each group.

Accompanying the rules and forms for reporting described above. there is a detailed occupational classification of all railroad positions included within the groups, with descriptions of the duties generally performed. There is an alphabetical list of occupations and an index to the classification.

All railroad positions are separated into 17 main divisions, which, for convenience, are called "services." Those are the broadest divisions of positions and are determined irrespective of departmental lines. Such a grouping of services admits of a

bird's-eye view being made of the entire range of railroad positions.

The services are subdivided into 119 groups of related positions covering work which is generally performed in the same profession, vocation, or trade, or in a par-

ticular kind of railroad work.

Wherever there are wide and clearly discernible differences in the importance, difficulty, and responsibility of the work performed, the groups are further subdivided into grades which consist of one or more distinctive classes of positions. These classes are the smallest units provided for in the classification and are made up of positions carrying essentially similar duties and responsibilities. Each class is given a distinct title and described so far as is necessary to indicate the kinds of positions which fall under each distinctive class.

Under each of the respective services, groups, and grades there is set out in the occupational classification general descriptive statements of duties and responsibilities of the services and groups, and of the distinctive classes of positions. These descriptions are designed to distinguish particular kinds of work so as to provide for

essentially homogeneous classes of occupations.

#### Concerning the classification, the text states:

The occupational classification is in no way and under no circumstances to be interpreted by the board, by the Interstate Commerce Commission, by the railroads or by other interested parties, as setting up jurisdictional lines for occupations, or as limiting the kinds of work which employees may perform, or the duties which they may assume. In preparing the occupational classification, the board has not aimed to standardize for the railroads the occupational duties assigned to, or the kinds of work performed by, their employees, and nothing in the classification nor in the report

forms is to be construed in this light.

The occupational classification with the alphabetical finding list should be used as a basis in distributing occupations in the reports which are to be made to the Interstate Commerce Commission and to the United States Railroad Labor Board. This does not mean that the railroads are required in making up the regular reports to the Interstate Commerce Commission and to the United States Railroad Labor Board to observe all of the separate class distinctions provided for in the classification, but they are required to follow the definitions and make the distinctions which apply to the divisions of occupations upon which they report. It is hoped, however, that the classifications in its detailed form will prove of such value to the railroads in viewing their employment problems as a whole that they will, of their own free will, install it as a basis for employment administration, and reap the advantages which will accrue therefrom.

#### WAGE ADJUSTMENTS BASED ON CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING.

The Department of Labor, through the Bureau of Labor Statistics, is desirous of making a study of the methods of adjusting wage scales, and concluding collective wage agreements where cost of living figures enter into the wage adjustment. To that end, the Bureau of Labor Statistics wishes to communicate with the various companies, members of arbitration boards, labor managers, or others who are using cost-of-living figures in the determination of wage awards.

If any person (or agency) who receives this publication is using cost-of-living figures in the adjustment of wages it will be appreciated if he will advise the Commissioner of Labor

Statistics, Washington, D. C., of that fact.

## EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT.

# Employment in Selected Industries in June, 1921.

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics received and tabulated reports concerning the volume of employment in June, 1921, from representative establishments in 13 selected manufacturing

industries and in bituminous coal mining.

Comparing the figures of June, 1921, with those of identical establishments for June, 1920, it appears that there were decreases in the number of persons employed in all industries except woolen, which shows an increase of 3.9 per cent. The most important decreases are 41.6 per cent in car building and repairing, 39.6 per cent in iron and steel, and 37.5 per cent in automobiles.

When compared with June, 1920, the amount of the pay rolls in June, 1921, show decreases in 13 of the 14 industries. The one increase reported—8.3 per cent—appears in the woolen industry. The largest decreases appearing during this period are 65 per cent in iron and steel, 47.7 per cent in paper, 40.6 per cent in leather, and 39.7 per cent in automobiles.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN JUNE, 1920, AND JUNE, 1921.

	Estab-		Num	ber on pa	ay roll.	Amou	int of pay r	oll.
ing for June, both years.	Period of pay roll.	June, 1920.	June, 1921.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	June, 1920.	June, 1921.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	
Iron and steel	117 47 56 60 17 61 52 47 42 31 82 31 51 54 94	1 week. 1 week. 2 month. 1 week. 2 modo do do.	154,082 64,965 59,535 12,728 30,978 48,933	111, 540 96, 254 37, 945 59, 283 12, 652 24, 540 50, 859 18, 965 25, 932 11, 239 60, 226 19, 796 15, 902 23, 462	-39.6 -37.5 -41.646 -20.8 +3.9 -6.5 -12.8 -28.2 -13.1 -34.64.8	\$13, 989, 510 5, 230, 496 4, 084, 912 1, 411, 138 348, 345 658, 990 1, 099, 237 975, 338 993, 799 436, 173 1, 728, 273 927, 889 359, 952 1, 861, 533	\$4, 896, 331 3, 154, 773 2, 515, 988 1, 041, 004 283, 308 406, 952 1, 190, 196 844, 175 780, 321 259, 083 1, 405, 147 485, 689 309, 609 1, 460, 027	-65.0 -39.7 -38.4 -26.2 -18.6 -38.2 + 8.3 -13.4 -21.5 -40.6 -18.7 -47.7 -41.0 -21.6

Comparative data for June, 1921, and May, 1921, appear in the following table. The figures show that in 10 industries there were increases in the number of persons on the pay roll in June as compared with May, and in 4 a decrease. The largest increases, 8.9 per cent, 7.2 per cent, and 5 per cent, are shown in men's ready-made clothing, leather, and bituminous coal, respectively. A decrease of 5.7 per cent appears in iron and steel and one of 2.4 per cent in car building and repairing.

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When comparing June, 1921, with May, 1921, 11 industries show an increase in the amount of money paid to employees and 3 show a decrease. The most important increases are 11.8 per cent in coal, 9.2 per cent in men's ready-made clothing, and 8.8 per cent in leather. Iron and steel shows a percentage decrease of 17.5 per cent.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN MAY AND JUNE, 1921.

	Estab- lish-		Num	per on pa	ay roll.	Amo	unt of pay r	oll.
Industry. Industry. ing for May and June.	Period of pay roll.	May, 1921.	June, 1921.	Percent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	May, 1921.	June, 1921.	Percent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	
Automobile manufacturing. Car building and repairing. Cotton manufacturing. Cotton finishing. Hosiery and underwear. Woolen. Silk Men's ready-made clothing. Leather manufacturing. Boots and shoes. Paper making. Cigar manufacturing. Coal mining (bituminous).	119 44 54 60 17 63 52 47 44 34 82 52 56 91	month.   week.   month.   week.   month.   week.   do.   d	93, 296 39, 276 59, 293 12, 423 25, 867 49, 939 18, 957 23, 836 10, 867 58, 092 19, 948 16, 032	111, 988 93, 407 38, 318 59, 283 12, 652 26, 572 50, 859 18, 965 25, 968 11, 651 60, 837 19, 859 16, 239 22, 467	-5.7 +.1 -2.4 (1) +1.8 +2.7 +1.8 (2) +7.2 +4.7 -0.4 +5.0	\$5, 957, 985 \$1, 126, 958 2, 545, 577 1, 030, 368 273, 334 429, 583 1, 152, 974 856, 269 715, 599 246, 557 1, 325, 939 472, 430 314, 164 1, 249, 629	442, 676 1, 190, 196 844, 175 781, 567 268, 241 1, 418, 166 486, 817	-17.5 -2.4 +1.2 +1.0 +3.7 +3.0 +3.2 -1.4 +9.2 +8.8 +7.0 +3.6 +11.8

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Decrease of less than one-tenth of 1 per cent. <sup>2</sup> Increase of less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

In addition to the data presented in the above tables as to the number of employees on the pay roll, 88 plants in the iron and steel industry reported 82,395 employees as actually working on the last full day of the pay-roll period reported for June, 1921, as against 143,615 for the reported pay-roll period in June, 1920, a decrease of 42.6 per cent. Figures given by 83 establishments in the iron and steel industry show that 75,005 employees were actually working on the last full day of the pay period reported for June, 1921, as against 79,923 for the same period in May, 1921, a decrease of 6.2 per cent.

EDITORIAL NOTE.—It has been learned recently that certain automobile establishments misunderstood the nature of the Bureau's inquiry, and in reporting the number of employees on the pay roll during the depression they furnished not simply the number working and receiving wages in the pay period reported, but had included also employees who were laid off during the entire pay period but whose names were kept on the pay roll because they were expected to resume work. It has been necessary to revise the figures since they were published in the March and April numbers of the Monthly Labor Review. The revised figures are as follows:

On page 137 of the March Review: Change number on pay roll for January, 1921, from 77,244 to 28,769; per cent of increase or decrease from -39.5 to -77.5.

On page 138 of the March Review: Change number on pay roll for January, 1921, from 76,177 to 27,702; per cent of increase or decrease from +0.1 to -63.6.

On page 83 of the April Review: Change number on pay roll for February, 1921, from 92,302 to 54,400; per cent of increase or decrease from -41.3 to -65.4.

On page 84 of the April Review: Change number on pay roll for January, 1921, from 74,879 to 26,404; for February, 1921, from 75,879 to 37,977; per cent of increase or decrease from +1.3 to +43.8.

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## Changes in Wage Rates and Per Capita Earnings.

DURING the period May 15 to June 15 there were wage changes made by some of the establishments in 11 of the 14 industries. Iron and steel.—All the men in three establishments were reduced approximately 21 per cent in wages. In 22 plants wage reductions of 20 per cent were reported, affecting the entire force in 21 plants and 94 per cent of the force in the remaining plant. Eight mills reported a general wage-rate cut of 15 per cent. In one concern the foremen were reduced 16<sup>2</sup>/<sub>3</sub> per cent in wages, while the office force was reduced 10 per cent. A decrease of 11 per cent, affecting 92 per cent of the force, was reported by one plant. In two establishments a decrease of 10 per cent was made, affecting all employees in one establishment; the number of employees affected in the second establishment was not stated. Payment of time and one-half for overtime after eight hours was discontinued by three concerns. Increased business depression is reported throughout the industry. Many mills are idle or operating part time, due to lack of orders. The per capita earnings for June are 12.5 per cent less than those for May.

Automobiles.—A wage-rate decrease of 10 per cent was reported by three plants, affecting all employees in the first plant, 65 per cent of the employees in the second plant, and 36 per cent of the employees in the third plant. One factory made a 7.2 per cent decrease to 40 per cent of the force. When comparing the per capita earnings for June with those for May, a decrease of 2.5 per cent is shown.

Car building and repairing.—More time was worked during the pay-roll period and the per capita earnings show an increase of 3.7 per cent, when May and June figures are compared.

Cotton manufacturing.—The wages of all employees in one plant were decreased 8\frac{3}{4} per cent. The per capita earnings for June show an increase of 1 per cent when compared with the per capita earnings for May.

Cotton finishing.—When comparing the per capita earnings for May

and June, an increase of 1.8 per cent is noted.

Hosiery and underwear.—An increase of 10 per cent was granted by two mills, affecting 25 per cent of the employees in the first mill and 2 per cent of the employees in the second mill. A decrease of  $22\frac{1}{2}$  per cent was reported by one concern, but the number affected was not stated. The entire force of one plant was reduced 10 per cent in wages, while about 66 per cent of the force in another plant was reduced  $9\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. Employment generally was fairly well maintained throughout the period. An increase of 0.3 per cent is found when comparing per capita earnings for May and June.

Woolen.—There were no changes in rates of wages reported for this industry. The per capita earnings show an increase of 1.3 per cent

when comparing May and June figures.

Silk.—A decrease of 10 per cent to 50 per cent of the force was reported by one mill. The per capita earnings for June are 1.5 per cent less than those for May.

Men's ready-made clothing.—Four per cent of the men in one plant were granted an increase of 10 per cent. All of the men in another

plant were decreased 15 per cent in wages. In one establishment employees earning over \$30 per week had wage reductions ranging from 5 to 10 per cent. An increase of 0.3 per cent is shown when

comparing per capita earnings for May and June.

Leather.—A decrease of 18 per cent was reported by one tannery, but the percentage of employees affected was not stated. Eighty-five per cent of the force in one establishment was reduced 10 per cent in wages. When per capita earnings for June are compared with per capita earnings for May, an increase of 1.5 per cent is reported.

Boots and shoes.—An increase of 11 per cent was granted to 3 per cent of the men in one factory. Business conditions have slightly improved, and the per capita earnings show an increase of 2.1 per

cent when May and June figures are compared.

Paper.—In one mill the shop force was reduced 20 per cent in wages. All employees in another mill had a wage-rate reduction of 19 per cent. A 10 per cent decrease was made by one establishment, affecting 83 per cent of the men. When comparing per capita earn-

ings for May and June, an increase of 3.5 per cent is shown.

Cigars.—A wage-rate decrease of about 15 per cent was made to 80 per cent of the men in one factory. A decrease of 10 per cent, affecting shop employees, was reported by one establishment, while 80 per cent of the force in another establishment was reduced 7 per cent. The per capita earnings for June are 0.7 per cent less than those for May.

Bituminous coal.—A decrease in rates of wages was reported by three mines, but no further data were furnished. The entire forces of two mines had respective wage-rate reductions of 20 per cent and 15 per cent. However, the June per capita earnings reported are

6.4 per cent higher than the per capita earnings for May.

# Employment in New York State in June.

REPORTS received by the New York State Department of Labor from 1,540 factories in the State showed no halt in June in the decline for activities in factory operation. The decline taken as a whole from May to June was 2 per cent. The total decline in the number of persons employed in 15 months amounts to 28 per cent.

There were varying degrees of change in the different industries. The heaviest reduction in the month again occurred in the metal industry. Some of the clothing industries showed considerable curtailment as a result of seasonal activities, although the settlement of the strike in men's clothing in New York City was largely responsible

for a gain in that branch of the clothing industry.

The decline in employment in chemicals and paper goods continued into June. The strike in the paper industry continued. Improvement was noted in many of the textile industries and in several of the food product industries. In the printing industry there was a minor gain in June, chiefly, the result of a resumption of work where strikes prevailed in May.

Changes in Employment in the United States, June 30, 1921.

N A press release of July 8, 1921, the United States Employment Service has published the results of its monthly industrial survey covering the month of June, 1921. The data are based on telegraphic reports from special agents in 65 principal industrial centers, the figures being taken from pay rolls of firms usually employing over 500 workers each.

The survey shows that the 1,428 firms included employed 1,573,538 workers on May 31, 1921, as compared with 1,527,124 on June 30, a net decrease of 46,414 or 2.9 per cent. The net decrease since Jan-

uary 31, 1921, has been 101,010 or 6.2 per cent.

As to the causes of the protracted industrial depression and the increasing unemployment the report states that the returns indicate that continued unsatisfactory conditions of transportation, with freight rates in many instances considered almost prohibitive; lack of anything like a normal foreign market; the present low value of farm produce; stagnation in iron and steel; high costs of construction; and general dullness of the retail trade stand out prominently as leading factors in the situation.

As to the housing conditions, the survey shows that the almost nation-wide housing shortage still persists, although there are indications here and there of resumption of building operations, though

for the most part on a restricted scale.

As to the future the survey shows that business generally is optimistic, expecting a dull summer in most lines, but counting on improvement by fall and a healthy business revival by the spring of 1922.

The tables following show the decrease or increase in employment on June 30, compared with May 31, 1921, by industry groups and by cities.

CHANGES IN EMPLOYMENT MAY 31 TO JUNE 30, 1921.

Industries reporting a DECREASE in employment in June, 1921.

Industry group.	Change in number.	Per cent of change from May 31, 1921.	Relative weight (per cent employed June 30, to total employed in 14 groups).
Miscellaneous industries Railroad repair shops Iron and steel and their products Chemicals and allied products Vehicles for land transportation Metals and metal products other than iron and steel Lumber and its manufacture Paper and printing	18,634 3,390 19,701 4,328 8,862 1,608 135	6.3 5.8 5.7 5.7 4.9 2.2 .6	18. 2 3. 5 21. 3 4. 6 11. 3 4. 7 1. 4 3. 3
Total decrease in 8 industries	56, 772		

#### Industries reporting an INCREASE in employment in June, 1921.

Tobacco manufactures. Leather and its products Liquor and beverages Stone, clay, and glass products. Textiles and their products. Foods and kindred products.	3,387 2,758 67 397 2,579 901	12. 8 5. 8 3. 9 2. 8 1. 0	1, 9 3, 2 1 9 16, 7 8, 0
Total increase in 6 industries	10,089		

# CHANGES IN EMPLOYMENT MAY 31 TO JUNE 30, 1921—Concluded. Cities reporting a DECREASE in employment in June, 1921.

City.	Change in number.	Per cent of change from May 31, 1921.	Relative weight (per cent em- ployed to total employed in 65 cities June 30).
Peoria, Ill. San Francisco, Calif. Syracuse, N. Y. Cleveland, Ohio. Grand Rapids, Mich. Louisville, Ky. Indianapolis, Ind. Bridgeport, Conn. Columbus, Ohio. Baltimore, Md. Bayonne, N. J. Newark, N. J. Newark, N. J. Newark, N. J. Newark, N. J. Pittsburgh, Pa. Chicago, Ill. St. Paul, Minn Detroit, Mich. Buffalo, N. Y. Camden, N. J. Cincinnati, Ohio. Boston, Mass. Minneapolis, Minn Johnstown, Pa. Trenton, N. J. Milwaukee, Wis. Reading, Pa. Jersey City, N. J. New Orleans, La. Waterbury, Conn. New Haven, Conn. Albany-Schemectady, N. Y. Porth Amboy, N. J. Philadelphia, Pa. Niagara Falis, N. Y. Providence, R. I. Youngstown, Ohio. St. Louis, Mo.  Total decrease in 39 cities.	2,041 396 362 367 845 346 259 141	33.9 25.0 17.4 12.6 10.7 10.2 9.6 8.6 7.7 7.3 6.1 5.2 5.2 4.8 4.5 4.3 3.5 2.9 2.4 2.1 2.0 2.0 3.1 3.1 1.2 1.1 1.9 8.8 6.5 5.4	0. II

Atlanta, Ga	1,146	16.7	0, 52
Sioux City, Iowa	334	16.0	. 15
Toledo, Ohio	1,853	15.6	. 89
Yonkers, N. Y.	1,469	12.6	. 86
Paterson, N. J.	636	8.8	.51
Los Angeles, Calif.	1,431	6.7	1.49
Produton Macc	663	6.5	
Brockton, Mass	590	6.1	.71
Omaha, Nebr			. 66
Fall River, Mass.	1,310	5.0	1.7
Kansas City, Mo	342	4.9	4.7
Kansas City, Kans	607	4.9	. 85
Fint, Mich	877	4.7	1.28
Denver, Colo	69	4.6	. 102
Manchester N. H.	768	3.6	1.4
Springfield, Mass	586	2.8	1.3
Dayton, Ohio.	254	2.7	. 62
Portland, Oreg	1,009	2.3	. 35
Passaic, N. J.	275	2.1	. 88
Diamin de ann Ala	233	1.1	
Birmingham, Ala			1,42
Lowell, Mass	108	.9	. 8
Worcester, Mass	132	.8	1.1
New Bedford, Mass. Chattanooga, Tenn	260	.8	2.09
Chattanooga, Tenn	40	.6	. 407
Seattle, Wash	5	.3	, 12
Lawrence, Mass	73	.3	1.5
Richmond, Va	26	.3	. 68
Total increase in 26 cities	15,095		
1 Otal Hitroase III 20 Cities	10,000	***************************************	

# Extent of Unemployment in Foreign Countries.

#### Germany.

IN ITS report on the state of the labor market for April, 1921, the Reichs-Arbeitsblatt<sup>1</sup> says:

Although statistics relating to certain sections of the labor market appear to point to a favorable condition, nevertheless employment, taken as a whole, tended to become worse during April.

The renewal of activity in agriculture and in the building trades, due to the good weather, did not react upon industry. More situations were filled, it is true, during the month, but this was due to the ending of the school term, which brought many thousands of juvenile workers into the labor market, rather than to an actual increase in the number of vacant situations.

The number of totally unemployed persons in receipt of unemployment allowances decreased from 415,836 on April 1 to 400,097 on May 1, or by nearly 4 per cent. In the number of men receiving such allowances there was a decrease amounting to 5.2 per cent, but in that of women an increase of 2 per cent. The number of family members of unemployed persons who received extra allowances fell from 469,426 on April 1 to 440,377 on May 1, or by 6.2 per cent. These data lead to the conclusion that married men were of late given preference in employment. Statistics compiled by the demobilization commissioners show that 14.1 persons out of every 1,000 of the population of Germany were in receipt of unemployment allowances. Unemployment was most intensive in the States of Hamburg and Saxony where 47.7 and 35.6 persons, respectively, per 1,000 of the population were in receipt of unemployment allowances. The corresponding figure for Prussia was 13.3. The total amount disbursed in April, 1921, for unemployment allowances was 119,943,816 marks.

Returns from trade-unions show increased unemployment during April. Out of a total of 5,509,761 members covered by the returns, 217,307, or 3.9 per cent, were out of work at the end of the month, as compared with 3.7 per cent at the end of March, 1921, and 0.9 per cent in April, 1920. The following table shows the degree of unemployment among members of the largest organizations:

UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG MEMBERS OF GERMAN TRADE-UNIONS.

		Perc	ent unemplo	yed.
Federation.	Membership covered.	Apr. 30, 1921.	Mar. 30, 1921.	Apr. 30, 1920.
Building trades (Social-Democratic). Painters (Social-Democratic) Metal workers (Social-Democratic) Metal workers (Christian). Metal workers (Hirsch-Duncker). Textile workers (Social-Democratic). Clothing workers. Boot and shoe makers (Social-Democratic). Transport workers (Social-Democratic). Printers. Bookbinders. Saddlers and bag makers. Woodworkers (Social-Democratic). Woodworkers (Social-Democratic).	466, 134 52, 937 1, 286, 211 213, 904 106, 358 518, 516 96, 319 80, 356 534, 377 64, 698 79, 106 33, 622 351, 876 36, 410	5. 1 4. 7 4. 2 1. 8 1. 5 5. 4 9 3. 8 3. 4 2. 1 4. 1 10. 2 5. 4	8. 2 4. 3 3. 5 1. 5 1. 8 4. 7 1. 4 3. 2 3. 2 2. 2 2. 2 2. 2 3. 2 10. 5 5. 0	1. 9 10. 5 1. 2 . 4 . 9 3. 6 1. 7 1. 5 2. 8 1. 1 1. 3

<sup>1</sup> Reichs-Arbeitsblatt. Berlin, May 31, 1921. pp. 598 ff.

UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG MEMBERS OF GERMAN TRADE-UNIONS-Concluded.

		Per cent unemployed.			
Federation.	Membership covered.	Apr. 30, 1921.	Mar. 30, 1921.	Apr. 30, 1920.	
Glass workers (Social-Democratic). Porcelain workers. Bakers and confectioners (Social-Democratic) Brewery and flour-mill workers. Tobacco workers. Engineers and firemen. Factory workers. Factory and transport workers (Christian). Municipal and State workers	63, 290 53, 742 66, 010 71, 813 76, 981 36, 063 490, 146 106, 600 263, 794	3. 2 4. 6 8. 5 2. 1 1. 6 1. 8 3. 5 1. 4 2. 3	2.0 3.1 8.1 1.5 1.1 2.0 2.1 1.3 2.3	3. 4 1. 8 10. 7 1. 4 1. 7 2. 6 1. 6 1. 2 1. 2	
All unions making returns.	5, 509, 761	3.9	3.7	1.9	

Returns from public employment offices also indicate a situation slightly worse in April than in the preceding month. The number of applicants for employment rose from 1,028,744 in March to 1,039,226 in April, and the vacant situations from 548,108 to 551,057, so that in April 189 applicants were registered for each 100 vacancies, as compared with 188 in March.

According to returns from 6,731 workmen's sick funds, with an aggregate membership of 13,246,929 (8,543,482 male and 4,703,447 female members), the number of members whose premiums for compulsory insurance against sickness were being paid (and who were therefore assumed to be employed) rose by 327,095, or 2.5 per

cent, between April 1 and May 1, 1921.

#### Great Britain.2

DURING May the increasing scarcity of coal resulting from the continued stoppage of work at the mines caused a further decline of employment in nearly all industries. Many more works were closed down and in each successive week of the month there were marked increases in the number of unemployed and short time workers. With the exception of agriculture and the building trades all the principal industries were seriously depressed and in some of them, notably iron and steel production, and the pottery and tinplate industries, work was almost entirely suspended.

The per cent of unemployed (excluding coal miners) among members of trade-unions from which returns are received rose from 10.5 per cent at the end of March to 17.6 per cent at the end of April, and to 22.2 per cent at the end of May. The unemployment percentages for April and May, 1921, are the highest recorded by the British Ministry of Labor for any month throughout a period of over 30 years for which monthly statistics are available. Trade-unions with a net membership of 1,342,725 reported 298,144 of their members as unemployed at the end of May, 1921. In addition large numbers were on short time. In the following table figures are given for various groups of unions:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The Labor Gazette. London, June, 1921.

UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG TRADE-UNION MEMBERS IN GREAT BRITAIN, MAY 31, 1921.

Industry group.	Member- ship	Unemploye May 31		Per cent in decrease in a unemploye pared v	number of d as com-
	covered.	Number.	Per cent.	Apr. 30, 1921.	May 31, 1921.
Building <sup>2</sup> Machinery and shipbuilding Miscellaneous metal industries. Textile industries:	78,704 541,610 79,952	5,768 159,030 20,022	7. 3 29. 4 25. 0	+2.1 +7.8 +8.4	+ 7.0 +27.7 +24.4
Cotton	75, 954 12, 869 118, 610 101, 520 40, 953 61, 613	\$11,029 2,665 16,493 13,222 5,533 5,950	* 14. 5 20. 7 13. 9 13. 0 13. 5 9. 7	+4. 2 +5. 4 +3. 8 +1. 1 -0. 4 +1. 3	+12.7 +19.1 +12.6 +12.4 +13.1 + 9.2
Clothing: Boot and shoe Other clothing Leather Glass Pottery Tobacco 4	82, 814 84, 709 12, 881 1, 402 44, 072 5, 062	6,796 7,525 2,124 141 40,004 1,842	8. 2 8. 9 16. 5 10. 1 90. 8 36. 4	+0.4 +2.6 +5.0 -0.1 -5.7	+ 7.0 + 8.1 +15.2 +10.1 +90.7 +34.2
Total	1, 342, 725	298, 144	22. 2	+4.6	+21.1

1 Short time and broken time are not included in these figures.

Based mainly on returns from earpenters and plumbers.

In addition to those totally unemployed nearly 40 per cent of the members of the unions reporting rere "paid off part of each week or alternate weeks or fortnights" or on "temporary stoppage benefit."

Returns supplied by unions whose members are mainly cigarmakers.

The Labor Gazette of June, 1921, contains a chart which, in addition to showing the unemployment curve among trade-union members during the period January, 1920, to May, 1921, also indicates for each month in what year of the 30-year period, 1891-1920, there was the greatest or least unemployment among trade-union members and the per cent of unemployed members. According to this chart the following figures are indicated:

PER CENT OF UNEMPLOYMENT JANUARY, 1920, TO MAY, 1921, AND YEAR OF MAXIMUM AND OF MINIMUM UNEMPLOYMENT IN EACH MONTH, 1891 TO 192).

Month.		eent of oyment.	ployment	atest unem- t in months 1891–1920.	Year of least unemployment in months specified, 1891–1920.		
	1920	1921	Year.	Per cent.	Year.	Per cent.	
January	2.9	6.9	1893	9.9	1917	0.3	
February	1.6 1.1	8. 5 10. 0	1893 1912	9. 4 11. 3	1917 1917	.3	
April	.9	17.6	1909	8.2	1917	.3	
May	1.1	22. 2	1909	7.9	1917	.4	
June July	1.2 1.4		1908, 1909 1908, 1909	7.9 7.9	1917 1916, 1917	.4	
August	1.6		1908	18.5	1916	.4	
September	2.2		1908	9.4	1916	.4	
October	5.3		1908	9.5	1916	.3	
November	3.7		1908	28.7	1916	.3	
December	6.0		1892	10.2	1916	. 3	

<sup>1</sup> Chart indicates 8.5, but earlier Gazette gives 8.9. <sup>2</sup> Chart indicates 8.7, but earlier Gazette gives 9.1.

In industries (including coal mining) covered by the unemployment insurance act, which industries employ about 12,000,000 workers, the per cent of unemployed, which was 11.3 on March 24, 1921, and 15.0 on April 29, rose to 15.6 on May 6, 16.2 on May 13, 17.0 on May 20, and 17.6 on May 27. The number of applicants for work on the live register of the employment exchanges on May 27 was approximately 2,122,000, of whom 1,469,000 were men and 497,000 women, the remainder being boys and girls. The corresponding total for April 29 was 1,854,000, of whom 1,261,000 were men and 448,000 were women. Some unemployed persons in occupations not covered by the unemployment insurance act do not register at the employment exchanges, and these figures, therefore, do not fully indicate the vast extent of unemployment.

In addition to those totally unemployed, 1,887,000 systematic short-time workers were claiming benefit at employment exchanges at the end of May. At the end of April the corresponding figure was

1,077,000.

### Belgium.3

RETURNS relating to March, 1921, were received by the Belgian Ministry of Industry, Labor, and Supplies from 1,761 unemployment funds with an aggregate membership of 668,047. On the last working day of the month 210,681 of these, or 31.5 per cent of the total, were out of work. The corresponding per cent in February, 1921, was 22.7. The per cent of unemployed workers in the metal-working and machinery industries was 23.4, in the textile industry 55.9, in mining 47.9, and in the building trades 12.7. The aggregate days of unemployment reported in March reached 1,971,562, unemployment benefit being paid for 336,400 of these.

Employment exchange returns are available for a later period. During April, 1921, 16,636 applications were reported by public employment exchanges, as compared with 19,426 in March, while vacant situations numbered 8,145 (7,675 in March). For every 100 situations vacant there were thus 204 applicants, as against 253 in March.

#### France.4

THE total number of unemployed persons remaining on the live register at employment exchanges at the end of the last week in May was 26,385 (18,116 men and 8,269 women). The total number of vacancies remaining unfilled was 6,985 (3,532 for men and 3,453 for women). The exchanges succeeded during that week in placing 18,273 persons in situations (13,815 men and 4,458 women), and in addition employment was found for 692 immigrants.

According to the latest returns received, 11 departmental and 113 municipal unemployment funds were in operation on June 3, 1921, the total number of persons in receipt of unemployment benefit being 73,249 (51,202 men and 22,047 women). Of this total 51,697 were residents of the Seine Department, and of these 29,032 were residing

in Paris.

Revue du Travail. Brussels, May, 1921.

<sup>4</sup> Journal Officiel. Paris, June 4, 1921.

# Economic Effects of Colonies for the Unemployed in Germany.

MONG the means for combating unemployment the German colonies for the unemployed (Arbeiterkolonien) deserve special consideration, particularly in so far as extending a helping hand to those persons who through long unemployment have sunk to the lowest depths physically and morally comes in question. In view of this fact an article in the Reichs-Arbeitsblatt (Berlin, Apr. 15, 1921) on German colonies for the unemployed, written by Pastor F. Onnasch, director of the colony Hoffnungstal, near Berlin, is reproduced below in part. The author says:

It is a generally recognized principle that man is the most valuable factor in national economics. In a properly organized economic system it is therefore of greatest importance that the man power of the country be not only conserved, but cultivated and developed. The German economic system has not fully discharged this duty in so far as unemployed men are concerned and thus has wasted a good deal of its

man power.

The problem of unemployment is not new to Germany. With the growth of Germany as an industrial country this problem has merely increased in importance. In the eighties the number of unemployed in Germany rose to 350,000, and extensive emigration to America was the result. At that time one could encounter thousands of homeless tramps on the highways who made a precarious living by begging. With the exception of a few entirely inadequate emergency works, alms represented the only aid given to these homeless men. In order to relieve the distress of the homeless and unemployed the large cities built free municipal lodging houses. In these lodging houses these unfortunates received free shelter at night and a bowl of soup in the morning and evening. In the morning, however, they had to get out again into the streets, and, with the exception of a few who were fortunate enough to find temporary work, had to make their living for the day by begging or stealing. How protracted unemployment slackens not only the strength of man but also his zest for work and his moral power of resistance is even to-day known to but very few. People look down with disgust upon the "unkempt loafer" but they do not ask themselves how it is possible that formerly decent men can sink so low. A few social workers, who, for knowledge's sake, have spent a night or two in one of these free lodging houses have learned something about how these unfortunates sink lower and lower. They found newcomers and degenerate habitués thrown together in the lodging houses. They heard some of the "old timers" teach newcomers various tricks employed in playing successfully upon the sympathy of charitably inclined people and tell them how easy it is to get along without ever doing a stroke of work. Men who have but recently sought shelter in a lodging house, and who with empty stomachs have walked the streets day after day in search of work, listen to these tales. Gradually they overcome their scruples and one sees them going out in the morning in company with some habitual vagrants to beg and steal under the latter's guidance. If this first step on the road of habitual vagrancy has been taken there is seldom a return to orderly decent living, for the companionship with his "pals" forms a shackle which the vagrant can not easily break. The alms given to vagrants are largely responsible for men finding habitual loafing attractive. It is a generally known fact that the unemployment allowances granted in Germany since the revolution have produced an effect very similar to the giving of alms and that the willingness to work and the moral sense of the people in receipt of unemployment allowances has been greatly lessened. The system of relieving unemployment through the direct or indirect giving of alms overlooks in the first place, that alms always dull the zest to work and secondly, that the idleness caused by unemployment breeds bad habits and vices. Man does not merely work to earn his living. Work develops his physical and mental capacity and imbues him with a sense of his own value.

Economically, the system of relieving unemployment through unemployment

grants or alms has three injurious effects:

The moneys disbursed in alms are lost to the national economic system.
 The man power unexpended during unemployment is irretrievably lost.

3. Through the consequences of unemployment men decrease in value as economic factors.

It is to the credit of the late Pastor D. von Bodelschwingh that he substituted for this principle of almsgiving another principle for the relief of unemployment, namely,

work instead of alms. The same principle has been revived to-day under the name "productive unemployment relief" (productive erwerbslosenfürsorae).

Pastor von Bodelschwingh came forward with this program in 1880 and tried it

out first on the pariahs among the unemployed, those who had sunk to the state of homeless vagrants and tramps. He always addressed them "brothers of the road" (Brüder von der Landstrasse). In order to practically demonstrate and carry out his scheme, he founded in 1882 the first labor colony (Arbeiterkolonie) at Wilhelmsdorf near Bethel. Every unemployed person, without distinction of political or religious creed, could voluntarily become a member of the colony and through manual labor earn his sustenance, have his tattered clothes cleaned and mended, his physical strength and his will to work restored, and, when this was accomplished, he could leave and accept some employment procured for him. In order to reach this goal strict rules were laid down which covered every activity and the whole mode of living of the colonists.

Wilhelmsdorf is situated at the foot of the Teutoburg Forest. In this locality there are still to be found large areas of land which had become barren owing to a thick stratum of bog ore. If this stratum of ore is dug up and exposed to the air it quickly becomes disintegrated and the land is then fit for cultivation. The colonies at Wilhelmsdorf were put to work to reclaim this land, and thus the "brothers of the road" became agricultural pioneers. The fields, meadows, and gardens which have been created on these formerly barren areas form a splendid monument to the industry

of the colonists.

Von Bodelschwingh always had to contend with the prejudice that men of this kind have lost all zest for work; that they do not care at all to obtain any employment. The fact that his labor colony, Wilhelmsdorf, was always filled to capacity shows, however, that these men had merely become unwilling to work through being able to exist on alms, and that work, voluntary work, can cure them of this unwillingness.

In view of the success of Wilhelmsdorf, labor colonies were established in various Federal States and Provinces of Germany. When Wilhelmsdorf had no more room for new colonies, von Bodelschwingh himself founded a second colony in the moorland of the district Solingen, Province of Hanover, in order to demonstrate what great cultural values were dormant in those moor areas. The rich grain and potato fields and the beautiful meadows, pastured by herds of fat cattle, into which within a short time the former moorland had been converted, were an effective propaganda for Pastor Bodelschwingh's labor colonies. Above all he demonstrated what great economic valves could be created by his ill-reputed "brothers of the road."

Although a large number of labor colonies had been established during subsequent years, none of them had attempted to bring the unemployed and homeless of the large cities back to the land permanently. Only two colonies, one in Berlin and the other in Hamburg, had opened industrial settlements for the unemployed. It was generally taken for granted that the homeless of the large cities would not be willing to settle

permanently in the country.

In order to refute this assumption Pastor von Bodelschwingh began in 1905 the foundation of three agricultural labor colonies for homeless and unemployed men who wanted to settle permanently in the country. These three colonies, named Hoffnungstal, Lobetal, and Gnadental, were situated in the vicinity of Berlin. The assumption that the homeless unemployed would not care to go to these rural settlements was thoroughly rejuted by these people themselves. There was such a vast number of applicants that von Bodelschwingh could not create accommodations for them fast enough. Within three years the three colonies were completed and could accommodate 410 settlers. As there were more applicants than accommodations a

new colony, Belbrück, near Nauen, was founded in 1913.

In Hoffnungstal the settlers cultivated fallow moorland and reclaimed swamps. Up to the outbreak of the war they had set out 300 morgen (189 acres] in orchards. 40 morgen (25 acres) in asparagus, and 50 morgen (32 acres] in all kinds of vegetables. All this had been done by men who not only were a burden to the community, but whose man power would have been entirely wasted if they had continued to live on alms. These orchards and vegetable gardens have a high economic value. wanders through them and reflects who has created all these values can not fail to acknowledge the economic significance of the labor colonies. This impression of the economic value of the labor colonies would of course be strengthened if the work done on all of the 40 colonies now in existence in Germany could be outlined here, which can not be done owing to lack of space. It should, however, be remarked that the model agricultural establishments of these colonies, and such they were before the war, have had a stimulating and instructive effect upon the agriculturists living in the vicinity. In this respect the labor colonies produce an effect similar to that of the model farms of the chambers of agriculture.

As has been said, man is the most important factor in economics, and in the conservation and uplift of man lies the great economic significance of the labor colonies.

The more industry is developed in a country the greater are the fluctuations in the number of the unemployed. In agriculture this number remains nearly stationary. In times of great prosperity industry can not find enough hands to fill all orders in due time. In slack times industry is forced to discharge part of the labor force, and the most inefficient and physically weak are generally the first to be dismissed. These become homeless, and populate the highways and the large cities, become a burden on the community and, as described above, lose all zest and strength to work. Similarly situated are the building trades workers, painters, and potters, who are generally in enforced idleness during the winter months. If they have not made any savings during the summer, they are in distress in the winter, A considerable part of the workers is therefore always, so as to say, in reserve.

It is one of the most important duties of a national economic system to keep these reserves in a serviceable condition and not to let them deteriorate. Here there is a gap which has not been sufficiently considered and filled in our modern economic system. Unemployment insurance fills this gap only in so far as the morally strong members of the reserve come in question. With the small means at their disposal the labor colonies have attempted to fill in this gap. They have now accommodations for 6,000 men. As soon as some worker is transferred into the reserve of the labor battalions and has no home of his own the labor colony is open to him. Here he finds an orderly life, and can fairly well keep above water until he can obtain employment. As nearly all the work performed in labor colonics is outdoor work, the sojourn in a labor colony represents for industrial workers, and especially for those who have to suffer from dust at their work, a period of recreation, during which the whole organism

suffer from dust at their work, a period of recreation, during which the whole organism is being strengthened for new work. The labor colonies have therefore also been called "People's Sanatoria" in the best meaning of the word.

Sad to say, the reserves do not immediately come to the labor colonies when work stops. If they did, the task of the labor colonies would be much easier. Many of them not only run through all their money first but also pawn every useful article on which they can raise money, and when they finally join the labor colony they are in rags and are physical wrecks. Some of them wait that long because life in the large city is so attractive to them, the demon rum holds others, and still others keep

on hoping that they will find work.

In short, it is a fact that many men come to the labor colonies only when they look more like human wrecks than members of the labor reserve. And this makes the work of the labor colonies so difficult and expensive. The efficiency of those joining a labor colony is generally so low that it takes from 5 to 10 men to perform a normal man's work. On the other hand, they are so starved that each of them eats two to three times as much as a normal eater. For this reason none of the labor colonies earn their expenses, but the subsidies they receive are far below the sum which these unemployed men would cost the community, and, in addition, the colonies perform the great service of restoring the men to working capacity. On the average, the men remain about three months in the colony. As all the colonies combined have accommodations for about 6,000 men, about 24,000 can be taken care of annually. Since the foundation of the first colony at Wilhelmsdorf in 1882 over 300,000 men have found asylum in the German labor colonies. This conservation of such a vast quantity of man power speaks more eloquently than anything else that could be said for the great economic value of the German labor colonies.

The principle governing the conduct of labor colonies—work instead of alms—may, moreover, be practically applied to all the unemployed. The late Pastor von Bodelschwingh always pointed out that all workmen should own a home and a garden in which they could grow a large part of the foodstuffs required by them. He made this postulate especially in behalf of the agricultural workers in order to counteract the exodus from the farms. If the agricultural workers stayed on the farms there would not be such an oversupply of industrial labor. Industry would not be able to rid itself so easily of the less efficient workers, and as a consequence the number of unemployed would decrease considerably. It is, of course, equally important that the urban industrial worker own his home, for in times of industrial unemployment he would not be immediately exposed to the injurious influences of idleness, he could devote all his time to repairs and improvements of his house and to his garden, and thus by working at his ease in the open air use the period of unemployment as a period of physical recreation and relaxation. The principle governing the conduct of labor colonies would thus be practically applied to the workman's home.

colonies would thus be practically applied to the workman's home.

During the last few years our economists, and above all our workmen have laid too much stress upon money. From money, in the form of unemployment insurance,

they also expect salvation during times of unemployment. All unemployment relief by means of money, however great its practical value and under whatever name it may be granted, always produces the effect of alms. Money produces neither zest nor strength to work, nor self-satisfaction. It always lowers the unemployed in their self-esteem and in the esteem of others, and sometimes it even drags them down

to the lowest depths.

Unemployment relief should be generally given on the principle of the labor colonies—work instead of alms. That this is no Utopian demand is demonstrated by the rural settlements of workers in England and Belgium. Much can be done in this respect in Germany by the creation of settlements in the vicinity of large cities. The distress of the last few years has taught to Germans the great value of a patch of land for the food supply of a family. This knowledge gained during the stress of war should now be put to practical use. It would mean a step forward in the rehabilitation of German economic life.

#### HOUSING.

# Building Trades Adjustments in Cedar Rapids, Iowa.

IN THE early part of 1921 the building industry in Iowa, as in most other States, was in a stagnant and uncertain condition. Building during the latter part of 1920 had not been at the normal rate, and whether a revival would come with the return of spring was uncertain. There was a general belief that building costs must be reduced before such a revival could be realized, and among the various parties to the building industry there was a fervent desire that each of the others should see the reasonableness of accepting a reduction upon whatever factor he supplied to the general result. The aspect of the discussion which came most prominently before the public was whether wages should be cut, and if so, to what extent. In general, the employers felt that the situation demanded a reduction of from 20 to 30 per cent in wages, while the employees, with practical unanimity, declared that they could not and would not accept such a cut. The natural results followed, and by the beginning of April disagreements were widespread and damaging. are now on in the building crafts in nearly all the cities in Iowa," says a local paper under date of April 7, and goes on to declare that "all over the State, except at Cedar Rapids," the building employees were refusing to accept the wage cuts proposed by the master builders, and that consequently strikes or lockouts, with a serious interference

with home building, were the order of the day.

The immunity of Cedar Rapids was due to an agreement between the employers and most of the building trades-unions, which brought about two results worth noting—a settlement of the wage question without a strike, and an interesting study of the wage conditions prevailing in the building trades, compared with the figures for 1914,

and with the current cost of living.

As early as 1910 a plan of adjusting differences between employers and employees in the building industry in Cedar Rapids had been adopted, which was renewable from year to year and which gradually underwent various modifications. As adopted in the beginning of 1921 by the building trades council, the federation of labor, and the employers' association, it provided that a committee of 10, representing the three bodies, should select from a list of representative citizens 30 acceptable to both sides. If in any one of the trades affiliated with the signatory bodies a difference over wage rates should arise, a court should be formed to consider, during the month of March, the whole question and to give by April 1 a decision which should be effective till the end of the following March. Each court should be composed of two members nominated by the employers, two by the trade, and three selected by these four from the list of 30 prepared by the cooperative committee.

There was some question as to whether the plan would achieve a success this year. The carpenters, brick masons, and hoisting

engineers were not affiliated with the building trades council or the federation, and therefore did not come under the terms of the agreement. Whether a settlement which did not include them could be effective was doubtful. Moreover, the employers were asking a reduction of wages of 30 per cent, while the workers were strongly opposed to any cut. It was conceivable that in a situation of such complexity as the building trades presented, the arbitrators might not be able to agree, or that the losing party might not accept the decision. Charges of repudiated agreements and breaches of faith were rife on both sides in labor questions last spring, and it was felt that the situation presented a severe test of the Cedar Rapids plan.

The courts were formed, and arbitration proceedings began in March according to program. The workers had believed from the time the question was first raised that they could not afford to take a cut in wages, and felt the need of presenting their case in convincing fashion. Considering ways and means of doing this, they decided upon making a survey of the economic condition of the building workers in relation to the actual cost of living. The Iowa State Federation of Labor undertook, during the month of February "a survey of wages, costs of living, and the costs of building in Cedar Rapids," the study being in charge of a professor in the economics department of a western university. The results are presented in a pamphlet which has recently been published, and which is of something more than merely local interest.2 The workers sought to show that the 1920 wage scale should be maintained because (1) wages in the building trades had not risen proportionately to the increase in cost of living, and (2) that at the 1920 scale the building worker did not receive enough to keep his family in reasonable health and comfort. In proof of the first, they presented a table showing the hourly rates of the building trades for each year from 1914 to 1920, inclusive, as follows:

WAGE SCALES (IN CENTS) PER HOUR IN THE BUILDING TRADES OF CEDAR RAPIDS, 1914 TO 1920.

Occupation.	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	Per cent in- crease over 1914.	In- crease per hour.
Cement finisher. Electrician Iron worker Laborer Mortar maker. Lather Painter Painter Paper hanger Plasterer. Hod carrier Plumber Sheet metal worker Team driver. Man and team Carpenter Masson Hoisting engineer.	50. 0 53. 125 56. 25 31. 25 37. 5 53. 125 53. 125 53. 125 53. 125 6. 25 43. 75 56. 25 43. 75 56. 25 43. 75 56. 25 50. 0 62. 5 50. 0	50. 0 53, 125 62, 5 31, 25 37, 5 56, 25 40, 0 (a) 75, 0 46, 875 31, 25 60, 0 62, 5 50, 0 62, 5 50, 0	62. 5 56. 25 62. 5 31. 25 37. 5 62. 5 40. 0 (a) 75. 0 63. 75 46. 875 56. 75 55. 0 75. 0	65. 0 56. 25 68. 75 35. 625 42. 5 68. 75 50. 0 53. 125 75. 0 42. 5 68. 75 50. 0 34. 375 68. 75 62. 5 75. 0	75. 0 62. 5 75. 0 40. 0 46. 875 68. 75 56. 25 59. 75 85. 5 46. 875 68. 75 53. 125 36. 37 62. 5 87. 5	82. 5 68. 75 82. 5 47. 5 58. 75 75. 0 62. 5 (a) 87. 5 58. 75 75. 0 65. 0 47. 5 95. 0 75. 0 87. 5	96, 75 100, 0 100, 0 62, 5 75, 0 100, 0 78, 0 80, 0 112, 5 82, 5 106, 25 87, 5 52, 08 120, 0 100, 0	93. 5 88. 2 77. 7 100. 0 100. 0 88. 2 95. 0 50. 0 120. 0 66. 7 100. 0 80. 0 100. 0	46, 75 46, 875 43, 75 43, 75 31, 25 37, 5 46, 875 46, 75 45, 0 43, 75 20, 83 60, 0 50, 0 50, 0
Average	41.6	42.0	48.1	50.6	54.4	63. 2	82, 64	90. 5	41.0

a No figures obtained for these years.
 2 Economic Survey as applying to the Building Trades Industry in Cedar Rapids, Iowa.
 Under direction of Fred A. Canfield, president, State Federation of Labor. Cedar Rapids, Iowa, 1921.
 24 pp.

The average increase, it will be seen, is 41 cents an hour, an increase of 90.5 per cent in the hourly rate. In calculating what this increase means, however, the irregularity of employment in the building trades must be borne in mind. The average amount of time, the survey finds, during which the building employees were employed at their trades in 1920 was eight months, the range being from five to eleven months. But if unemployed at his own trade, a man might perhaps find work at something else, so wages from other occupations must be taken into consideration. The following table presents the findings on this point:

APPROXIMATE AMOUNT OF WORK AND EARNINGS FOR 1920 IN BUILDING TRADES OF CEDAR RAPIDS.

Occupation.	Num- ber.	Work during year (months).			Earnings for year 1920.		
		At trade.	Other work.	Time lost.	At trade.	Other work.	Total.
Cement finisher.	19	6.0	3.0	3.0	\$1,207.44	\$270.00	\$1,477.44
Electrician	40	10.0	0.0	2.0	1,906.67	0.00	1,906.67
Iron worker	13	7.0	2.0	3.0	1,248.00	180.00	1,428,00
Laborer	470	8.0	2.0	2.0	1,040.00	180.00	1, 220.00
Mortar maker	80	8.0	1.0	3.0	1,248.00	90.00	1,338.00
Lather	8	7.0	1.0	4.0	1,456.00	90.00	1,546.00
Painter	100	7.0	3.0	2.0	1, 135. 68	270.00	1,405.68
Paper hanger	50	7.0	3.0	2.0	1, 164. 80	270.00	1, 434. 8
Plasterer	18	9.0	0.0	3.0	1,930.50	0.00	1, 930. 5
Hod carrier	16	7.0	2.0	3.0	1,100.85	180.00	1,280.8
Plumber	42	10.5	0.0	1.5	2, 127. 13	0.00	2, 127. 13
Sheet metal worker	60	11.0	0.0	1.0	2,002.01	0.00	2,002.0
Team driver	82	7.0	3.0	2.0	848. 52	270.00	1, 118. 5
Man and team	30	8.0	2.0	4.0	1,996.80	180.00	2, 176. 8
Carpenter	400	8.0	0.0		1,664.00		1,664.0
Mason Hoisting engineer	60 12	8. 0 5. 0	0.0 5.0	4. 0 2. 0	1,872.00 1,040.00	0, 00 450, 00	1,872.0 1,490.0
Average	1,500	8.0	1.3	2.7	1,379.41	117. 54	1, 496. 93

From these figures it was calculated that the index number for building trade wages in Cedar Rapids had risen from 100 in 1914 to 190.7 in 1920. Quoting the figures of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, the survey shows that in December, 1920, the cost of living index, as compared with 1914, was 194.4, so that wages had not quite caught up with the increase in the cost of living. True, it is stated, there had been some fall in prices since December, but by February 1, as nearly as could be calculated, this had only brought the cost of living down to about the same level with wages; there was no justification in this fact for a cut in wages, and some consideration should be given to the period when wages had lagged behind; there were arrearages to be made up.

Turning to the second point, the relative adequacy of the 1920 wage scale, the survey takes as a standard the so-called cost and quantity budget of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. This was designed to show the quantities of goods and services required to maintain the typical family of five in health and decency, but without any attempt at luxury.

The assumption of the Department of Labor in the preparation of this budget is that the family should live in clean, comfortable homes, with sufficient pure and nourishing food, neat and serviceable clothes, and with sufficient income to give to the children a reasonable education and bring them up as good citizens.

The budget, as given by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, is quoted in full, with the prices of 1920 for the various items included, the total being \$2,151.08. To avoid controversial questions, the items of savings and life insurance are dropped, and the budget total is further reduced by 5 per cent, "bringing it down to the bottom level of \$1,844.03 for the year 1921," and this sum is compared with the total earnings of the building workers in 1920, as given in the table on page 128. Of the 17 groups of workers listed there, only 6 had earned, at the 1920 scale, enough to meet the requirements of this minimum standard, while the average for the whole body fell short of this mark by nearly \$350. These facts showed, it was urged, not only that labor had not secured any abnormal and extortionate wages, but that it had not even held its own through the period of rising prices, and that, if it agreed to a reduction now, it could do so only at the cost of accepting a standard of living short of the minimum requirements of health and decency.

By the end of March the awards were announced. The plasterers had not resorted to arbitration, having agreed to accept a modified cut without protest. For them and for the other trades included within the working of the Cedar Rapids plan, the wage scale for 1921 stood as follows. For purposes of comparison, the 1920 wage scale is also included.

BUILDING TRADES WAGES IN CEDAR RAPIDS, 1920 AND 1921.

Occupation.	Rates per ho	ur (cents).	Occupation.	Rates per hour (cents.)	
	1920	1921		1920	1921
Cement finisher	detrician   100.0   85.0	Plasterer. Hod carrier. Plumber Sheet-metal worker. Team driver. Man and team	112.5 82.5 106.25 87.5 52.08 120.0	100. 0 82. 5 95. 0 87. 5 1 55. 0 95. 0	

<sup>1</sup> Or \$25 per week.

It will be noticed that what reductions were made occurred in the better paid trades, and that the wages of the lower paid workers were left unchanged. It will be seen that in only one case, the cement finishers, was a cut made when the total earnings for 1920 fell below the \$1,844.03 which, according to the workers' brief, was needed for a minimum health and decency budget for 1921. This would seem to indicate that the majority of the arbitration bodies were impressed with the reasonableness of the workers' contention, based as it was on data collected in their own trades, that the 1920 scale was not unduly high, taking into consideration the present cost of living.

Naturally the employees in trades in which reductions were made and the employers in trades in which they were not, did not feel entirely satisfied with the awards, but both sides accepted them loyally and set to work. According to local reports, the settlement made it possible to begin work on \$75,000 worth of new building. The carpenters and bricklayers, who had not come under the settlement, held out for a little while, but before the end of April they had

consented to arbitrate the differences with their employers with regard to wages. Local comment on the situation seems to indicate that the Cedar Rapids plan is felt to have scored a success. The cost and delays involved in a strike were avoided and no bitterness had been aroused on either side. Employers and employees were working together harmoniously and looked forward to doing so for the remainder of the year, with the prospect ahead of a similar adjustment next spring.

# House Building in New York City Under the Tax Exemption Plan.

N FEBRUARY 25, 1921, a New York ordinance became effective which provided that until January, 1932, new buildings in that city, planned for dwelling purposes exclusively, should be exempt from local taxation up to the limits of \$5,000 for a one-family and \$10,000 for a two-family house. The president of the Borough of Manhattan has recently made public figures showing that in the first three months after the coming into effect of this ordinance plans were filed providing housing for 13,279 families, which is approximately at the rate of 1,000 families a week. In the corresponding period of 1920, plans were filed for the housing of 5,171 families, so that the present year shows an increase of practically 157 per cent. According to the statement given out, of the 13,279 families for whom the housing plans filed will provide, 7,559 will live in one and two family houses, as against 5,720 in apartments. This seems to indicate that the tax exemptions are having the desired effect of stimulating the building of individual homes. This is also indicated by the total estimated value of the housing plans filed, which amounts to about \$63,000,000, an average of a little less than \$5,000.

## State-assisted Home Building in North Dakota.

ENTION was made in a recent issue of the Monthly Labor Review of the plan adopted by North Dakota in 1919 for aiding citizens to build homes. The constitutionality of the legislation was questioned, so that it was not possible to make a beginning until well into 1920. Various difficulties in the way of securing funds for the State scheme have been encountered, but a recent report states that in the past season some 58 houses were built under the terms of the housing law, 8 for business and professional men, and the remainder for wage earners. State assistance is limited to houses costing not more than \$5,000, of which the applicant must furnish \$1,000, while the State furnishes the remainder and through the Home Building Association undertakes the actual building. Materials are bought at wholesale and furnished at cost. A 20-year amortization plan is adopted, under which the \$4,000 loan is paid off in monthly instalments of \$28.65.

<sup>1</sup> Monthly Labor Review , May, 1921, p. 7.

## Building Activities in Canada.

CCORDING to the June 29, 1921, issue of Commerce Reports, published by the United States Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, the American consul at Kingston, Ontario, under date of June 10, 1921, states that with five months' statistics to work upon, comparisons can now be made between this year's activity and that of preceding years. Residential work is more active than ever, the total for five months being \$28,782,300, as compared with \$25,312,500 in 1920, \$13,198,300 in 1919, and \$4,414,100 in 1918.

The construction of business buildings is also increasing in volume. For the first five months of this year contracts awarded amounted to \$11,881,800, as compared with \$9,507,200 in 1920, \$4,346,300 in 1919.

and \$2,331,100 in 1918.

Contracts awarded for the first five months of 1921 for industrial projects amounted to \$3,332,300, as compared with \$37,103,100 in 1920, \$19,439,300 in 1919, and \$10,639,800 in 1918. This figure, of course, is the natural outcome of a quiet fall and winter.

# How England is Meeting the Housing Shortage.

DISCUSSION, based upon six weeks of first-hand study of the situation, of the British Government's housing program, the causes which led to its undertaking, the difficulties in carrying it on, the troubles between labor and the Government which have developed in the course of the enterprise, and other features connected with the effort to secure sufficient housing to meet the urgent needs of the country has recently been published in an interesting volume by Lawrence Veiller.¹ The author considers that the Government program is uneconomic, that it necessitates placing a terribly heavy burden of taxation upon the country, and that there is some reason to look upon it as pauperizing to labor; but, on the other hand, in the situation existing at the close of the war it was practically inevitable. Along with the defects of the policy are to be found some advantages. Thus, the houses built are good, they are so arranged as to avoid crowding, and town planning needs are taken into consideration in placing them. Also, the Government control of building materials and the extent to which the Government entered the market as a purchaser did much to stabilize the industries producing such materials and to hasten building by insuring a sufficient supply of requisites. As an instance, the dealing of the Government with the brick manufacturers is cited.

The method of procedure adopted was to say to each manufacturer with whom

orders were placed:

"The Government will agree to take so many thousand brick at such and such times, of such and such quality, at certain basic prices, with the understanding that if the cost of labor materially increases a proper allowance shall be made for the increased cost. You are to produce these brick and hold them in your yards for future deliveries as may be ordered by the Government, but you will be paid 90 per cent of the contract value when the bricks have been passed or inspected by the Government officials."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Veiller, Lawrence. How England is meeting the housing shortage. London, Spottiswoode, Ballantyne & Co. (Ltd.), 1920. 108 pp.

It is thus seen that the brick manufacturers of the country were enabled to resume once more the operation of their respective plants, with the confidence that they could count upon definite orders for a sufficient quantity of their product to make it worth while for them to resume business at prices which would yield them a fair profit.

The cost of the Government scheme is discussed at length, but here the report is affected by the fact that the study was made in the summer of 1920, when costs were at perhaps their highest point. Recent reports from England show that contracts for building are now being let at figures considerably under those prevailing a year ago, and the experience of the guilds in handling contracts, another factor which has been developed since the study was made, also enters into the question. The final paragraph sums up both sides of the question:

Irrespective of the disadvantages of Government-built houses and of the unsoundness of a nation's building houses in large quantities to be rented on other than an economic basis, the fact remains that England is producing houses in vast numbers to meet the needs of the people, of a type that marks an epoch in the development of the housing movement and which will set a standard for years to come.

## Activities in Home Building in Sweden.

A REPORT from the American consul at Stockholm, under date of May 26, 1921, shows the activity in home building in Sweden, as follows:

In 35 Swedish cities, each with a population of more than 10,000, there were built, in 1920, 2,073 dwellings; in 1919, 3,043; and in 1913, 5,955. The 1920 figure is preliminary; the others are final. In the great majority of cases a dwelling is an apartment in an apartment building, since most of the residents of Swedish cities live in apartments. Taking the 5,955 dwellings of 1913 as basis for calculation, the construction work in the cities in 1914 was 89 per cent normal; in 1915, 58 per cent normal; in 1916, 65 per cent normal; in 1917, 81 per cent normal; in 1918, 59 per cent normal; in 1919, 51 per cent normal; and in 1920, 35 per cent normal.

The reasons for the decline of building are quite obvious—high cost of material and labor, scarcity of labor, and, in 1920, a strike

of the union men of the building trades.

In general it may be said that only the larger cities showed reduction in building apartments in 1920 as compared with 1919. The smaller cities, with but six exceptions, showed increases. As has been stated, the figures are based on returns from 35 cities. If Stockholm, Gothenburg, and Malmo are removed from the table of statistics the remaining cities, which in 1919 built 1,363 dwellings, show 1,419 built in 1920.

The report published by Kungliga Socialstyrelsen (the Bureau of Social Investigation) shows that in 1917 and the three succeeding years aid granted by the State, by municipalities, and by building associations was an important factor in promoting what building was done. Thus, in 1914 but 10.7 per cent of the dwellings completed received such aid. In 1915 the percentage was 13.2; 1916,

24.9; 1917, 59.1; 1918, 67.3; 1919, 69.2; and 1920, 55.3.

## WOMAN AND CHILD LABOR.

#### Health Needs of Child Workers.

HE health needs of working children are understood more by analogy from those children who have been studied through health service in the school or college than through study of the health problems of the younger industrial and mercantile workers," H. H. Mitchell, M. D., declares in an article entitled "At what age should children enter industry?" published in the May, 1921, issue of The American Child. While acknowledging the importance of investigating the physical effects of industrial life upon adolescent workers, Dr. Mitchell is of the opinion that "a scientific study of all the factors influencing the health of the child should be the first consideration." He points out that mental equipment, habits relating to personal hygiene, use of leisure, opportunities for play and wholesome recreation, family income, character of occupation, nutrition, physical strength, ability to resist fatigue, physical handicaps, and constitutional tendencies have a significant bearing upon the health of children. The correlation of these factors with wage earning and school attendance, for purposes of comparison, is indeed a complex problem.

Dr. Mitchell suggests that—

We might be able to measure health and the effect which any particular factors have upon it where those effects are of sufficient degree to be expressed in the death rate, in the morbidity rate, or in the rate of growth and development. Of course, large and varied groups of children would help to average the effect of the numerous factors operating. However, there are other effects upon the health of the child not so easily measured; many may pass unnoticed except under careful periodic, medical examinations. Some of these effects may be negligible until later in life. It would be very suggestive if we could measure the fatigue effects of a day in various industries upon a large group of children under fairly definite hygienic conditions and compare those with the fatigue effects upon a similar group of children of a day in school. Likewise, if we could compare the fatigue effects of one industry with those of another, we might obtain information of value for vocational guidance. The advocates of fatigue studies have suggested a number of methods for such a study as, for example, the use of Ryan's vascular skin reaction test, and Martin's spring balance muscle test, and a comparison of industrial curves of output of adolescent children with those of adults. Undernourishment is now recognized as having a distinct effect upon health and this is often not noticed or appreciated. There may be a distinct relationship between the fatigue or strain incident to certain industrial processes and poor nutrition. Very closely related is the question whether the physiological and psychological changes incident to pubescence involve a peculiar nutrition problem. We could very well study these two questions together.

Bulletin No. 251 of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics on Preventable Death in the Cotton Manufacturing Industry shows notably higher tuberculosis death rates among cotton-mill operatives 15 to 19 years of age than among nonoperatives. Periodic medical surveys of other industries with somewhat similar health hazards would, Dr. Mitchell thinks, probably also show an excess of tuberculosis morbidity.

Children with heart affections might easily be subjected to injurious strain if put to work without supervision or vocational guid-

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ance. If accurate data on occupations were added to the hospital and dispensary records of adolescent children, a valuable study might be made as to the influence of particular industries on child health.

A better understanding of the health needs of children will be of tremendous assistance in coming to a decision as to the minimum age for employment and will offer a scientific basis for future legislation.

Mr. Edwin N. Clopper, in The American Child of February, 1921, defines child labor as "the employment of a child under 18 years of age at any task, with or without pay, under direction or independently, which deprives him of his proper measure of schooling, training, reserved in and healthy development.

recreation, and healthy development.

A study is now being made by Dr. Mitchell, in cooperation with the Newark Department of Medical School Inspection, of 1,200 continuation school pupils with a view to correlating their occupations with certain health factors. These children have three hours' schooling a week and are engaged in various industries. Such a study, Dr. Mitchell says, "is necessarily preliminary to a more extensive demonstration of health protection and service for working children, and a clearer understanding of their needs."

# Compulsory Labor of Bulgarian School Children.1

PY DIRECTION of the Minister of Public Instruction of Bulgaria, the school children have already fulfilled their obligation of one week's compulsory labor "under the supervision and control of the teaching staff."

School buildings, yards, and gardens have been cleaned, clearing and afforestation have been done in the neighborhood of the schools, sewers and cesspools have been dug, streets and squares near to schools have been paved, reading rooms decorated, and huts built for

schools and camps, etc.

"The students in Sofia have built embankments to preserve the land surrounding the seminary from inundation. Pupils of the military school have done various pieces of work in the park of the school. Another group of boys did some excavation work in the Church of St. George and in the Lozeniz district, where they found various objects of antiquity. A large number of pupils worked in the nursery of the Boris Park. The pupils of the girls' high schools of Sofia have cleaned the floors and the windows in all the school-rooms and all the school accessories. Some bound the books in the school libraries. Pupils in one girls' school made blankets, pillows, and other objects which were sold for the benefit of the school."

Pupils have cleaned up the art school, which the military had left in a terrible condition, and have paved the square in front of the

military hospital.

The provincial school pupils have done their compulsory work enthusiastically. In Messemvria, Vakna, Stanimaka, and Tianovo archælogical objects were cleaned and put in order. Two fountains

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Source: Daily Intelligence of the International Labor Office. May 19, 1921, Geneva, Switzerland.

and a little roadway have been constructed by the pupils in Bela-Tserkva. Thousands of young trees have been planted in that

locality and also at Tirnovo and Souhindol.

The Minister of Public Instruction has estimated that the work accomplished by the Bulgarian scholars is equivalent to over 100,-000,000 lévas (\$19,300,000, par), calculated at minimum-wage rates.

# Day Nurseries in Chilean Factories.

CCORDING to the July, 1921, Bulletin of the Pan American Union, a Chilean law which was signed March 22, 1921, requires that within six months owners of factories employing 50 or more women over 18 years of age provide day nurseries for the children of their woman employees. Each room used for this purpose must be in charge of a competent person, paid by the employer, and must be well ventilated and lighted. Not more than 25 children may be accommodated in one room. Plans for such rooms are to be approved by the general directorate of sanitation. A medical certificate, which may be obtained free from a hospital or dispensary physician, is required for the admission of a child into these factory day nurseries. Only contagious diseases debar a child from entering. Every mother of a child less than a year old may have two half-hour periods per day, in addition to the regular rest periods, for nursing her child.

Measures for Stabilizing the Demand for Woman Labor in Germany.<sup>1</sup>

THE demand for woman labor in Germany was subject to considerable fluctuations during the year 1920. At the beginning of 1920 the number of women receiving unemployment grants was 106,922. Subsequently their number decreased steadily up to May 15, on which date only 59,983 women were in receipt of unemployment allowances. In the next two months, June and July, the number of unemployed women aided by allowances rose again and on August 1 reached the highest level for the year with 109,017. Subsequent to August unemployment decreased again, and at the end of 1920 only 73,753 women were receiving unemployment allowances. A similar trend of the unemployment curve has been observed in preceding years and is due to the influence of business conditions in the clothing industry. Brisk business in this industry during the first five months of the year lowers the unemployment index. During the months June to August, inclusive, business in the clothing industry is practically at a standstill, and as this industry employs a large number of women the unemployment index for woman labor rises in these three months. Beginning with September and until the end of November business in the clothing industry is again very brisk, and during December women discharged by clothing factories easily find employment in mercantile stores, in which during

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Reichs-Arbeitsblatt. Berlin, Feb. 15, 1921, p. 349.

the holiday season there is always a great demand for saleswomen. Thus there is always a decrease in unemployment among women

during the last four months of the year.

A study of the unemployment index for woman labor in Germany reveals another fact: The demand for woman labor is relatively and absolutely better than that for male labor. According to the report of the German workmen's sick funds, their compulsory membership—every wage earner in Germany must be a member of a sick fund—was 12,466,628 on December 1, 1920, of whom 4,477,130, or 36 per cent, were women. The reports of the demobilization commissioners on the other hand, show that 350,292 unemployed persons were receiving unemployment grants on December 1, 1920, and that only 73,753, or 21 per cent, of these were females.

The demand for women varies greatly, however, in the individual occupational groups. While a disproportionately large number of unemployed women sought to obtain industrial jobs requiring no skill, there was during the entire year a shortage of woman workers in domestic service and agriculture and at times there was also a shortage of skilled woman workers in the clothing and cleaning industries and in commerce. As a rule there was a shortage of woman labor in those industry groups which during the war régime were system-

atically prevented from getting a full supply of labor.

Since the beginning of economic demobilization the activities of the public employment offices have therefore been centered upon effecting a healthy adjustment of the demand for women by leading woman workers from overcrowded or unsuitable occupations into such occupations as by their nature are especially suited for them and may be expected to provide them with permanent employment. Cooperation of vocational guidance and employment offices and the taking of measures for improving the vocational conditions and the vocational training of women were frequently necessary in order to bring about in individual cases the required vocational adjustment.

In agriculture there was room for woman labor during the entire year, the average number of applicants per 100 vacant situations being only 41. The demand was especially heavy in Saxony-Anhalt, Silesia, East Prussia, Brandenburg, and the free State of Saxony. The State employment offices in Saxony-Anhalt, the free State of Saxony, Brandenburg, and Lower Saxony had taken measures for the assignment of rural migratory workers to agricultural employment. Numerically the number of urban woman workers placed in agricultural employment decreased in 1920 as compared with the preceding year, but the women so placed during 1920 were much better suited for agricultural work than those placed in 1919. 1919 about 40 per cent of the women assigned to agricultural employment returned before the expiration of the period for which they were employed, while in 1920 such misplacements averaged only 8 to 10 per cent. Careful preparations were made before sending urban woman workers to the country. Woman officials of the district employment offices or woman welfare workers of the State employment office went first to the localities in question to investigate working and housing conditions. The latter offered the most serious difficulties. Only minimum demands could be made in view of the existing housing shortage. Among these demands were: Separate rooms for German and alien workers and for each sex, thorough disinfection and whitewashing of the rooms, heating and lighting facilities, curtained or opaque windows, for each person a bed with straw mattress, pillows, and two or three woolen blankets, a locker, wash basin, and a chair. It was generally agreed that free board should be furnished. The wage conditions were as a rule regulated

by means of a collective agreement.

Of like importance for a successful placement was the method of recruiting and selection of the urban labor forces. It could not be carried out from the viewpoint that the urban unemployment relief should be disburdened but from the viewpoint that suitable labor forces must be procured for agriculture. All the difficulties and drawbacks of life in the country had to be explained to applicants for work, for each small disappointment made it later on more difficult for them to get accustomed to rural work and dulled their willingness to work. Each group of women sent to the country was accompanied by a woman welfare worker who was familiar with the home conditions of the workers and had their confidence. Whenever possible she shared the life of the workers during the first two or three days. This generally led to lasting friendly relations with the workers and made it possible for the welfare worker to settle small disputes amicably. The best means to keep the strange girls permanently in the country was for the farmer to take them into his own household. In East Prussia where there are many small farmers this expedient was frequently resorted to.

Available unemployment relief funds were frequently used to defray the costs of welfare measures for migratory woman workers and to equip the latter with suitable clothing. The number of woman workers placed in agricultural positions during 1920 was

86,355, as against 5,260 in the prewar year 1913.

The causes of the distaste of women for domestic service were investigated in a similar manner. Model service contracts regulating the hours of labor, the work to be performed, rest periods, time off, vacations, etc., for domestic servants were introduced in a number of cities. Several of the demobilization commissions have fixed minimum wage rates for domestic service and in some cities the wage and working conditions of domestic servants are regulated by collective agreements. The collective agreements concluded in the cities of Leipzig, Gera, and Görlitz have been decreed as generally binding. Whether the introduction of collective agreements has increased the number of applicants for domestic service positions can not yet be stated offhand; the feared decrease in vacant positions has, however, not been realized.

Courses in domestic science have been established in numerous cities with a view to arousing in industrial workers interest in housework and cooking and to making them perceive how greatly skilled work in domestic service is valued. In many localities a commission composed of housewives and domestic servants has been appointed, which selects the pupils who are to attend these courses and thereby assumes to some degree responsibility for the success of the courses. In Kiel the attendance of domestic science courses was made obligatory for all unemployed women and girls under 24 years of age. Up to July 1, 1920, the number of students attending these courses was

1,373, of whom 667 were placed in domestic service positions. Hamburg such courses were attended by 320 unemployed women, 90 per cent of whom were placed in domestic service. In connection with their unemployment relief, the cities of Hamburg and Hanover have each established a domestic science training school for juvenile workers. These schools are conducted as boarding schools, i. e., the pupils live there.

The training of women in domestic science schools has not been accompanied by equal success in all cities. In several cities the municipal employment offices have therefore made experiments with apprenticing working girls into households. Apprentices were assigned only to housewives who had presided over a household for at least three years. Girls who had finished school were likewise apprenticed to housewives.

Lack of suitable clothing prevented many girls and women from accepting domestic service positions. In order to remove this impediment, the employment offices bought up large quantities of fabrics left on the hands of the military authorities after the war and worked them up into dresses, blouses, aprons, etc., in dressmaking schools and workshops opened for the unemployed. Unemployment relief funds furnished the money required for these purchases.

In spite of extensive measures taken by the employment service and careful attention to detail, the adjustment of the demand for woman labor has not yet been effected to the extent desired. This is chiefly due to the personal and conjugal conditions of woman workers. An investigation made by the employment office of Charlottenburg has shown that of 538 women in receipt of unemployment allowances only 81 came in question for employment in domestic service. Of the remaining 457 women, 273 had a household of their own and had to take care of children, 90 were over 50 years of age, and owing to this fact could not be placed, 46 were physically unfit for domestic service, 12 could not be recommended as servants for personal reasons, while 19 were dressmakers, and 17 were qualified clerical workers and as such could soon expect to find employment in their own occupation. Thus only 6.6 per cent of the women registered as unemployed were out of work for economic reasons.

On the average there were only 77 woman applicants for domestic service for every 100 vacant positions. The total number of women placed in domestic service positions in 1920 was 645,341 as compared

with 393,068 in the prewar year 1913.

The new female labor forces for agriculture and domestic service were chiefly recruited from the ranks of industrial woman labor. The chances of unemployed industrial workers for reemployment in their former occupation were everywhere very unfavorable. For every 100 vacant industrial situations there were on an average more than 300 unemployed woman applicants. The clothing and cleaning industries and the printing and allied industries were the only industry groups in which there was increased demand for skilled woman labor. In the clothing industry there was demand in all parts of the country for women who had done sewing either for their own household needs or had worked on army equipment. Training schools and apprentice shops were therefore established to train such women for the work required in the clothing industry. The aim of these training institutions was not to turn out thoroughly skilled high grade workers but to fit the women for specialized occupations in the clothing industry, such as buttonhole making, sewing on of buttons and fasteners, fancy sewing, plain sewing, quilting, etc., and for mending in their own and other people's households. In Wurttemberg the division of education of the women's bureau in the Ministry of Labor has established graded sewing courses and has thus gone farthest in giving unemployed women a thorough training. A course in hand sewing was followed by three courses in plain sewing, dressmaking, and cutting. Enrollment in a more advanced course was conditioned on graduation from the preceding lower course.

These courses were successful everywhere. Most of the women attending them could be placed in positions during their apprenticeship. Sewing and mending shops were established for those slower to learn. These shops received orders from private parties and public institutions and were self-supporting in spite of the fact that they were operated with only partly trained labor. These institutions have benefited especially those women who either had never before earned their living or were limited in their earning capacity through

household duties.

In the cleaning industry there were also difficulties in filling all vacancies. In Stuttgart a course in ironing and pressing was started in order to provide much needed ironers. The course had to be discontinued owing to lack of equipment and of work. Lack of proper training facilities was also the reason that a considerable number of situations for women pressfeeders that were vacant in Leipzig and

Stuttgart could not be filled.

Saxony has made special efforts to introduce home work for unemployed female textile workers. In Plauen a six weeks' training course in fillet lace making and mending was established but had to be closed owing to lack of raw material. In Dresden an attempt was made to introduce hair-net making, an industry formerly carried on in Alsace-Lorraine, but the work made too severe demands upon the visual capacity and nimbleness of the workers so that only a few of the unemployed women could carry it on. In Breslau women were taught to sew straw hats, but this is a mere seasonal occupation.

All these examples clearly indicate the experimental character of all these attempts to train women in an occupation and to place unskilled workers under conditions of a steadily changing demand for industrial labor. Conditions were much simpler in commerce, in which there is always a demand for qualified workers, especially for typists and stenographers. Finishing courses for women with insufficient training were currently held in all large cities. In Stuttgart brief courses in business correspondence and bookkeeping were opened for unemployed female school teachers and the results were very satisfactory.

This survey of the demand for woman labor in 1920 brings out three characteristic facts. First, although the demand varies greatly in the individual occupational groups, there is in all these groups a uniform undersupply of skilled and semiskilled workers. This undersupply can not be lessened by training unskilled workers in short-term courses during periods of unemployment, but only through systematic vocational training of the female youth. A second characteristic is the

lack of sufficient workers in all occupations which require that the worker live in the household of the employer. This aversion will cease if both contracting parties cooperate and if the new domestic service law be so formulated that its provisions combine domestic discipline with a certain degree of personal liberty. The third problem is the great number of women forced to earn their living who have dependents of whom they must take care. This problem can be solved only individually through the social energy and circumspection of the employment office.

## National Conference of Labor Women at Manchester, England.

CCORDING to the June, 1921, issue of The Labor Woman, a publication of the Labor Party of Great Britain, a conference of labor women was held at Manchester, April 27 and 28, 1921, attended by over 500 delegates representing 164 women's sections, together with divisional labor parties, local labor parties, trades councils, trade-unions, and national societies, the last named including the Women's Cooperative Guild, the Women's Trade-Union League, and the Association of Women Clerks and Secretaries.

Among the resolutions adopted along labor lines were the following: Recommending that the constitution of the National Labor Party be amended "so that four women representatives of the national executive committee should be nominated and elected by the national conference of labor women."

Demanding the establishment of credits for countries fallen into economic ruin, and urging that "such credits should be given to cooperative or nonprofit-making organizations."

Condemning the British Government for deciding on its own responsibility not to ratify the Washington Convention on maternity and calling for the immediate introduction of legislation making the provisions of such convention effective.

Supporting the "children of unmarried parents bill."

Agreeing with the Labor Party in "demanding provision either of

work or full maintenance for all unemployed workers."

Urging education and maintenance for all juvenile workers in periods of unemployment and "that domestic workers with no experience of living-in shall not be disqualified for unemployment benefit because they refuse to live in."

Protesting against the refusal of the Government to give equal pay and opportunity to men and women in the established civil service. Calling for the establishment of trade boards in all industries where

the workers demand such protection.

Calling for the introduction without delay of legislation to secure pensions for women with dependent children along the lines of the Labor Party's 1920 bill dealing with this subject.

## INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS AND HYGIENE.

## Coal-Mine Fatalities in the United States in 1920.

THE recent report of the United States Bureau of Mines on coalmine fatalities in the United States (Technical Paper 288) presents the statistics of coal-mine fatalities for the calendar year 1920. According to this report 2,260 men were killed by accidents at coal mines during the year, a decrease of 57 from the record of 1919. This reduction was accompanied by an increase of over 18 per cent in the output, the figures indicating that for every million tons of coal mined 3.50 lives were lost in 1920, as compared with 4.24 in 1919, the production per death in 1920 being greater than for any previous year.

When compared with 1919 the report shows that in 1920 there was a decrease of 64 per cent in deaths due to mine fires, of 38 per cent in deaths caused by explosives, and of 14 per cent in deaths resulting from explosions of gas and coal dust. There was also a decrease of

16 per cent in haulage accidents above ground.

The following table shows, by causes, the fatalities at coal mines during the calendar years 1919 and 1920:

FATALITIES AT COAL MINES, BY CAUSES, 1919 AND 1920.

	Number killed.		Increase	Percent-
Cause.	1919	1920	or decrease.	increase or decrease.
Underground: Falls of roof or face. Mine ears and locomotives. Gas and dust explosions. Explosives. Electricity. Mine fires Miscellaneous underground.	1, 100 381 191 206 69 22 108	1, 127 405 164 127 76 8 104	$   \begin{array}{r}     +27 \\     +24 \\     -27 \\     -79 \\     +7 \\     -14 \\     -4   \end{array} $	+ 2.45 + 6.30 -14.14 -38.35 +10.14 -63.64 - 3.70
Total underground	2,077	2,011	-66	- 3.18
Shaft	53	56	+ 3	+ 5.66
Surface:  Haulage Machinery Miscellaneous	93 28 66	78 28 87	-15 +21	-16, 13 +31, 82
Total surface	187	193	+ 6	+ 3, 21
Grand total.	2, 317	2, 260	-57	- 2,46

The following table shows the data relating to fatalities and production for the years 1907 to 1920.

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#### COAL-MINE FATALITIES AND PRODUCTION, 1907 TO 1920.

Year.	Average days active.	Men employed.	Men killed.	Fatalities.		Production	Average production per man (tons).	
				Per 1,000 em- ployed.	Per 1,000 300-day workers.	per death (short tons).	Per year.	Per day.
1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1911 1912 1913 1914 1914 1916 1916	231 195 220 220 225 238 207 209 235 251	680, 492 690, 438 666, 552 725, 030 728, 348 722, 662 747, 644 763, 185 734, 008 720, 971 757, 317	3, 242 2, 445 2, 642 2, 821 2, 656 2, 419 2, 785 2, 454 2, 269 2, 226 2, 696	4.76 3.54 3.96 3.89 3.65 3.35 3.73 3.22 3.09 3.56	6. 19 5. 45 5. 31 4. 97 4. 46 4. 70 4. 66 4. 44 3. 93 4. 25	147, 407 167, 407 174, 416 177, 808 186, 887 220, 945 204, 685 209, 261 234, 297 265, 094 241, 618	708 603 691 692 682 740 762 673 724 818	3. 06 3. 09 3. 15 3. 10 3. 29 3. 20 3. 26 3. 46 3. 48
1918 1919 1920	258	762, 426	2,580 2,317 2,260	3.38	3, 94	262, 873 1 235, 700 1 285, 700	890	3. 4

<sup>1</sup> Subject to revision.

The report shows the statistics by States, and the causes of fatalities are shown in considerable detail. There are included lists of permissible lamps and mining equipment and of permissible explosives.

## Mine Accidents in Alaska, 1920.

HE annual report of the territorial mine inspector of Alaska, covering the calendar year 1920, contains data relative to accidents occurring in and about the mines and milling plants of that Territory. During the year 1920 the total number of accidents reported as occurring at all lode mines and ore dressing plants was 311, as compared with 363 in 1919. There were 9 fatal accidents in 1920 and 13 in 1919; the accidents described as serious numbered 89 in 1920 and 82 in 1919. Of the 22 fatalities occurring in 1919 and 1920, 7 were caused by explosives and 4 by falls of rock or ore.

## Industrial Posture and Seating.

SPECIAL Bulletin No. 104, "Industrial Posture and Seating," issued under date of April, 1921, by the New York State Industrial Commission, embodies the results of an investigation made by the New York State Bureau of Women in Industry.

In the foreword of the report it is stated that in this study no stone has been left unturned to discover the best that human ingenuity has devised in the way of industrial seating. The relation of posture to health has been treated with great care. The principle and possibility of seats adapted to machinery and processes are firmly established.

The importance of proper posture at work has been recognized through studies of fatigue, and men in charge of production are beginning to see the relation between good posture and output.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For preliminary reports on this investigation see Monthly Labor Review of December, 1920, pp. 188-189; January, 1921, pp. 162, 163.

Occasionally designers of machines have taken into consideration the position of the prospective operators. A laundry pressing machine has been put on the market by a large manufacturing company which is emphasizing as one of the best selling points of such machine that the worker may either sit or stand while operating it.

Authoritative statements defining good posture are quoted in the bulletin and experiments in interchange of processes and rest periods are discussed. The bulletin has many illustrations, showing different kinds of factory chairs, foot rests, work tables, laundry and depart-

ment store seats.

The conclusions reached by this study are:

First. That posture must be varied.

Continuous sitting and continuous standing are both harmful. Ideally, conditions should allow the worker to vary his position at will, because of the rest and the enormous saving of energy that comes from a change of position during working hours.

Second. That work conditions should be such that correct posture is possible.

a. By providing a physiologically good chair.

b. By insuring a proper relationship of the different parts of the work place.

There is no one chair that is best for all industrial processes. To determine what chair is best for a particular process, the nature of the work to be done, the position of supplies and finished work, the equipment at hand, i. e., the height of bench, chair, place for foot rest, etc., as well as the height of the individual worker—all these must be considered. To provide a good chair is not enough; the important thing is to bring all parts of the work place into the best possible relationship.

# Earliest Positive Sign of Lead Absorption.

LL physicians are aware that it is impossible to detect the presence of lead in the human organism (as soon as it effects a lodgment there) by means of the familiar physical signs and symptoms of lead poisoning, such as the blue line on the gums, pallor, paralysis of the extensor muscles of the forearm, etc. These lateappearing phenomena constitute, not the skirmish line, but a mass attack, of the forces of lead poisoning.

There is a pretoxic period of indeterminate duration during which these phenomena are nonexistent, and, of course, not available as

guides to diagonsis.

Are there, then, any manifestations of lead absorption that indicate the invasion of the system by the latent poison before it has had time

to do its deadly work?

As long ago as 1914 Prof. P. Schmidt published conclusions, based upon his own experiments and the observations of others, to the effect that the toxic action of lead falls primarily on the red blood cells, producing the so-called basophile granulations. The presence of these abnormal corpuscles in the blood is deemed by Schmidt of diagnostic import.

Accordingly he maintains that a microscopic examination of the blood will reveal any incipient damage wrought by the toxic action of lead in season to ward off ulterior mischief by prompt prophylactic

The proposition is not a novel one. Pieraccini advocated this method at an earlier date, and many other experimenters have prac-

Bedeutung der Blutuntersuchen fuer die Diagnose der Bleivergiftung, p. 11.

ticed it with varying success. The procedure was discredited, however, by Teleky, who contended that basophile granulations could not be regarded as pathognomic since they occur in other morbid condi-

tions, as in malaria, cancer, and pernicious anemia.

But this is not quite ingenuous. It is like setting up a man of straw, and then toppling the figure over with the air of executing an exploit. The fact is, Schmidt never affirmed that the discovery of basophile granulations in the blood could be deemed conclusive proof of lead poisoning. On the contrary, he specifically declared, "This sign is not pathognomic." But he regards it as a valuable aid to diagnosis, especially when the usual clinical symptoms are absent;

that is, before they appear.

The critics who depreciate this test seem to forget that the differential diagnosis between lead poisoning and malaria, or cancer, or pernicious anemia, does not rest on one isolated sign. There are always present other characteristic and distinguishing symptoms by which malaria may be recognized. Besides, its clinical history is different from that of plumbism. It may not be superfluous to add that cancer also betrays its identity by the characteristic sign of malignancy. Then, too, in a case of pernicious anemia, an experienced diagnostician is no more likely to mistake the disease for plumbism than a farmer is likely to mistake beans for barley because "b" happens to be the initial letter in the names of both legume and grain.

But conceding that it is not possible to differentiate (from their appearance alone) between red blood corpuscles damaged by the action of lead and similar corpuscles injured by malarial parasites, there are certain signs by which the identity of the causal agent may be determined with a precision equal to that by which the identity of

an individual can be established by his finger prints.

For example, using the microscope as an instrument of precision, it is easy to demonstrate the presence of the malarial protozoa (*Plasmodium malariæ*) in the blood while the segmented hyalins are afloat in the circulating fluid. But the opportune moment must be improved if one would witness the transient phenomenon; for it is not a continuous performance. It is like the street parade of a circus. To see the pageant one must be at his point of observation at the right time.

If one fails to discover the parasite of malaria in the blood of a patient suffering from the disease, it is because the examination has been made either too early or too late. When the elusive plasmodium has been isolated and identified, however, the diagnosis is positive; for no other living organism has the same peculiarities, and no other

produces the same effects.

On account of its diagnostic importance, let the remark be repeated, that the protozoa of malaria can be found in the blood at only one stage of evolution in the parasitic cycle. If, when the miscroscopist is watching, the micro-organism swims into his ken, the evidence suffices. But at a later period the sign disappears.

The agglutination test in typhoid fever affords another analogy. Absence of the clumping sign does not discredit the diagnosis; but its

presence is significant, and must be accorded due weight.

Now it has been urged by Teleky and others that, in certain cases of unequivocal lead poisoning, no granular erythrocytes are demonstrable in the blood current, and that, therefore, the test is of no value.

The fact is incontrovertible, but Teleky's inference from the fact is not convincing. The fallacy of the deduction is obvious, for we know that the presence of basophile granulations in the blood stream is only a transient or intermittent phenomenon incident to lead absorption. It is recognizable only at intervals and for a brief period. At other times it is not distinguishable at all.

So the tubercle bacillus vanishes sometimes from the sputum of a tuberculous patient, only to reappear after an indefinite period of

latency.

Schoenfeld finds basophile granulations in the blood of leadinfected persons in a majority of cases. Ever since 1911 he has had the opportunity, as physician of the Leipsic city sick fund, to make

positive diagnosis of plumbism by means of blood tests:

"On the basis of 1,043 blood examinations, I have come gradually to the conviction that this test is indispensable, occupying the foremost place as a means of detecting the earliest stage of plumbism and making it possible to adopt effective measures for preventing the further extension of the poisoning."2

This author relates the clinical histories of two girls who, after only three days' employment as painters (decorating ceramic ware), were found to exhibit the characteristic blood changes, though all other

signs and subjective symptoms were absent.

Münz reached the same conclusion: "Basophile granulation of the erythrocytes is, according to our experience, the first symptom of lead poisoning, appearing before signs of any other sort are manifest.

These granular red corpuscles are found in the blood for a variable period, ranging from a few weeks to two years. The blood test may often determine, therefore, whether a workman's illness is of occupational origin or otherwise. As Schmidt observes, "The microscope is an absolutely nonpartisan arbiter between employer and em-

ployee."

Dr. L. Grobe, physician in a white-lead establishment at Leipsic, corroborates Schoenfeld's testimony and reports the observations made by himself at the ceramic works of George Nitzke. Formerly this plant was most scourged by plumbism among all the Leipsic factories. Now for five years it has been wholly free ("bleierkrankungsfrei"). The exemption is demonstrable by the absence of granular red blood cells.3

With the cumulative volume and weight of evidence attesting the value of this sign, it is somewhat surprising to encounter the assertion of a contributor to an American medical publication in which, ignoring experience, he dismisses the whole subject with the remark that basophile granulation is "greatly overrated as a diagnostic sign" of plumbism.4

It is right to challenge every theory and demand that all new discoveries be verified before they can be accepted; but scientific skepticism sometimes becomes extreme.

From the foregoing it is obvious that the worker in lead or any of its preparations must look to the industrial physician to safeguard

<sup>Zentralblatt fuer Gewerbehygiene, Jan., 1921, pp. 3-7.
Zentralblatt f. Gewerbehygiene, Mar., 1921, p. 53.
Journal of American Medical Association, Mar. 26, 1921.</sup> 

him against the toxic action of this subtle poison. Otherwise he can not be forewarned. There are no premonitory symptoms of lead invasion. The workman has no microscope with which to examine his own blood; and if he had one, he could not isolate and indentify the abnormal leaded corpuscles or distinguish them from the healthy red cells.

Under the usual conditions of employment the lead worker has no inkling of danger until his system becomes saturated with the metallic salt. Then suddenly colic, tremor, paralysis, and other ominous symptoms descend upon him, like the wolf on the fold.

It is the office and duty of the industrial physician, therefore, to anticipate and ward off the sequels of cumulative lead absorption

by means of preventive treatment.

But he can himself detect the ambushed peril in only one way. The searchlight of the microscope alone can penetrate the obscurity and reveal the presence of the lurking foe. Hence it is obligatory upon the shop or factory physician to utilize the microscope as an instrument of precision to scan blood samples taken from every lead-handling employee, at frequent intervals, in order to curb and control the potential toxicity of the absorbed lead while it is still innocuous and quiescent in the circulation. If he neglects this duty, his is "the very cipher of a function."

## WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION.

## Workmen's Compensation Reports.

### Utah.

THE Industrial Commission of Utah has published its second report, which is the first biennial report of the commission, being also the fifth biennial report of the Bureau of Immigration, Labor and Statistics, which office has been brought under the

supervision of the industrial commission.

The volume covers the operations of the various labor laws of the State, including mine and factory inspection, and an account of the agricultural and industrial condition of the State. Statistics relative to the workmen's compensation act are given on pages 48 to 149, showing the operation of the law for the years 1918–19 and 1919–20 separately. The waiting period during the earlier year was 10 days, while for the second year it was but 3 days. During the earlier year ending June 30, 1919, there were 73 fatalities, 3 cases of permanent total disability, 95 permanent partial, and 8,718 injuries causing temporary disability or calling for medical attention. The days lost on account of temporary injuries total 103,879, compensation paid amounting to \$117,850, besides medical, etc., benefits of \$63,048. Permanent partial disabilities called for the payment of \$72,096.98, while fatal cases totaled \$166,186.60, the total amount paid in all cases during the year being \$419,181.58.

During the second year there were 99 fatalities, no cases involving permanent total disability, 126 involving permanent partial disability, and 9,958 involving temporary disability or requiring payment of medical benefits. The temporary injuries caused a time loss of 107,813 days, compensation amounting to \$192,165 besides medical, etc., benefits of \$92,519. The total cost of permanent partial disabilities is given as \$112,114.96 and for total fatal cases \$235,238.75, all benefits for the year amounting to \$632,037.71. The various tables show the cause of injury by extent of disability, pay roll exposure, pay rolls, premiums and losses by industry classification, dependency, and cost in fatal cases, and a detailed analysis of in-

juries causing permanent partial disability.

# Virginia.

IN ITS second annual report, covering the year ending September 30, 1920, the Industrial Commission of Virginia notes the amendments by the 1920 legislature which followed the recommendations of the commission, most of its suggestions being favorably acted upon. The principal changes increased the maximum weekly com-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Report of the Industrial Commission of Utah, July 1, 1918, to June 30, 1920. Salt Lake City, 1920. 473 pp.
<sup>2</sup> Second annual report of the Industrial Commission of Virginia for the year ending Sept. 30, 1920. Richmond, 1921. 47 pp.

pensation from \$10 to \$12 per week, the maximum total for permanent total disability from \$4,000 to \$4,500, and for death cases from \$3,000 to \$3,600. The waiting time was reduced from 14 days to 10, with a proviso that disability continuing for more than 6 weeks should be compensated from the date of the injury. Medical and hospital service is allowed for 60 days instead of but 30 as formerly.

Mention is also made of the action of the commission in recommending a vocational rehabilitation act in anticipation of the Federal statute which subsequently became a law. The commission is now engaged in laying plans for the coordination of the work under State and Federal funds. It is pointed out that the provisions for rehabilitation are not only humane but also economical; but the important factor of accident prevention is without suitable consideration in the act. "Whatever is done is largely voluntary, and in many cases comes only after some dangerous machine or method

has proved costly by causing injuries."

Emphasis is laid on the savings effected by the act. "During the year ending September 30, 1920, 7,245 cases were adjudicated by the Industrial Commission of Virginia, and the awards issued thereon aggregated \$720,674.40, exclusive of the costs of necessary medical and surgical attention." Administrative costs, including all incidental expenses, amounted to \$55,811.77, or an average of \$7.70 per case. Not only is this a great saving of litigation, but as "under the common-law doctrine of liability only 15 per cent of the employees injured in the course of their employment were able to recover damages in court" it is evident that an act which provides for practically all injured employees not only relieves great hardship but saves the State the burden of caring for objects of charity.

Receipts of the commission during the year amounted to \$57,872.67, which with the balance on hand show an aggregate of \$82,306.51. This is derived from a tax on compensation insurance premiums, and with current reduction in both the tax rate and the premium rate some question was felt as to the future income of the commission. However, the balance at the end of the year was greater than at the

beginning, so that no serious shortage was anticipated.

Accidents causing disability of not more than seven days are not reported. The number reported for the year causing disability of more than 7 days was 7,139. Estimating the number of short-time accidents on the basis of the American Table for the Distribution of Accidents, the commission gives 5,184 as the number of accidents causing disability from one to seven days, or a total of 12,323 for

the year.

On September 30, 1919, there were 492 cases pending, which with the 7,139 reported up to September 30, 1920, make a total of 7,631 cases to be handled during the year. Awards were made for permanent disability and death in 630 cases, 5,834 were closed by the payment of proper compensation or did not exceed the waiting period, while 289 cases were disallowed. This leaves 878 cases pending, mostly of recent occurrence.

A number of tables are given, the first of which shows that the number of cases of temporary total disability for which awards were made was 5,384, causing disability for 197,804 days and awards of

\$168,472.15, which is less than \$1 per day. Permanent partial disability cases numbered 457, causing 155,366 days lost, with awards amounting to \$203,761.89. One case of permanent total disability was given compensation for 2,800 days, the award being \$3,377. In 172 fatal cases the face value of all awards adjudicated was \$328,590, besides \$16,473.40 for funeral expenses. The total awards for the year were \$720,674.44.

The second table compares the distribution of accidents as to time loss with the American accident table, showing the Virginia experience to follow the American table quite closely with the exception of permanent total and fatal injuries. The rate for permanent total injuries for the year was 9 per 100,000 in Virginia as against 63 in the American accident table; while for fatal injuries the rate was 1,476 in Virginia as against 776 in the American table. "This is due, no doubt, to the predominance of mining and probably largely to the amount of construction that was being done in the latter part of 1919."

Other tables show conjugal condition and sex, immediate cause of death, ages, and awards in fatal cases, ages of injured workmen, duration of temporary total disability, experience by industrial groups and by localities, part injured, causes of injury, etc.

Attention is called to the inequitable distribution under the law of benefits to surviving dependents. For example, 24 widows with no children receive an average of \$7.19 per week each, while 37 widows with one child each, making 74 dependents, receive an average of \$3.68 for each dependent. Still more striking is the situation of 7 widows with 5 children each or a total of 42 dependents, whose average benefit is \$1.64 per week. It is suggested that this inequitable result is avoided in many States by an additional allowance for each child, a provision that is lacking in the Virginia law.

#### Alberta.

THE report of the Workmen's Compensation Board of Alberta covers the year 1920.¹ By extensions this act now includes practically all industries with the exception of retail stores and railways running outside the Province. Amendments to the act give the board the power to inspect and make safety provisions in establishments coming under the law, while another change brings within the provisions of the act all employees in an industry covered by the act whether or not they are exposed to the hazards of the industry. The maximum limitation of \$2,500 for death benefits is removed, so that a widow is now compensated until death or remarriage, receiving in the latter case the sum of \$480 in lieu of further compensation.

The system of insurance is exclusively in a provincial fund. The total amount collected by assessment during the year, with interest, was \$460,183.98, which with the balance on hand amounted to \$710,744.65. Of this sum \$194,965.68 was expended for claims, with \$48,104.95 for expenses and equipment. The board is charged with the administration of mine rescue work, the cost being charge-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Third annual report of the Workmen's Compensation Board of the Province of Alberta for the year ending Dec. 31, 1920. Edmonton, 1921. 40 pp.

able to this same fund; this amounted this year to \$37,978.70, leaving a balance of \$429,695.32, an increase of \$179,134.68 over the previous year. There is, besides this, the medical aid fund, sustained by assessments of 2 cents per day for workmen in industries in schedule 1 (the mining group), and 1 cent per day in other industries. Receipts and balances for the year amounted to \$84,966, of which \$48,970.16 was paid out in medical and hospital accounts and \$6,855

in expenses, leaving a balance of \$29,140.84.

There were 6,418 accidents reported during the year, of which 2,690 were in schedule 1; other industries gave rise to 3,728 accidents. Compensation was paid in 3,089 cases, 545 claims being disposed of without the payment of compensation. In 187 cases only medical aid was required, and in 1,681 no applications for compensation were received. The number of persons employed on December 31, 1920, in industries coming within schedule 1 was 12,347, the pay roll for the year being approximately \$19,380,475. In schedule 2 the number of workers was approximately 26,531 on December 31, the pay roll for the year being about \$37,939,779. These figures do not include employees of the Federal or provincial governments.

The tables show receipts and payments for the fund by classes, medical aid, number of accidents for which compensation was paid, injuries to minors and persons of advanced age, accidents finally disposed of during 1920, month of occurrence of accidents, time loss and average age of persons injured, week of termination of temporary disability, permanent partial disability cases, dependents in fatal

cases, etc.

For accidents causing permanent partial disability the days lost averaged 77.22 per case. For those causing temporary total disability the average was 20.87 days each; while temporary partial disability caused an average loss of 34.58 days each. The total expenditures for nonfatal accidents during the year was \$173,231.97.

## LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

Forty-first Annual Convention of the American Federation of Labor.1

THE American Federation of Labor held its forty-first annual convention at Denver, Colo., June 13–25, 1921. At the opening session the committee on credentials recommended the seating of 509 delegates, representing 93 international and national unions, 4 departments, 32 State branches, 113 central bodies, 46 local trade and federal labor unions, and 5 fraternal delegates.

On the first day addresses were made by Hon. Dewey C. Bailey, mayor of Denver; Hon. Oliver H. Shoup, governor of Colorado; Mr. James C. Bulger, president of the Colorado State Federation of Labor; Hon. Edward Keating; and Mr. Samuel Gompers, president

of the American Federation of Labor.

On the second day of the convention addresses were made by both the British fraternal delegates, Mr. J. H. Thomas and Mr. James Walker, who advocated disarmament. In discussing unemployment and other pressing economic problems, Mr. Thomas said "overproduction is a mere bogey. It is underconsumption that we are suffering from." He said that the old system of exchange has broken down. The United States is able to supply the needs of foreign countries, but they are unable to buy. He graphically described some of the economic dislocations resulting from making Germany pay indemnity to France in coal.

Mr. U. M. F. Bush, the fraternal delegate from the Dominion Trades and Labor Congress, spoke of the difficulties Canada had had with men in the ranks of labor who start dual or secession movements and are doing more than employers to disrupt Canadian unionism.

Mr. Glenn E. Plumb spoke on the subject of industrial democracy. Among other speakers at the meeting were the delegates from the Women's International Union Label League and the National Women's Trade Union League, and Bishop J. Henry Tihen, of Denver.

The convention's attention was called especially to the statement in the executive council's report that bold and audacious reconstruction of method and process is required in the conduct of basic industries. The committee appointed to consider the report declared that there should be "a rational system which will secure to the whole body of workers the full opportunity for productive employment under conditions that make for security and comfort and thus contribute to the progress and solid worthy advancement of humanity at large."

## Summary of Resolutions and Recommendations Adopted.

AMONG the resolutions and recommendations adopted by the convention were the following:

Instructing the secretary of the American Federation of Labor to write each Senator to support the congressional resolution calling for an investigation of the Mingo County miners.

<sup>1</sup> Advance copy of proceedings.

Urging the United States Senate to investigate the lockout of

For the assistance of the Textile Workers of America in their efforts to raise the workers in the southern cotton mills to a higher labor level and directing the executive council to bring about a congressional investigation of conditions in such mills.

That the American Federation of Teachers be more substantially

assisted by the American Federation of Labor.

Instructing the executive council to back the movement for complete organization of the lumber industry in the Northwest.

For the further organization of office workers.

For the appointment by the president of the American Federation of Labor of a committee of five to investigate and report as soon as possible on unemployment.

That every effort be made to secure sufficient appropriation for

the United States Employment Service.

For the instruction of State federations and central bodies to request State, county, and municipal governments to make immediate provision to carry out public works now under consideration.

Instructing the executive council to cooperate with affiliated organizations of civil-service employees to secure legislation giving such employees the right to hearing and appeal upon demotion or discharge.

That the executive council cooperate with representatives of affiliated organizations to secure legislation liberalizing the United States pensions and workmen's compensation acts.

For the appointment of a committee on grievances for colored

railway freight handlers and station employees.

That the executive council be instructed to continue its efforts to secure legislation forbidding the importation of labor from any country until such time as conditions in our country have become more stabilized.

For the exclusion of Asiatics.

Calling upon the convention to protest against "the campaign for the destruction of the United States Department of Labor" and recommending that the executive council be instructed and authorized to continue its effort to preserve that department intact.

For the increase and broadening of the services of the United States

Department of Labor.

That steps be immediately taken to bring about the permanent organization of the nonpartisan political campaign.

For the continuation of the Federation's special committee on health

insurance, such committee to report to the next convention.

Protesting against labor conditions in the packing industry and instructing the executive council "to aid to the utmost the workers in that industry."

For legislation to control the meat packers.

That the cooperative bureau of the American Federation of Labor be continued.

That an exhaustive investigation be made of "self-instituted cooperative societies" not operated in accordance with bona fide Rochdale principles.

That cooperative enterprises should stand on their merits, subsidies or subventions to such undertakings being declared dangerous. For legislation in re cooperative banks and credit unions similar

to that in Massachusetts.

Indorsing the Personnel Research Foundation and authorizing the continuance of the relation established between that organization and the American Federation of Labor.

For the continuation of the information and speakers' bureau of

the American Federation of Labor.

Urging the establishment of conference boards of organized workers

and employers.

That to establish democracy in industry the trades-union must be recognized "as the basic unit and not the group as limited by the single shop or establishment."

Against compulsory investigation of industrial disputes.

That the law establishing the Kansas Court of Industrial Relations

be repealed.

Against the fixing of wages according to the cost of living, the statement being made that "there are but two avenues to higher standards of living for our people as a whole"—the elimination of waste and increased productivity; and that a special committee be appointed to investigate wages and cost of living.

Against the legal fixing of the wages of adult male workers in private

employment.

Against retail or general sales tax or any other tax on consumption, and demanding the retention of income and excess-profits taxes until war costs have been met.

For the issuance of monthly statement by the United States Department of Labor showing the cost of manufacture of those staple articles which form the basis of calculation in fixing the cost of living. For the continuation of the work of the Federal Trade Commission

For the continuation of the work of the Federal Trade Commission in securing and publishing information on ownership, production, distribution, sales, and profits in the basic industries.

That central bodies consider the practicability of establishing daily

labor papers.

Counseling constant alertness on the part of organized labor to prevent perversion of the schools.

Approving the appointment by the executive council of a perma-

nent committee on education.

For the amendment to the Volstead law so as to permit the manufacture and sale of wholesome beer.

Indorsing the printing trades-union 44-hour week campaign.

Against demanding the 6-hour day and the abolition of overtime. That international and national organizations which do not now admit women to membership give early consideration to this matter. That the executive council make every effort to forward the passage

of the Sheppard-Towner maternity bill.

For the indorsement of proposed legislation for the relief of tradeunionists with reference to the issuance of injunctions and other matters.

For a congressional resolution to prevent the courts declaring laws

invalid.

That the executive council assist as much as possible the accredited railroad organization to secure proper legislation "providing for Gov-

ernment ownership and democratic operation of the railroad systems of the United States."

Reaffirming recognition of the Irish Republic.

Repudiating the soviet dictatorship.

That the executive council continue its efforts to have the laws of the International Federation of Trade-Unions amended so as to make possible the affiliation of the American Federation of Labor by guaranteeing its autonomy and independence.

That the United States call a conference on disarmament.

## Secretary's Report.

THE secretary reported that the federation's total balance on hand April 30, 1920, after all expenses were paid was \$203,980.46. The total receipts of the year, including this balance, were \$1,036,-150.42. On April 30, 1921, there was a balance of \$178,262.72, of which \$17,044.76 belonged in the general fund and \$161,217.96 in the defense fund for local and federal labor unions.

The membership in 1920 was 4,078,740; the average membership for the fiscal year 1921 is 3,906,528. This includes 36,247 local unions in 110 national and international unions and 941 local and federal labor unions. The voting strength in 1920 was 41,307, and

in 1921, 40,410.

Reports from international organizations, which are not complete, however, show that there were 1,635 strikes during the past year, involving 191,934 persons. The total expenditure to sustain members on strike was \$8,462,175.09, which includes \$213,474.65 donated

by other unions for the assistance of the strikers.

A total of \$3,046,300.62 was paid out in death benefits by affiliated international organizations during the past year, \$1,209,903.49 in sick benefits, and \$903,461.49 in unemployment benefits. These figures do not cover benefits paid by local unions and therefore represent only a part of the total amount paid out by trade-unions in this connection.

Officers for 1921-22.

THE president, the eight vice presidents, the secretary, and the treasurer of the past year were all reelected. Their names and affiliations are given below:

President, Mr. Samuel Gompers (cigar makers). First vice president, Mr. James Duncan (granite cutters). Second vice president, Mr. Joseph F. Valentine (molders). Third vice president, Mr. Frank Duffy (carpenters). Fourth vice president, Mr. William Green (mine workers). Fifth vice president, Mr. W. D. Mahon (street railways). Sixth vice president, Mr. T. A. Rickert (garment workers). Seventh vice president, Mr. Jacob Fischer (barbers). Eighth vice president, Mr. Matthew Woll (photo-engravers). Secretary, Mr. Frank Morrison (typographical union). Treasurer, Mr. Daniel J. Tobin (teamsters).

Mr. William J. Spencer (building trades) and Mr. James J. Forrester (railway clerks) were elected fraternal delegates to the British Trades Union Congress, and Mr. John O'Hara (hatters) fraternal delegate to the Dominion Trades and Labor Congress.

The 1922 convention will be held in Cincinnati, Ohio.

# LABOR LAWS AND DECISIONS.

# Workmen's Compensation Legislation of 1921.

ITH the enactment of the Georgia law in 1920, 43 States of the Union have now superseded the liability system by one of fixed awards for industrial injuries. The rapid extension of this system, so different in many respects from that formerly in use, has led to a considerable degree of variety in details and a measure of avowed experimentation. Each year, therefore, discloses a considerable amount of new legislation either of an amendatory type or by way of a complete substitution of the earlier laws. This year the legislatures of Arizona and Minnesota redrafted entirely their compensation laws, the former after an experience dating from 1912 and the latter from 1913. The new laws differ considerably from the old, and they may be fairly assumed to represent the results of experience.

In Missouri a new law was enacted this year, not as the result of experience, but to provide for conditions following the rejection by referendum in 1920 of the act of 1919, which never came into operation. The new law embodies many of the features of the earlier act,

but adds important provisions.

Other legislation of the year was purely of an amendatory nature, and it must be recorded that some of the earnest efforts of administrative bodies to remedy defects, and appeals for more equitable provisions in the light of experience were fruitless on account of the unwillingness of certain legislators to act on suggestions made to this end. Of the States whose legislatures met in 1921, and which have compensation laws, the following report no change in legislation: California, Colorado, Hawaii, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, New Hampshire, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and West Virginia.

It is the purpose of the present article to summarize the new legislation, and to note the substantive changes made by amendment in existing laws. The same may be said of the general trend of current legislation as was said last year, i. e., that it lies in the direction of more adequate and certain relief, and the simplification of procedure to accomplish the desired end of prompt and equitable consideration of claims on account of industrial injuries. The States will be

considered in alphabetical order.

#### Arizona.

THE Arizona act of 1921, like its predecessor, is an elective statute, election being presumed in all hazardous employments. An

extensive list is given making coverage fairly complete.

Employers of less than three workmen or operatives are not included, nor are agricultural and domestic service. Minors, whether legally or illegally employed, and aliens are included under the act, but any person whose employment is but casual and not in the usual

course of trade or occupation of the employer is excluded. Provision is made for rejection by employees, if filed prior to the time of injury. Public employees are included absolutely.

Injuries covered must be of an accidental nature "arising out of or in the course of employment," and do not include occupational

diseases.

The compensation for disability is based on 65 per cent of the average monthly wage, the maximum payment being \$84.50, and the minimum, \$30, with an addition of \$10 per month if the injured worker has total dependents residing in the United States. Payments for temporary disability may not exceed \$8,450, payable during 100 months; but if the disability is permanent, benefits continue during For partial disability 65 per cent (law says 55 in one place) of the loss of earning power is awarded, not more than \$60 per month, and no wages in excess of \$130 per month are to be considered as basis of computation. For specific injuries (mutilations, etc.) 55 per cent of the monthly wage is to be paid for fixed periods, not more than \$71.80 per month, or less than \$30, this amount to be in addition to the compensation for temporary total disability caused by the injury. No compensation is payable unless the disability extends beyond seven days, but in case of its continuance payments date from the time of the injury.

The compensation for death includes burial expenses not to exceed \$150, and an award to widows, dependent widowers, children under 18, and other dependents, if none of the foregoing survive. The widow or dependent widower receives 35 per cent of the average wage, with 15 per cent additional for each child under the age of 18. Orphan children receive 25 per cent, if one, and 15 per cent additional for others, equally shared, if more than one. The maximum percentage is  $66\frac{2}{3}$  in any case, and no wages in excess of \$130 per month will be considered. Payments to widow or widower cease on death or remarriage, but a widow remarrying receives two years' benefits in a lump sum. Nonresident aliens receive 60 per cent of the benefits

above provided.

If there is no dependent the sum of \$850 is to be paid into a rehabili-

tation fund of the State.

Medical, surgical, and hospital benefits must be given in all cases, and artificial members furnished where needed—these services extending for 90 days from the time of the injury, though they may be prolonged to one year in the discretion of the industrial commission. Any continuing payment may be commuted to a lump

sum not exceeding \$6,500.

Insurance is compulsory either in the State fund or other authorized agency, unless satisfactory proof of ability to make payments The earlier law was administered by the courts, but the is shown. present act provides for the establishment of an industrial commission of three members, appointed for six-year terms, with the usual powers of adopting regulations, rendering awards, subpænaing witnesses, etc. They also have general powers of administration regarding industrial legislation in the State, including conciliation, employment offices, the enforcement of safety laws, etc. Injunction proceedings have been brought against this commission on grounds of constitutionality, and an injunction has been issued restraining it from acting. An appeal has been taken to the supreme court, and until its decision is rendered the status of the commission will not be known. The act specifically provides that with the exception of certain sections, a holding of unconstitutionality of separate provisions will not invalidate the remainder of the act. The sections creating the industrial commission were not named as vital sections, but the question arises as to how the law could be administered without the commission.

#### California.

ALTHOUGH there was no amendatory legislation in California this year, mention may here be made of the passage of an act returning to the State treasury the sum of \$100,000 appropriated in 1913 for the use of the State compensation insurance fund, this assistance not being required.

### Connecticut.

"HE first amendment to be noted affects section 5341 of the Statutes and eliminates the provision which declares that any disease caused by an injury shall be classed as a natural consequence of the injury. Section 5346 is amended by the insertion of a definition of "compensation" so that it now includes sums paid out for burial expenses, medical, surgical, etc., fees; while section 5347 is amended so as to require hospital service to be rendered to injured workmen, at cost. On and after July 1, 1922, the rate of compensation is to be 65 per cent of the average weekly earnings instead of the present rate of 50 per cent, and changes are made throughout the law to accord with this new basis of compensation. Section 5350 is amended to give resident dependents preference as to compensation over dependents who are not residents of the State. Provision is now made by amendments to section 5352 permitting proportionate awards for the loss or loss of use of any member of the body affected by the injury. The commissioners are given authority for due cause shown within two years after the injury to extend the time for making a claim for compensation (normally one year), for a period not exceeding two years from the date of the injury.

Section 5388, which relates to definitions of terms, is amended in several respects. "Employee" is now made to include any salaried officer, policeman or fireman, irrespective of the method of his employment or appointment. It is also provided that in order to get compensation it is not necessary for them to surrender any claim they may have to pensions or custom of paying full wages during disability. Members of an employer's family living in his dwelling house are now brought under the statute if the full wages of such member of the family are reported on the pay rolls on which the

premiums are based.

"Injury" is defined specifically to include "any disease which shall be contracted during and caused by the employment."

#### Delaware.

AMENDMENTS to the law of Delaware extend medical aid to 30 days instead of two weeks, and advance the maximum cost to \$100, from \$75. Additional provisions authorize the industrial

accident board to require in its discretion that the employer furnish additional surgical, medical, etc., services and supplies. The charges for these services are not to exceed the regular rates for like services and supplies to other individuals, and the board retains jurisdiction over the character of services and supplies to be furnished, and may also adjust disputes with regard to charges for the same.

The schedule of injuries is considerably enlarged, covering loss of

thumb, fingers, toes, and impairment of vision.

Other changes relate to the construction of the law, among other things, authorizing proceedings by a surviving parent, guardian, or next friend, where the deceased employee was a minor, and directing the payment of any award, not fully paid off at the time of the death of an injured employee, to his nearest dependent.

In passing upon the earning power of an employee the value of gratuities, lodging, etc., in any subsequent employment is to be

considered.

#### Idaho.

THE statute of this State was the subject of several amendments, mostly of an administrative nature. Thus, the administration of insurance under the compensation law, which was in 1919 transferred from an insurance manager to the department of commerce and industry, was again changed into the hands of the department of finance, the department of commerce and industry being abolished. The State insurance fund is, therefore, administered by the department of finance, the State treasurer still retaining custody of the fund and making disbursements therefrom on warrants or vouchers authorized and signed by the commissioner of the department of finance.

Substantive changes are also made. Range laborers are excluded, being specifically classed with agricultural workers not covered by the law. A surety bond is required of any individual corporation or association agreeing to furnish medical, hospital, and surgical attendance required by the act. Specific awards for designated injuries are additional to all other compensation, but may not exceed the weekly maximum provided for total disability. The items of total deafness of one ear and of both ears are added to the compensation schedule, the first entitling to 35 weeks' and the second to 115 weeks' compensation. Employers under the act are declared liable for employees of contractors or subcontractors where the latter have failed to comply with the terms of the law, if the employer would have been liable in case of direct employment.

Many changes of administrative detail are made affecting process, one of the most important of these being the provision for hearings by a single member of the board instead of an appointed committee of arbitration. Appeals are provided for to the district court of the county from any decision of the board, if made within 30 days, but where the employer appeals and an award is affirmed, without reduction, interest at the rate of 7 per cent per annum must be paid from the date of award by the board to the date of payment. Uninsured employers may be summoned before the board to show cause, and unless compliance with the law appears the board may file a

criminal complaint.

Added sections authorize the board to prescribe safety devices and standards and require the performance of any act necessary for the protection of the life, health, and safety of employees. Its rules are binding, and failure to comply therewith is a misdemeanor.

### Illinois.

QUITE a number of amendments were made in the Illinois law, most of them providing for increases in the amounts of compensation paid. However, the first amendment to be noted is one that extends the coverage of the act to all employees of employers under the act engaged "in any department" in the classes of work

declared to be hazardous.

The maximum recovery for a widow without children and in corresponding cases is advanced from \$3,500 to \$3,750. This includes cases where children alone survive, where there are totally dependent parents, and where there are only other dependents than the above classes. Payments to beneficiaries are so regulated as to prevent the rapid exhaustion of benefits payable to widows and children of employees receiving high wages, so as to secure the better distribution

of payments.

Payments to a widow with one child are advanced from \$3,750 to \$4,000 as a total maximum, and if two or more children, from \$4,000 to \$4,250. Benefits for temporary total disability range from \$7.50 as a minimum to \$14 as a maximum per week instead of \$7 and \$12 as formerly. The same limitations apply where the total disability is permanent. This weekly minimum is increased where there are children, and the sum of 50 cents per week is added to the \$8, \$9, and \$10 minimums formerly established where there were 1, 2, or 3 or more children. Similar provisions affect the established maximum, and where there are 1 or 2 children \$15 per week is now payable and if 3 or more, \$17. The provision that permitted the reduction of the total amount of benefits when a child reached the age of 16 is stricken out.

Salaries of members of the commission are advanced from \$5,000 to \$6,000 per annum, while the chairman is to receive \$7,500. The salary of the secretary is also fixed at \$5,000; while arbitrators are

to receive \$4,200 instead of \$3,000 as formerly.

Other changes relate to procedure, one forbidding any examination of the injured employee on the date of the hearing, another requiring the employee to accept hospital as well as medical and surgical treatment if necessary to his recovery, under penalty of forfeiting compensation. Provisions relating to records, reviews, and appeals are also amended, the object being to avoid delay either unintentional or by dilatory action.

Maine.

THE compensation law of Maine was amended by chapter 222 of the Acts of 1921, approved April 9. The principal changes are those reducing the waiting time from ten days to seven; increasing the compensation basis from three-fifths to two-thirds of the injured worker's average weekly wages; making the weekly maximum payment \$16 instead of \$15, and advancing the total benefits payable for disability from \$4,200 to \$6,000. The increase of the wage allow-

ance applies to specific injuries as well as to total disability and death. Death benefits are also increased from a maximum of \$3,500 to \$4,000, but payments to a widow are terminable on her remarriage. Where the injury is due to the action of a third party, the employee is given the right to bring action to recover damages, if the employer or insurer fails within 90 days so to do. Other amendments relate to procedure, but do not affect the general result.

### Minnesota.

Like the earlier law in Arizona, that of Minnesota was administered by the courts, but chapter 81 of the Laws of 1921, effective June 1, 1921, creates an industrial commission to administer the new compensation act of the State (ch. 82). This commission supersedes prior officials having charge of industrial legislation, the office of labor commissioner and the State board of arbitration being abolished. The commission consists of three members appointed for terms of six years, the governor making the appointment by and with the advice and consent of the senate. This commission administers not only the compensation law but all other legislation affecting workers,

including women and children.

The compensation system provided is elective, as was the earlier law, which is in fact in large measure reenacted in the present statute. Election is presumed on the part of both employer and employee in the absence of notice to the contrary, and may be changed on 30 days' written notice to the other party in interest with affidavit of service filed with the commission. Rejection of the act entails liability in suits for damages with the customary defenses abrogated. Public service is included, and all private employments except common carriers by steam railroad, domestic service, and farm laborers. Persons whose employment is casual and not in the course of the employer's trade are also excepted. Farm labor may be brought under the act by joint election. Accidental injuries, not intentionally self-inflicted nor due to the intoxication of the employee, are compensated if they cause disability for more than one week; but if disability continues for four weeks or over compensation dates from the commencement of the disability. A list of 23 occupational diseases is embodied in the law for which compensation is to be allowed as for accidental personal injuries.

The basis of compensation is the same as in the earlier law, 663 per cent of the average wages, but the weekly maximum for disability is \$18 instead of \$15 and the minimum \$8 instead of \$6.60. Temporary disability is compensable for not more than 300 weeks, and permanent disability during its continuance, the maximum amount being \$10,000. The schedule for permanent partial disabilities is

retained.

Death benefits range from 30 to 663 per cent of the daily wages, according to relationship and number of dependents. The highest amount payable is \$7,500, no weekly payments continuing for more than 300 weeks, except in the case of a wife or child. A widow, on remarrying, receives a lump-sum settlement amounting to one-half of the amount of compensation remaining unpaid in case there are no children; if there are children the unpaid balance goes to them. A

dependent widow, alone, receives 40 per cent of the daily wage of the decedent, and a dependent widower, 30 per cent. In case of one child, either widow or widower receives 50 per cent of the daily wage, if two or three children, 60 per cent, and if four or more, 66\(^2\) per cent. An orphan alone receives 45 per cent; 10 per cent additional is allowed for each additional orphan, the total not to exceed 66\(^2\) per cent of the wages. A funeral benefit of \$150 is provided in all cases, and if there are no dependents the employer must pay \$100 to the State treasurer. Medical and surgical aid, including artificial members and apparatus must be furnished for not more than 90 days at a cost not exceeding \$100, though the commission may require the employer to furnish further treatment. The commission has control of charges for this class of service.

Aliens occupy the same status as citizens. A member of the commission may act in the adjustment of claims and disputes, or a referee may be designated. From such decisions an appeal may be taken to the commission and from the decision of the commission an appeal lies to the supreme court for errors of law, if made within 30

days.

Private employers must insure their compensation with an authorized carrier, no State fund being provided, though exemption may be allowed on a showing of financial responsibility.

Separate laws require the reporting of accidents, provide for the

regulation of insurance rates, etc.

#### Missouri.

THIS act is largely copied from the act of 1919, but adds the provision of a State fund as an alternative method of providing insurance. By its title the act was to be "compulsory as to the State, its counties, and municipal corporations and other public employers, unless their employees reject the act." However, the act itself specifically excludes the State and its subdivisions of whatever sort. Private employments are defined and included in accordance with the provisions of the act of 1919. The compensation basis is also the same, though the maximum weekly payment for disability is \$20 instead of \$15, the minimum remaining unchanged at \$6.

The State fund is to be administered by the commission as a competitive self-supporting system without liability on the part of the State. The State treasurer is custodian, and provision is made for reserves, dividends, reinsurance, etc. In general, rates must be fair, and may be adjusted according to the experience of the employer insured. The superintendent of insurance is given control of classi-

fications of risks and rates.

The compensation provisions practically follow those of the law of 1919, reproduced in Bul. 272 of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

#### Nebraska.

A CHANGE affecting public service was brought about by striking out the provision excluding persons employed "not for the purpose of gain or profit by the employer," which practically eliminated State and municipal employees from the benefits of the law. This is said to extend the act to about 40,000 such employees. An-

other amendment removes the limit of \$200 for medical aid, so that it may now be continued according to the needs of the case, subject to the control of the compensation commissioner. Compensation for mainings, etc., according to the schedule, are to be in

addition to the amount paid for temporary total disability.

Another change continues payments to children until they reach the age of 18 instead of cutting them off at 16 as heretofore. Hearings will be facilitated by permitting them to be conducted by one of the assistants of the department instead of exclusively by the commissioner; while section 131 is made more clearly to establish the power of the commissioner to control settlements, none being valid that are not in conformity with the compensation schedule.

### Nevada.

THE changes in the Nevada law were few in number, one providing that regularly organized and recognized volunteer firemen in any city or town shall be recognized as employees of such city or town, and be compensated on the basis of a monthly wage of \$150.

An additional allowance of \$30 per month is to be granted in cases of injury causing total disability and rendering the workman so physically helpless as to require the services of a constant attendant.

The third change corrects an error in the phrasing of a provision relative to permanent partial disability, making the maximum of \$60 per month for the period of one month the measure of 1 per cent of disability, instead of the rate being a flat one as appeared from the former wording of the law.

New Jersey.

AN IMPORTANT change in the New Jersey statute admits non-resident alien dependents to rights of compensation, thus end-

ing their exclusion provided in the original enactment.

Other changes relate to the manner of conducting trials in common pleas courts where the award made by the compensation bureau has been appealed from. The trial may no longer be de novo, but must be based exclusively on a transcript taken at the first hearing. Testimony can not be modified or new testimony offered. Another amendment relates to the computation of the waiting period, the day that the employee is first unable to continue at work being counted as one whole day of such period, irrespective of the question of whether or not he received full wages for that day.

### New Mexico.

THE amendments in this case affected the schedule for partial disability, increasing the amount of compensation for certain mutilations. Thus the loss of the second finger at the distal joint calls for 8 weeks' compensation instead of 5, while a similar injury to the third finger calls for 8 weeks' compensation instead of 4 as formerly. Loss of the fourth finger at the proximal joint entitles to 12 weeks' compensation instead of 9, at the second joint 8 weeks' instead of 6, and at the distal joint, 6 weeks' instead of 3. Toe injuries are likewise made subject to higher rates.

The waiting period is reduced from 14 days to 10 days, the term during which medical, etc., aid must be furnished being correspond-

ingly reduced, but the maximum liability is advanced from \$50 to \$150.

### New York.

EIGHT chapters of the laws of 1921 affect workmen's compensation, namely, chapters 60, 539, and 540, amending the Workmen's Compensation Law; chapter 50, recodifying the Labor Law; chapter 642, amending chapter 50; chapters 552 and 554, amending the Civil Practice Act and the Code of Civil Procedure; and chapter 409, amending the Insurance Law. A summary of the effects of these amendments has been furnished by the industrial

commissioner and is reproduced with slight changes.

Commissioner's powers and duties.—Subdivision 2 of section 21 of chapter 50 confers upon the industrial commissioner as administrative head of the department the administration of the Workmen's Compensation Law, except in so far as such administration is vested in the industrial board. Subdivision 2 of section 3 of the Workmen's Compensation Law, as amended by chapter 60, details his compensation, powers, and duties at length, placing in his hands such matters as docketing claims, giving notices, instituting actions, administering funds, imposing penalties, assessing expenses, etc. Section 22 of chapter 50 empowers the commissioner to sit without vote with the board in the consideration of compensation business other than reviews and makes him custodian of compensation records.

Board's powers and duties.—Section 27 of chapter 50 confers upon the industrial board all powers and duties of the Workmen's Compensation Law except purely administrative functions. It enumerates certain of these powers. Subdivision 2 of section 3 of the Workmen's Compensation Law, as amended by chapter 60, duplicates the enumeration and includes an additional detail relating to contests of appeals from awards. In brief the industrial board is a compensation court with original and appellate jurisdiction over

compensation cases.

Referees.—The State industrial commission had 12 or more deputy commissioners for the initial hearing and determination of compensation claims. Their decisions were reviewable by appeal to the commission. In continuance of the plan section 19 of chapter 50 substitutes the title "referee" for the title "deputy" and requires the commissioner to appoint as many referees as may be necessary. The powers and duties of the referees are set forth in sections 19,

38, and 39.

Payment of compensation.—From the outset the Workmen's Compensation Law has suggested that the employer advance relief to his injured employee immediately after the accident and without waiting for adjudication by State authority. It has declared that the employer shall be reimbursed for such advance relief upon conditions which have been modified by amendments to sections 20, 20–a, and 25. Some employers have voluntarily adopted the practice of making advances of relief in regular weekly and biweekly installments representing the percentage of wages that will be due if and when an award shall be made. Certain local offices of the industrial commission have encouraged the practice. Chapter 540 of the Laws of 1921 amends section 25 of the Workmen's Compensation Law with a view to making the practice as nearly universal as may be. It

requires advance periodic payments beginning on or before the twenty-fifth day after disability or the fifteenth day after the employer has knowledge of the alleged accident. The employer may escape such payments by formally notifying the commissioner that he controverts the injured workman's right to compensation. Failure to pay an advance installment within 25 days after it is due will increase it 10 per cent. Governor Miller advocated legislation for this purpose in his annual message. Chapter 540 is effective July 1, 1921.

Uninsured employers.—Chapter 539 amends section 26 of the Workmen's Compensation Law to require an uninsured employer to make payment of an award against him within 10 days after it is due or, if he appeals, to deposit the amount of it with the commission as security. If he fails so to do, any party in interest may file a copy of the award in the county clerk's office with all the effect of a court judgment.

Assessment of carriers for adjourned hearings.—Chapter 540 empowers the commissioner to assess \$5 upon an insurance carrier for each adjourned hearing held at its request. Such collections will be applied to the expenses of the department in administering the compensation law. This legislation is expected to secure prompter determination of claims.

State fund disbursements and investments.—Chapter 60 amends sections 91 and 93 of the Workmen's Compensation Law relative to the signature of vouchers, etc., to conform to the Labor Law's changes in the headship of the department.

Mutual insurance corporations.—Chapter 409 amends the Insurance Law to permit a mutual employers' liability and workmen's compensation insurance corporation to do certain business specified in section 70 of the Insurance Law, as amended by chapter 408, and to increase the annual premium cost requisite for doing business from \$25,000 to \$50,000.

Appeals.—Chapter 552 amends section 593 of the new Civil Practice Act to exempt workmen's compensation claimants from the giving of security to perfect appeals to the court of appeals if the decision of the appealate division is not unanimous or if consent is obtained for the appeal. The Code of Civil Procedure will be suspended by the Civil Practice Act and other laws, October 1, 1921. (Ch. 199.)

Repealed sections.—Chapter 60 repeals sections 62, 63, 65, 66, and 75 of the Workmen's Compensation Law, relating to expenses, principal office, investigations, secretary, and report. These subjects are covered in the Labor Law, as recodified by chapter 50.

### North Dakota.

COVERAGE under the North Dakota statute is slightly affected by an amendment excluding executive officers of business concerns who receive salaries in excess of \$2,400 per year.

The allowance for burial expenses is increased, now being \$150 as

a maximum instead of \$100.

Other provisions are administrative in their nature, one undertaking to render more effective the method of collecting premiums for the State insurance fund, another requiring employers to report pay rolls in response to notice from the bureau instead of annually as heretofore; while a third places certain expenses on the bureau, and

appropriates an additional \$5,000 for its use. A majority of the compensation bureau shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business, provided that representatives of the employers and the employees constitute a part of such majority. An order of a member of the bureau, when confirmed by a majority, shall have the same force and effect as an order of the bureau.

### Ohio.

FOUR separate acts were passed amending the compensation law of this State, though one of them related only to the audit of the State fund, which the auditor of the State is authorized to make "at such time as he may deem necessary," and one to the issue of bonds by taxing districts, which are to be purchased by the industrial com-

mission.

Other amendments affect the substantive provisions of the law, the most important being the addition of occupational diseases to the disabilities for which compensation is payable. The industrial commission is authorized to fix premium rates to maintain a State occupational disease fund until January 1, 1924. On the basis of this expense occupations and industries are to be classified according to the hazard, and premium rates for this fund are to be adjusted accordingly. The law lists 15 diseases or injuries which are compensable, corresponding largely in their description and the description of processes to the British schedule. Anthrax; glanders; lead, mercury, phosphorus, and arsenic poisoning; poisoning by benzol or certain derivatives thereof or by volatile petroleum products; carbon bisulphide or dioxide poisoning; wood alcohol, brass, or zinc poisoning; compressed-air illness; infection or inflammation from irritant oils, dust, fumes, etc.; and cancer or ulceration of skin or eye due to carbon, pitch, etc., are enumerated. Claims must be submitted within two months after the disability begins, and claimants must have been 90 days resident in the State or in the employ of an employer under the act. Physicians are required to report occupational diseases, and employers must use "reasonably effective devices," as prescribed by the industrial commission to prevent disease. The maximum benefit for disability is advanced from \$12 per week

to \$15; compensation may also be allowed for "serious facial or head disfigurement" impairing opportunity for employment.

Other amendments relate to the disclosure of information relative to the business of employers, making the maximum penalty \$1,000 instead of \$500, and including mechanical, chemical, or other industrial processes in the information that is to be held confidential. The commission is given added authority with regard to self-insurers

who are negligent or unfair, and may revoke their privilege of self-insurance in its discretion, thus compelling them to become members of the State fund. The commission is further given added power with regard to reviewing awards in which claim is made for continuing disability. Appeals to the court on this point are no longer possible, being limited to "jurisdictional" grounds, going to the basis of the claimant's right. Other amendments relate to appealed cases, the admission of new evidence being barred. The

same section limits attorneys' fees to 20 per cent of any award up to \$500 and 10 per cent on any excess, no fee to exceed \$500.

## Oregon.

AN AMENDMENT to the Oregon law permits railroads and street railways engaged in one or more hazardous occupations other than the maintenance and operation of their road, to elect to be subject to the act in respect of such other occupations, while not being subject thereto as to maintenance and operation.

No person, firm, or corporation may engage as an employer in any hazardous occupation under the act until a statement in writing has been filed with the commissioner, giving name and address, and

a description of the employment.

Considerable change was made in the provisions of the law relating to experience ratings, its principles being extended, while a companion change places upon the commission the duty of establishing standards or rules to promote organization and educational work in accident prevention. Compliance with these rules entitles employers to further reduction in premium charges, amounting to 5 per cent for each year covered by a written statement of such compliance filed with the commission. Credits may be made to employers contributing to the industrial accident fund when a surplus of \$300,000 is accumulated, this provision taking the place of the 50 per cent surplus originally contemplated. The catastrophe fund is to become available in the event of an accident causing the death or permanent total disability of more than one workman instead of causing "great liability." The method of computing the rates of contributions to this fund is set forth.

The law originally allowed \$30 per month to a widow or widower, with \$8 additional for each child under 16 years of age, limiting the total to \$50 per month. This limitation is now stricken out as was the similar limitation on the amount payable to orphans, whether they were such at the time of the death of the injured employee, or became such by the subsequent death of a surviving parent.

A rather elaborate schedule of amounts payable in the case of temporary total disability was enacted this year, providing for unmarried workers, workers with wife or invalid husband, but childless, and for different numbers of children, also for widows or widowers with one or more children, the rates ranging from \$30 to \$97 per month. A method of computing the monthly wage is embodied in the law, and a provision for commutation to a lump sum in all cases where payments for permanent partial disability continue for a time not exceeding 24 months is added.

A new provision is made for cases of minors unlawfully employed; where the employer is misled as to the facts the commission has authority to pass upon the question of good faith, and if it believes that the employer was innocent, compensation is payable under the act. If good faith does not appear, compensation shall be paid, plus 25 per cent of the sum, not exceeding \$500, to be paid to the accident

fund of the State by way of penalty.

Employers defaulting in premium payments, notified of the fact by the commission, must display such notice so as to inform the workmen thereof. Failure to do so is a misdemeanor. The commission is authorized to employ an attorney to aid in the collection of contributions to the fund from delinquent employers. Appeals from decisions of the commission may now be taken within 60 instead of 30 days as formerly, the case to be tried as other civil cases, the limitation of 10 days for the filing of a transcript by the commission being stricken out.

## Pennsylvania.

THE Pennsylvania compensation law was amended by changing the liability of the employer who fails to comply with the requirements as to insurance by assessing a penalty of \$1 per day for each person in his employment during the continuance of his failure to secure insurance or obtain exemption as a self-insurer.

A second amendment provides for compensation for serious and permanent disfigurement of the head or face, payments to continue

for not more than 150 weeks.

A third amendment relates to procedure, and merely changes the phraseology of the act of 1919 (ch. 310) authorizing the transfer of suits from the courts to the compensation board.

### Rhode Island.

THE law of this State was amended in a number of respects by chapter 2095, Acts of 1921. The first amendment relates to election by the employer, and strikes out the requirement of notice to the workmen by posting or keeping posted copies of a statement to the effect of such election. Notice is to be sent to the commissioner of labor instead of to the commissioner of industrial statistics; similar changes are made throughout the law where the commissioner of industrial statistics was originally named.

The waiting time is reduced from two weeks to one week, compensation beginning the eighth day after the injury, and with the beginning of the disability, if incapacity extends beyond four weeks. Medical aid is furnished for eight weeks instead of four, but a limit of \$200 is newly fixed. The provision of this section holding the employer liable even though the physician or hospital has not given notice of the rendition of services to injured workmen is stricken out. The maximum weekly benefit may now be \$16 instead of \$14 as formerly.

The article on procedure is amended by requiring the clerk of the superior court to notify the commissioner of labor of any changes made in an award on appeal to the courts. Memorandum agreements are to be filed with the commissioner of labor instead of with the clerk of the superior court, and are to be approved by him before becoming enforceable. Modifications of agreements on review are to be approved by the commissioner of labor instead of by the superior court.

The ninth section of Article V, relating to insurance, is amended so as to restrict its application to personal injuries to employees, excluding all policies of insurance against loss by explosion of boilers, flywheels, or other single catastrophe hazards. New sections are added to this article requiring every insurance company writing policies covering personal injuries to employees to notify the commissioner of labor of the issuance and cancellation of its policies. They are also to furnish the commissioner of labor with requested information either for the administration of the act or for statistical purposes. Failure of the companies to comply is a misdemeanor.

Article VI, relative to accident reporting, is amended so as to apply to accidents causing one week's incapacity instead of two weeks' as before. The provision relative to agreements between employers and employees, found in section 1 of this article, is stricken out. The matter of accident reporting is further regulated by requesting the public utility commission to furnish the commissioner of labor with duplicate reports of all accidents reported to it which are otherwise reportable directly to the commissioner of labor. Municipalities and the State are also made subject to the requirement of accident reporting by striking out the exemption clause originally found in section 8 of article 7.

### South Dakota.

THE first amendment to this act inserts the words, "furnished by the employer," in the section penalizing employees for failure

or refusal to use a safety appliance.

Recovery by the employer against a third person responsible for the injury of his employee is to be for the benefit of the injured worker or his personal representative as to any excess above the amount of compensation and cost of collection paid by such employer. Another amendment is in the reverse direction from that of the New Jersey Legislature noted above, and excludes nonresident dependents from the benefits of the law.

The maximum weekly payment for disability or death is advanced from \$12 to \$15 per week, and the minimum from \$6.50 to \$7.50.

Other changes increase the salary of the deputy industrial commissioner from \$1,800 to \$2,400 per annum, and authorize hearings to be held at other than the place of injury where an injury occurs in a remote place and some other place would be more convenient to the parties and witnesses.

#### Texas.

THE only amendment reported in this State resembles one noted under the Idaho law, excluding ranch laborers from the scope of the law, grouping them with farm laborers and domestic servants, as exempt from benefits.

#### Utah.

THE amendments to the compensation law of Utah relate to procedure rather than to the substantive provisions of the laws. Thus, penalties collected for false statements by employers go to the State treasury instead of to the State insurance fund; a wider option is given the industrial commission as to the time of readjusting premium rates; and a method of computing the average weekly earnings is presented in detail, giving the rule to be followed in each of several cases. The commission is given authority to modify its findings of fact with regard to self-insurers at any time in its judgment when such action is necessary. Pay-roll expenditures must be reported semiannually at the time when employers make their premium payments into the State insurance fund. Self-insurers and the State fund are subjected to the tax required by law to be paid by insurance companies writing compensation insurance. The detail as to capital stock and surplus required of insurance companies is stricken out.

The provision of the act retaining the right to sue in case of fatal injuries is eliminated, leaving compensation the exclusive remedy where the law is applicable. The right to sue third parties where they are responsible for the injury is also withdrawn, the employee being limited to the compensation provisions, and the right of recovery against the third party being assignable to the insurance carrier or person liable for the payment of the compensation; this rule holds in fatal cases as well as in others.

The provision establishing a minimum benefit of \$7 per week is modified so that where the wages are less than \$7 the wages earned

shall be the amount of compensation.

In lieu of the payment of \$750 into the State treasury in case of death with no dependents, the employer or insurance carrier is required to pay an amount equal to 20 per cent of the death benefit payable where wholly dependent persons survive. The commission is given discretion in making awards to partly dependent persons so that they shall be in keeping with the circumstances and conditions of dependency existing at the date of the injury. It may also extend payments "indefinitely" where beneficiaries are in a dependent condition at the termination of the period for which benefits have been awarded under the act, taking into consideration "all reasonable circumstances." A new provision added to this section makes benefits to nonresident alien beneficiaries one-half the normal amount except to residents of Canada and of dependencies of the United States. These additional sums are to be paid out of the fund accruing from payments where no dependents survive. Another change gives to widows remarrying during the period of benefit payments onethird of any unpaid benefits in a lump sum at the time of remarriage.

The provisions with regard to medical and hospital treatment are liberalized, the commission being given discretion to increase the amount to be expended for this purpose above the standard of \$500 named in the law if "it shall find that in particular cases such an amount is insufficient"; a similar enlargement is made with regard

to the burial expenses, ordinarily not to exceed \$150.

The power to fix attorneys' fees is newly vested in the commission, while the State insurance fund is given the same right as other insured parties to appeal to the supreme court in cases involving the lawfulness of awards. A new provision prescribes the steps to be taken by an injured employee who decides to leave the locality or the State during the period of treatment of the injury; failure to comply forfeits right to compensation for the period of absence. A new section prescribes penalties where employees fail to report injuries received or to report for medical treatment within the time prescribed.

Reports of the commission are to be biennial instead of annual as heretofore; and the initial sum of \$40,000 appropriated to establish the State fund is directed to be returned to the State treasury when

it can be done without impairing the solvency of the fund.

## Washington.

THE amendments to the law of Washington are mainly made by chapter 182, though the "administrative code" (ch. 7, Acts of 1921) affects the law by placing its administration in the department of labor and industries in a division of industrial insurance. At the

head of the department is a director who has power to appoint and deputize an assistant director, to be known as the supervisor of industrial insurance. This official has charge and supervision of the division of industrial insurance and, with the approval of the director, is to appoint and employ adjusters, medical and other examiners, inspectors, clerks, etc., necessary to administer the law. This involves a change in terminology, the director of labor and industries taking the place of the commission and the supervisor of industrial insurance superseding the medical aid board.

The Washington statute is applicable to enumerated industries coming within the description "extrahazardous." The legislature this year added to the list general warehouse and storage, transfer, drayage and hauling, warehousing and transfer, fruit warehouse, and packing houses. This section was further amended by authorizing the director of labor and industries through and by means of the division of industrial insurance to declare any occupation or work extrahazardous and to be under the act. This may be done either on

application or on its own motion.

The definition of employer is extended to include one who contracts with another to engage in extrahazardous work. A new section is added providing for temporary employers, classifying as such all who engage in extrahazardous work after June 30, 1921, for the first time since June 30, 1918. This status controls for one year, during which time his contribution to the accident fund is the class rate for his industry increased 33½ per cent. If he continues in the business he ceases to be classed a temporary employer and unless the accident cost for the year has exceeded his contribution the 33½ per cent increase is either refunded or credited to him out of the accident fund.

Another new section makes it the duty of county assessors to furnish annually a list of the employers within their counties on blanks supplied by the industrial insurance department for the use of

that office.

A new provision is enacted with regard to nonresident alien beneficiaries, limiting benefits to such persons to 50 per cent of the customary amount unless otherwise provided by treaty. If the law of the country of residence of the beneficiary would debar citizens of the United States from compensation rights, no compensation whatever shall be paid.

A penalty is provided for any physician who fails to make report as to the condition of injured workmen treated by him, together with the information required by the act. Physicians are also to furnish all necessary assistance to injured workmen in preparing their claims.

Public employees cared for by other provisions of law or ordinance are excluded from the scope of the State compensation law, while the obligations of workers and employers letting contracts are made more explicit. Medical attendance required must be "efficient and up to the recognized standard of modern surgery" instead of "suitable and wholesome" as previously directed.

Statistics are to be compiled such as "will afford reliable information upon which to base operations of all divisions" of the department

of labor and industries.

The provision of the law relative to merit rating is recast, and the procedure to be followed is more accurately outlined. Additional

classes are created to provide for better distribution of industries on the basis of their experience, seven being provided for instead of five.

The subject of contracts for medical and hospital service is the last to be dealt with, the director of labor and industries, through the division of industrial insurance, being authorized to require a physician or hospital association to give bond conditioned upon any abandonment of such contract. Provision is also made for the abrogation of contracts on complaint where unsatisfactory conditions are found. The contract may be either directly terminated or the order may be contingent on a satisfactory improvement within a specified time

### Wisconsin.

THREE separate enactments directly affect the compensation law of Wisconsin, while a fourth (ch. 534), accepting the vocational rehabilitation law of Congress, provides for certain cooperation on

the part of the industrial commission.

The first act (ch. 414) is the "medical panel" act, its purpose being to require the establishment of a panel of physicians by employers and insurance carriers, from which injured workmen may select the physician of their choice within the limits of this panel. The number of physicians available in the community is to be considered, and no panel need consist of more than three physicians except in counties where there is a city of the first class, where the maximum is five.

The second act (ch. 451) deals mainly with the administration of the law, the first change being one which authorizes the employer by affirmative election to bring in domestic and other employees under the coverage of the act, as well as those employed in the usual class

of his trade or business.

The second provision of this act relates to the giving of a written notice of an injury. Equivalent to such notice is any actual notice given within 30 days to the employer or to a person designated by him to receive such reports. The name of such person must be posted by the employer in one or more conspicuous places about the premises. Testimony based on autopsies may be refused if it appears that there was a willful failure to use reasonable effort to notify the opposing party or the industrial commission at least 12 hours before the autopsy; or if it was performed by a coroner for another purpose than that expressly authorized by statute. The commission may in its discretion refuse to make an award until an autopsy is held in accordance with its directions.

An important amendment authorizes the commission to proceed with a determination of facts on its own motion. This prevents employees from losing their rights by failure to institute proceedings in their own behalf either by reason of fear or for any other cause. Delay in making awards, if chargeable to the employer and not to the insurer, entails a penalty upon the former, though the provision remains unchanged as to the penalty on insurers for dilatory conduct.

The right of self-insurance granted on an application is to be based not only on financial ability, but also on a readiness to agree to faithfully report all injuries and to comply with the rules of the commission relative to the administration of the act. Permits may be revoked, not only on the discovery of financial incapacity, but on failure to carry out this agreement; while a self-insurer insuring

his liability in an insurance company or interinsurer not licensed to operate in the State, automatically forfeits his status as a self-insurer. Another provision as to insurance requires policies to cover the whole of the employer's risk. Heretofore certain classifications mentioned in the policy were said not to cover all the operations, complicating the situation and jeopardizing the interests of injured workmen. Contracts of insurance must now grant full coverage unless the industrial commission specifically consents in writing to a different form of insurance. In order to secure a more effective observance of the provision of law requiring employers to insure their liability, delinquent employers may be enjoined from proceeding with the conduct of their business until the court is satisfied that suitable provision has been made for the insurance of such liability.

The provision allowing 30 days as the time within which proceedings in court should be brought where court review was asked for was repealed. This leaves the 10-day limitation prescribed in

the act in full control.

The last statute to be noted (ch. 462) affects the amount of awards where partial disability temporarily reduces the earning capacity. The award is no longer 65 per cent of the weekly wage loss, as the act formerly provided, but is "such proportion of the weekly indemnity rate for the total disability as the actual wage loss of the injured employee bears to his average weekly wage at the time of his injury." Thus an employee who had earned \$20 a week, and suffers disability reducing his earning capacity \$5 weekly, or one-fourth, would receive an indemnity to equal one-fourth of the total disability benefit based on his original earning capacity, or one-fourth of \$13, the same result that would have been produced under the original phraseology. More effective is the amendment that increases the annual maximum that may be taken into account as the basis of compensation awards from \$1,125, or \$22.50 per week, to \$1,300, or \$26 per week. This increases the maximum weekly indemnity from \$14.63 to \$16.90. This provision of an annual maximum is made applicable to employment generally instead of only to employees on steam railroads as formerly.

Instead of fixing \$750 as the limit of compensation for disfigurement, the amount may not exceed one year's earnings. Another amendment relates to the reduction of benefits to persons over 55 years of age. The reduction may affect only awards for permanent disability, the awards for temporary disability not being subject to change. An additional provision is made for employees over 70 years of age, who shall be subject to a 20 per cent reduction, and if over 75 years of age to a 25 per cent reduction of the normal award for permanent disability. The same principle is applied to minors suffering permanent disability, though with the opposite effect. Temporary disabilities are to be computed on the basis of present earnings, the earnings after attaining the age of 21 years to be made the basis of only those awards which are due for permanent disability.

## Wyoming.

CITY or town firemen and city or town policemen are brought within the scope of the law by an amendment classifying them as "extra-hazardous occupations." Another extension of coverage is made by striking out the provision making the law applicable

only where three or more persons were employed continuously, so that all employers in the occupations listed are now under the act without reference to the number of persons employed.

Medical and hospital aid may be required up to \$200 instead of \$100 as formerly; the maximum for burial is also advanced from \$50 to \$100.

# California Department of Labor and Industrial Relations.

T ITS recent session the California Legislature consolidated the various commissions and offices having to do with labor into a new department bearing the above title. The offices included are the industrial accident commission, the commission of immigration and housing, the industrial welfare commission, and the bureau of labor statistics. The powers and duties of the various offices are retained by them, the measure being one of consolidation

rather than of internal reorganization.

However, other acts affect somewhat the relative functions of some of these offices, as one conferring upon the industrial accident commission the duty of inspecting scaffolds created by section 402(c) of the Penal Code and chapter 48, Acts of 1913, and the regulation of the construction, operation, and maintenance of elevators in buildings during the course of construction, provided for by chapter 275, Acts of 1913, these duties formerly devolving upon the bureau of labor statistics. A similar change applies to the act relative to temporary floorings in building operations (chapter 590, Acts of 1911). On the other hand the power of the commission over boiler inspection, granted by chapter 202, Acts of 1917, was taken away by a repeal of that statute.

# Variations in School Attendance Laws.

A CHART showing State compulsory school standards affecting the employment of miners has recently been published by the United States Children's Bureau which reports that all States now have compulsory school attendance laws.

In 5 States attendance is required until 18 years of age, in 2 of these in certain districts only; and 3 until 17; and in 32 until 16. One State requires attendance until 15, 6 others and the District of Columbia until 14, and 1 State requires attendance until the age of 12 years, but applies this to illiterates only.

The exemptions in the majority of the States, however, greatly restrict the application of the law. Exemptions for employment or upon completing a specified school grade are the most frequent. In 4 States children are specifically permitted to engage in work of an agricultural character, 3 of these States having no age provision for such work. Fourteen other States have indefinitely expressed exemption provisions which may be very loosely interpreted. Several States exempt a child, without any age or educational provision, if his services are necessary to support himself or others.

Several of the States demand a school attendance of only 12, 16, or 20 weeks annually. Even in States where city children must go to school 8 or 9 months in the year, the required attendance for

rural children is considerably less.

## Legislation for Part-time School Attendance.

TWENTY-TWO States now have compulsory provision for continuation school attendance.

In 3 of these States, however, the establishment of such schools is not compulsory, and in 1, the school authorities are merely empowered, not compelled, to establish part-time schools and to require attendance. The age limit to which the compulsory attendance provisions apply varies, 10 States requiring attendance up to 18 years of age, 1 State up to 17, and 11 States up to 16. The amount of attendance is from 4 to 8 hours weekly; the laws of each State either specify or imply that this period shall be counted as part of the child's legal working hours.

The law allows no exemption in 8 States. The exemptions vary in other States, 3 of which excuse a child who has concluded the eighth grade. Evening school attendance is now provided by only 12 States, as the need for such schools has been largely obviated, at least for children under 16, by the progress made in day and continuation school legislation.

In the majority of these 12 States the law includes only minors over 16 who can not speak, read, or write English with specified proficiency, and in 1 State the law applies to aliens only. In some States there is only the general requirement of "regular attendance." Other States specify a weekly attendance of from 4 to 8 hours.

# International Seamen's Code.1

PAMPHLET of 174 pages has just been issued by the International Labor Office describing the attitude of the different Governments toward this code and giving an account of the work already accomplished by the Commission on an International Seamen's Code and the Joint Maritime Commission.

Previous to the holding of the second International Labor Conference at Genoa, Italy, June 15 to July 10, 1920, the International Labor Office addressed a questionnaire to the governments of all maritime countries to secure their opinions "as to the possibilities of establishing an International Seamen's Code and what its general principles should be." The replies vary considerably. The United States points out that its Seamen's Act, "being very much in the nature of a code, demonstrates the possibility of making an international code for seamen." The Argentine Republic, Belgium, and France think such a code possible, while Finland is of the opinion that any detailed international legislation for seamen "would hardly seem expedient." Germany regards the establishment of this code as impossible at present. Great Britain considers that the practicability of the plan depends upon the "willingness or otherwise of all maritime countries to agree to adopt and enforce a reasonable and proper code." Greece stresses the fact of the many problems involved in the proposition and "reserves the right to submit a special memorandum on the subject to the conference." According to the Netherlands, "the time has not yet come" for carrying out the idea, and Norway considers that putting such a

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Sources: The International Seamen's Code, Geneva, Switzerland, 1921. Press releases from the American Correspondent of the International Labor Office, July 4, 1921.

proposal into effect would be very difficult. Spain favors a postponement of the undertaking, and Sweden states that such legislation should "only embrace vessels employed in foreign shipping."

The report of the Commission on the International Code for Seamen and the debates and decisions on this subject by the Genoa conference are contained in the document referred to above.

The following recommendation was made by the conference:

In order that, as a result of the clear and systematic codification of the national law in each country, the seamen of the world, whether engaged on ships of their own or foreign countries, may have a better comprehension of their rights and obligations, and in order that the task of establishing an International Seamen's Code may be advanced and facilitated, the International Labour Conference recommends that each member of the International Labour Organization undertake the embodiment in a seamen's code of all its laws and regulations relating to seamen in their activities as such.

To carry out the recommendations of the commission and of the Genoa conference, the governing body of the International Labor Office appointed a Joint Maritime Commission of five representatives of shipowners, five representatives of seamen's organizations, and two members of the governing body. The methods of procedure suggested by this commission are included in the publication, "The International Seamen's Code." In accordance with the proposals for the preparation of such code and the proposals of the Joint Maritime Commission the following questionnaire has been drafted and the request made that replies be furnished before July 1, 1921, so that a report may be made at the next session of the conference in October, 1921:

1. What measures have already been taken or are contemplated by your government for the establishment of the national codes called for by the recommendation of the

Genoa conference?

(In connection with the formulation of national codes, it is of interest to note that an attempt has already been made in France by a commission presided over by Mr. Grunebaum-Ballin to assemble in one draft law all existing legislation referring to articles of agreement and all other questions concerning the protection of seamen. The draft is very complete in its scope, nothing comparable having been done in any other country, and the text is therefore given in an appendix hereto [the pamphlet on the International Seamen's Code above referred to] for the assistance of governments when proceeding to codify their maritime laws in accordance with the Genoa recommendation.)

2. What is the opinion of your government with regard to the program of work approved by the Joint Maritime Commission in connection with the elaboration of the

International Seamen's Code?

3. What preliminary suggestion has your government to make, in connection with the International Seamen's Code, bearing upon seamen's articles of agreement?

# Decree Providing for Compulsory Care of Health of Young Workers, Belgium.<sup>1</sup>

ROYAL decree issued in June, 1920, and effective three months later, provides for compulsory care of the health of young persons under 18 years of age employed in Belgian industries. The law provides for a medical examination during the first month of employment, an annual examination, and special examinations at such intervals as are necessary for those whose

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Royaume de Belgique. Ministère de l'industrie, du travail, et du ravitaillement. Bulletin du Service Médical du Travail Bruxelles. 1921. pp. 3–5.

health is found to be in such a condition as to make more frequent

examinations advisable.

Employers are obliged to keep a record of all employees under 18 years of age which shall be open to physician inspectors at all times, and must advise the inspector within 15 days of the hiring of each employee under 18. They also must bring to the attention of the attending physicians those young persons whose absences are frequent because of sickness or who are in an habitual state of ill health, and must provide well heated and lighted rooms for the use of the inspectors, with such conveniences as will enable the physicians to make the examinations properly and quickly.

The examinations are made by the physicians of the medical service of the Ministry of Labor and no fees are charged for these services although the employer is allowed, subject to the approval of the ministry, to provide and pay for a physician to make the examinations if they are carried out according to the directions of the ministry. The worker also is allowed to present a certificate from his own physician showing that he has been examined, but in this case can not hold the employer responsible for the medical fee. The law forbids the employment of young persons who refuse to submit to the provisions of the decree.

# Canadian Labor Legislation.

THE June issue of the Canadian Labor Gazette summarizes the legislation of interest to labor enacted by the provincial legislatures of Ontario, Alberta, and British Columbia. The principal items noted are given below.

#### Ontario.

AN amendment to the factory, shop, and office building act advanced the minimum age for the employment of children in shops from 12 years to 14 years, except members of an employer's family working in a shop attached to the home. The factory inspector is newly charged with the duty of reporting violations of the minimum wage act as regards the posting of notices of orders. The inspector is also authorized to enforce the law as to seats for female employees when he considers such provision feasible in view of the nature of the employment.

The provincial employment service may provide for the transportation of workers procuring employment through the Government employment bureau, but only on condition that the employer agrees

to reimburse the agency.

The minimum wage act was amended by giving the board power, either upon petition of employers or employees or on its own motion, to vary, suspend, or revise any of its orders in accordance with special or changed conditions in any industry or establishment, and also to make local variations if conditions justify.

Various laws affecting the employment of children are amended so as to prevent conflict with the newly enacted adolescent school attendance act, which comes into force September 1, 1921, and

requires attendance at school until the age of 16 is reached.

## Alberta.

THE compensation act of this Province was amended chiefly by way of the enlargement of the benefits provided. A flat rate of \$10 per week for total disability is changed to 55 per cent of the average weekly earnings of the workman during the 12 months previous, payable during disability, either temporary or permanent. Permanent partial disability is to be compensated by the payment of 55 per cent of the wage loss, but where the impairment does not exceed 10 per cent of the earning capacity, a lump sum may be substituted. Lump sums are permissible in no other case except on application of and by agreement with the beneficiary. Allowances to widows and invalid widowers are raised from \$30 to \$35 per month and for orphan children to \$12.50 per month for each child under 16 years of age, instead of \$10 as formerly, the monthly maximum being also advanced from \$40 to \$50.

A novel provision in compensation legislation is one that allows for the payment of benefits to a sister, aunt, or foster mother taking charge of the household of a deceased workman who leaves no widow or whose widow dies during the compensation period, the amount being the same as if the substituted party were the widow.

The basic wage on which benefits are to be computed may not exceed \$2,000 per annum. Other amendments permit the majority of the workmen in any industry to apply to have their industry brought within the scope of the act and extend the benefits of the act

to all public employees.

The minimum wage committee is subject to continuance or change by action of the lieutenant governor in council. The committee is empowered to recommend classifications of employees according to locality and to recommend wages and hours in accordance with such classification. It is also authorized to recommend classifications, periods, and conditions of apprenticeship.

### British Columbia.

THE provincial legislature of British Columbia for 1921 probably went beyond any other American legislature in its recognition of the recommendations of the International Labor Conference held at Washington in 1919 in pursuance of the provisions of the treaty of Versailles. The provisions adopted relate to night work by women, their employment before and after childbirth, night work of children, minimum age for children, and a general limitation of hours of work in industrial undertakings. These laws are to come into effect on the proclamation of the lieutenant governor in council concurrently with or subsequent to the coming into operation of similar laws in the other Provinces. Their effect is therefore contingent upon the adoption of similar legislation in the other Provinces.

The law as to night work by women prohibits employment between 8 p. m. and 7 a. m. in industrial undertakings, with exceptions for emergency and to prevent loss through deterioration of raw materials. In seasonal employments, or where exceptional circumstances require, regulations may permit the reduction of the night exemption by 1 hour on 60 days of the year. The law is not to apply to agricul-

tural, horticultural, and dairying industries.

Children under 18 are not to be employed between 8 p. m. and 7 a. m., though emergency requirements may lead to a relaxation by action of the lieutenant governor in council. Employment of children in any industry is forbidden under 14 for boys and under 15 for girls, employers being required to keep a record of all employees under 16 years of age.

The maternity protection act forbids employment during six weeks following the birth of a child, while on the showing of a medical certificate a prospective mother may leave her employment for 6 weeks prior to the anticipated time of confinement, the right of the employer to discharge a woman during such absence being regulated by the act.

The hours of work act establishes generally an 8-hour day and a 48-hour week with certain exceptions. Provision is also made for

accidents, emergencies, and the change of shifts.

The minimum wage law of the Province was amended so as to protect apprentices and substandard workers from being employed at a lower wage than that fixed by the board. The number of specially licensed persons employed at any establishment may be one-seventh instead of one-tenth as formerly, while the aggregate number of licenses and employees under 18 years of age in any one establishment is restricted to 35 per cent of the total number of employees.

The coal mines regulation act now forbids any lamp or light other than a locked safety lamp to be used underground in any mine of the

Province after July 1, 1921.

Decree Relating to Conciliation and Arbitration in Collective Labor Disputes in Colombia.

DECREE of October 4, 1920, adds to the strike law of November 19, 1919, and provides that no establishment or undertaking, whether of a commercial, industrial, or agricultural nature, shall cease work because of differences between employers and employees, whatever the cause, until it has complied with the provisions of the law. This law establishes three steps in the settlement of

industrial disputes, as follows:

1. Direct settlement.—If a dispute threatens to lead to suspension of work, the employees send a delegation to the manager of the establishment to present their complaints. The delegates must be Colombians who have reached their majority and have been employed in the establishment for more than six months. The manager is required to receive them within 24 hours after being so requested and an answer must be given within five days unless an extension of time is agreed to. If an agreement is reached it is signed by the parties concerned and has the force of a contract. A copy is filed with the city or town authorities. In case of failure to reach an agreement the difference must be submitted to conciliators.

2. Conciliation.—If the dispute reaches this stage the two parties agree upon a conciliator or each chooses one. Conciliators must be

Colombia. Diario Oficial, 7 de octubre de 1920. Bogota.
 For a summary of this law see the Monthly Labor Review for September, 1920, pp. 197, 198.

Colombians who have attained their majority and are familiar with the business or industry in question. They must begin to function within 24 hours after accepting the task. They summon representatives from both sides, not more than three from each, who shall be authorized to act for the respective parties. The manager of the establishment shall be one of the employer representatives. The conciliators are to arrive at a just and satisfactory agreement between the two parties within 48 hours. Their decision is not obligatory on the parties concerned, but if an agreement is reached it is embodied in a contract which becomes binding when signed by the three parties. If the difference is not settled by the conciliators it passes on to the third stage—arbitration.

3. Arbitration.—Each party to the dispute chooses an arbitrator and these two choose a third. They must begin to serve within 28 hours after accepting appointment as arbitrators. The tribunal is to secure all possible information through conferences with representatives of the two parties, visits to the works, etc., and must render a decision within eight days after taking up its duties. Meanwhile no suspension of work may occur. Its decision is obligatory upon the

parties to the dispute.

The law applies to undertakings which concern the security, health, and economic and social life of the citizens, as follows: (a) Transport—railroads, street railways, and river and ocean steamers; (b) public water supply; (c) public lighting systems; (d) hygiene and sanitation of cities; and (e) the mines of the nation. Appropriate penalties are

provided for violations of the law.

# STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.

Strikes and Lockouts in the United States, January to March, 1921.

CCORDING to information received by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 595 strikes and lockouts occurred in this country during the first quarter of 1921. Inasmuch as many reports do not reach the bureau until several months after the strikes occur, the number of strikes occurring during the quarter was probably somewhat larger than the above figure would indicate. Complete data relative to these strikes have not been received by the bureau and it has not been possible to verify all that have been received. The figures in the following tables should therefore be understood to be only an advance statement and not be accepted as final.

NUMBER OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS BEGINNING IN EACH MONTH, JANUARY TO MARCH, INCLUSIVE, 1920 AND 1921.

Kind of dispute.	January.	February.	March.	Month not stated.	Total.
Strikes: 1920 1921 Lockouts:	222 204	185 162	270 200	67 21	744 587
1920	2 3	6 5	7	2	17 8
Total: 1920. 1921.	224 207	191 167	277 200	69 21	761 595

Strikes involving specially large numbers of employees were few, 40,000 waist makers in 2,100 shops and 10,000 children's dress makers, both in New York City, and 10,000 building trades workers in Boston heading the list. In three strikes collectively in Pennsylvania, 9,353 coal miners were involved. Some others that may be mentioned are strikes of 4,500 clothing workers in Philadelphia, 4,000 dock carpenters in New York City, 3,300 shoe workers in Manchester and Nashua, N. H., 4,000 silk workers in New Jersey, 2,300 miners in Washington, 3,000 tailors in and near New York City, 2,200 tapestry workers in Connecticut, 2,000 leather workers in Peabody, 1,500 employees of the Atlanta, Birmingham & Atlantic Railroad, 1,300 packing-house workers in Chicago, and 1,500 tobacco workers in Porto Rico.

The data in the following tables relate to the 587 strikes and 8 lockouts reported to have occurred in the three months under consideration. A few strikes that occurred during the quarter but in which the exact month was not stated appear in a group by themselves.

180

STATES IN WHICH 8 OR MORE STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS WERE REPORTED AS OCCURRING DURING THE FIRST QUARTER OF 1921.

State.	January.		February.		March.		Month not stated.		Total.		Grand
	Strikes.	Lock- outs.	Strikes.	Lock- outs.	Strikes.	Lock- outs.	Strikes.	Lock- outs.	Strikes.	Lock- outs.	total.
New York Massachusetts New Jersey. Pennsylvania Ohio Illinois Washington Michigan Connecticut California. Minnesota Texas North Carolina Iowa Missouri Rhode Island Wisconsin Kansas. Colorado. Oklahoma Tennessee 22 other States and Territories.	300 300 114 112 113 110 110 15 5 5 5 1 1 4 4 5 5 5 1 1 1 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2	i i	24 199 111 100 122 111 100 8 5 5 6 5 3 3 2 2 2 1 1 1 2 1 1 1 1 2 1 1 1 1 1 1	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	31 199 13 8 8 9 8 8 7 7 4 4 5 5 9 6 6 4 4 3 5 5 4 4 1 1 1		4 1 1 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1		899 699 366 365 353 344 229 255 200 177 177 144 133 112 111 111 8 8 8 8 8	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	89 89 36 36 35 35 29 20 18 14 13 12 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11
Total	204	3	162	5	200		21		587	8	594

Of these disputes, 390 strikes and 3 lockouts occurred east of the Mississippi River and north of the Ohio and Potomac Rivers; 144 strikes and 4 lockouts occurred west of the Mississippi River; and 53 strikes and 1 lockout south of the Ohio and Potomac Rivers and east of the Mississippi River. In 26 strikes union officials repudiated the action of the men in striking.

As to cities, New York City had the largest number of disturbances, 44; followed by Boston and Detroit with 16 each, Chicago with 15, Cleveland, Rochester, and Seattle with 12 each, and Philadelphia

with 11.

As to sex, the distribution was as follows: Males, 358 strikes and 7 lockouts; females, 11 strikes; both sexes, 79 strikes and 1 lockout; sex not reported, 139 strikes.

The industries in which 5 or more strikes and lockouts were

reported are shown in the table which follows.

NUMBER OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS IN SPECIFIED INDUSTRIES REPORTED AS OCCURRING DURING THE FIRST QUARTER OF 1921.

Industry or occu-	Janus	ary.	Febru	ary.	Mar	ch.	Month		Total.		Grand
pation.	Strikes.	Lock- outs.	Strikes.	Lock- outs.	Strikes.	Lock- outs.	Strikes.	Lock- outs.	Strikes.	Lock- outs.	total.
Metal trades	37 36 35 21		41 25 24 12	21	32 47 23 8		3 6 6		113 114 88 41	2	115 114 89 41
ing Mining Bakers Lumber and timber	10 6 4 1 3	1	5 2 7 5 3	i	16 8 3 4 3		1 1		31 17 15 10 10	1	32 17 16 10
Shipbuilding	3 3 4		6 2		1 4				10 9 9		10
Automobile and car- riage workers Hotel and restaurant	5	1	2		1				8	1	
employees	3 2		2 1		3 3				8 6		1
stersLeather workersBarbers	3 3 4		2 4 1		1 2 4		1		7 7 6 5		7
Furniture fron and steel Miscellaneous	4 2 15	····i	1 16	·····i	1 2 30		2		5 5 63	2	6.
Total	204	3	162	5	200		21		587	8	598

Included in the above table are 67 strikes of molders, 36 strikes of tailors, 22 strikes of sheet metal workers, 17 strikes of coal miners, 19 strikes of carpenters, 15 strikes of bakers, 12 strikes of plumbers and steamfitters, and 10 strikes of silk workers.

In 413 strikes and 6 lockouts the employees were reported as connected with unions; in 9 strikes they were not so connected; in 165 strikes and 2 lockouts the question of union affiliation was not reported.

In 332 strikes and 3 lockouts only one employer was concerned in each disturbance; in 20 strikes, 2 employers; in 20 strikes, 3 employers; in 5 strikes, 4 employers; in 4 strikes, 5 employers; in 51 strikes, more than 5 employers; and in 155 strikes and 5 lockouts the number

of employers was not reported.

In the 331 strikes for which the number of persons on strike was reported there were 215,447 strikers, an average of 651 per strike. In 45 strikes, in which the number involved was 1,000 or more, the strikers numbered 181,819, thus leaving 33,628 involved in the remaining 286 strikes, or an average of 118 each. By months the figures are as follows: January, 62,385 strikers in 137 strikes, average, 455, of whom 12,085 were in 119 strikes of less than 1,000 persons each, average 102; February, 81,914 strikers in 89 strikes, average 920, of whom 10,198 were in 126 strikes of less than 1,000 persons each, average 81; March, 60,038 strikers in 102 strikes, average 589, of whom 11,235 were in 84 strikes of less than 1,000 persons each, average 134.

The following table shows the causes of the strikes and lockouts in so far as reported. In nearly three-fifths of the disturbances

wages was the prominent question, in less than one-thirteenth hours were the main issue, about one-twentieth were mainly for recognition of the union, and one-eighteenth involved the closed shop.

PRINCIPAL CAUSES OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS REPORTED AS OCCURRING DURING THE FIRST QUARTER OF 1921.

	Janu	ary.	Febru	February.		ch.	Month		Tot	al.	Grand
Cause.	Strikes	Lock- outs.	Strikes	Lock- outs.	Strikes	Lock- outs.	Strikes	Lock- outs.	Strikes	Lock- outs.	total.
Forincrease in wages Because of decrease in	16		2		11		2		31		31
wages	85	1	82		102		12		281	1	282
Because of increase of hours.	4		2		2				8		8
For decrease of hours For increase of wages and	5		2 2		6		1		14		14
decrease of hours	2		2		2				6		6
and decrease of wages	14		5				al versale		19		19
Recognition	6	1	4	1	3		1		14	2	16
Recognition and wages	2				4				6		6
Recognition, wages, and	0		9		2				6		6
General conditions	2 5 3 2		2 5		6				16		16
	0		1		3				7		1
Conditions and wages	0		3		8				13		18
Employees discharged For discharge of objection-	2		0								
able persons					2 2				2		2
Nonunion men	6		3		2				7		1
Relative to agreement	6		5		5 2				16		16
For a new agreement					2				2		2
Sympathy	2		1		2				5		
Jurisdiction			1 7		1		2		4		4
Open or closed shop	4		7	1	8				19	1	20
Closed shop and other											
causes	11		1						12		12
Miscellaneous	33	1	4		29		2		68	1	69
Not reported			30	3			1		31	3	34
Total	204	3	162	5	200		21		587	8	598

It is frequently difficult to state exactly when a strike terminates, since many strikes end without any formal vote on the part of the strikers. The bureau has information of the actual ending of 169 strikes during the quarter, besides 34 strikes in which the positions of the employees were filled or they returned to work with practically no interruption in the work. The following table relates to such strikes and lockouts as the bureau has been advised actually terminated during the first quarter of 1920 and 1921. No lockouts were reported as ended during the first quarter of 1921.

NUMBER OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS ENDING DURING JANUARY, FEBRUARY, AND MARCH IN 1920 AND 1921.

Year.	January.	February.	March.	Month not stated.	Total.
Strikes: 1920. 1921. Lockouts:	75 55 2	81 43	126 71 3	34	316 169
1920	2	4	3		
Total: 1920	77 55	85 43	129 71	34	325 169

RESULTS OF STRIKES ENDING DURING THE FIRST QUARTER OF 1921.

Result.	January.	February.	March.	Total.
In favor of employers. In favor of employees. Compromised Employees returned pending arbitration. Not reported.	19 9 12 3 12	14 8 11 3 7	22 23 16 3 7	5 4 3 3
Total	55	43	71	16

DURATION OF STRIKES ENDING DURING THE FIRST QUARTER OF 1921, OF NUMBER REPORTING.

Period.	January.	February.	March.	Total.
1 day or less	3	1 1	5 6	
days	1 2	1 2	4 2	1
5 to 7 days \$to 14 days 15 to 21 days	3 6	6	5 8	1
22 to 29 days	4 9	10	6 16	1 3
Over 90 daysNot reported	12 11	7	5	2
Total	55	43	71	16

The number of days lost in strikes ending during the quarter was 7,727. The average duration of these strikes was about 53 days. The average duration of strikes lasting less than 90 days was 27 days. By months the record is as follows: January, days lost, 3,060, average 70 days; February, days lost, 1,929, average 53 days; March, days lost, 2,738, average 41 days. No lockouts were reported as ending during the quarter.

# British Coal Miners' Strike, 1921.1

INSETTLED labor conditions which have existed in Great Britain in varying degrees since the spring of 1919 reached another culminating point in the termination of the contracts of the coal miners on April 1, 1921. The immediate cause of this stoppage of work was the announcement of the Government's decision that decontrol of the mining industry would become effective March 31, 1921, instead of on August 31, 1921, as originally provided under the law.

Before the war the miners' wages were admittedly too low, but under Government management substantial increases had been secured through the Sankey award of 1919 and the agreement of November, 1920, which brought wages in the mining industry up 163 per cent above prewar wages. Meanwhile, output of coal per man had, for various reasons, decreased 20 per cent. Prior to 1914 miners' wages had been greater in some districts than in others,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>In preparing this article current issues of the British Labor Gazette, Manchester Guardian, Times (London), Economist (London), New York Times, New York Evening Post, and Christian Science Monitor were used.

owing to differences in the operating conditions of the various mines. To average up these differences and thereby obtain the largest possible production during the war all the earnings of the industry had been pooled, and the miners were paid on a uniform scale throughout the country, the prosperous districts thus making up the deficits of the poorer ones. Decontrol meant a return to the unsatisfactory system

of district wage scales.

The owners too were facing their difficulties. During the war the Government had carried on a very prosperous business in export coal, enabling it to meet advancing labor and other costs. But since the armistice there had been a shrinkage in the export trade and in the beginning of the present year an extraordinary slump occurred in the demand for fuel—both foreign and domestic. France had been able to supply her demands from Germany under the reparations agreement and from the United States at lower prices than England could offer. The other continental countries which were possible purchasers were either not allowed to buy or were not in a position to do so. The cheaper American coal had also adversely affected Great Britain's South American market. The lack of market in other industries in Great Britain, especially in the iron and steel industry, led to a greatly diminished domestic demand.

Accordingly, the price of export coal fell rapidly from 85s. (\$20.68, par) to 40s. (\$9.73, par) a ton; and by May coal brought only about 24s. (\$5.84, par) per ton in French and Italian markets. This decrease, together with the absence of demand, resulted in a loss to the industry of £1,000,000 (\$4,866,500, par) per week. The average net cost of production per ton of coal in Great Britain during the first three months of 1921 was between 39s. (\$9.49, par) and 40s. (\$9.73, par), of which cost wages constituted 28s. (\$6.81, par).

The mine owners who thus resumed management found themselves unable to meet the existing wage scale and proposed a new one embodying material reductions and district regulation of wages. The men, determined to retain if possible the advantages gained under Government control, stood for national regulation of wages and a

national pool.

Mr. Frank Hodges, on behalf of the miners, protested against the Government's action in withdrawing control, leaving the miners unprotected when negotiations were at such a critical stage. He contended that the Sankey award was given to meet the cost of living; that the Government had accepted the Sankey commission's recommendation for a wage advance of 2s. (48.7 cents, par) per day; and that an abandonment of that position by the Government would be a breach of faith. If decontrol must come the Government ought, in his opinion, to give assistance during the period of depression.

The Government took the position that in bringing control of the mines to an end it was justly trying to relegate coal to its proper place in the economic scale, and that since the industry was operating at a loss and there was now no appreciable difference between the price of inland and of export coal, control was no longer necessary. Responsibility for maintaining the miners' war wage until cost of living fell below a certain level was disclaimed. As for the contention that more time should have been allowed before the date of de-

control, the miners and owners had already had five months in which to reach a settlement; and if the miners continued to hold out for a national pooling of profits, the hope of settlement would be as remote August 31 as March 31. Since the coal industry was no worse off than many other great industries, the Government felt that it could not follow the miners' suggestion to subsidize it during the present trade depression.

Every effort was made to avert an actual stoppage of work. miners referred the whole matter back to the district organizations to see if they were willing to temporarily abandon the policy of the national wages board and national profits pool and allow their representatives to proceed with negotiations on the district basis. Returns showed an overwhelming majority opposed to such a procedure.

On the 30th of March the representatives of both the miners and the owners admitted their inability to reach an agreement. Meantime each side had submitted a statement of its position to the Government. Notices were posted by the owners ending the miners' employment under the old contracts and new offers at the reduced rates were made. Orders directing the miners not to renew their contracts at rates lower than the existing wages went out to every mine and plant regardless of occupation, and on April 1 practically all of the miners, including a large number of engineers and pumpmen, did not report for work.

The lack of provision made for the safety of the mines was the first action of this kind taken by the federation, and according to press reports was made without consultation with the district branches. A great difference of opinion regarding the advisability of such extreme measures at once became apparent, some of the men declaring their intention of disobeying the order to the extent of safeguarding the mines. The prompt offer of assistance by the clerical forces, workmen in organizations not affiliated with the federation, and civilian volunteers saved many of the mines from partial if not complete destruction. This unprecedented action on the part of the federation tended in the very beginning to alienate the public sympathy created by the heavy wage cuts and to minimize the real principle at stake.

# Proposals of the Miners' Federation.

THE proposals of the miners for the future regulation of wages in · the mining industry included among others:

1. A national wages board known as the National Coal Board, consisting of 26 representatives of the owners and 26 representatives of the miners, which shall determine all questions of wages and profits affecting the coal-mining industry as a whole. This means national regulation and distribution of wages.

2. A new 1921 standard wage incorporating all existing percentages. Wages known as the war wage and the Sankey wage and any other flat rate advances in existence before March 31, 1921, to be converted into one flat rate and added to the 1921 standard

3. War wage to be payable for time lost through no fault of the miner shall not be

incorporated in the flat rate but shall be paid as heretofore.

4. Minimum profits to be equal to 10 per cent of the amount paid as wages. Owners to forego this minimum where profits are insufficient after costs are met, until such time as available balances are sufficient to make up arrears.

5. National profits pool to enable all collieries to run.

# Proposals of the Mining Association.

∆ S OPPOSED to the miners' proposed terms of settlement were those of the Mining Association, which were, in brief:

1. District regulation of wages.

2. A standard wage consisting of the district base rates plus the percentage of additions prevailing in July, 1914. Additions which have since been made to the base rates of 1914 and all percentages added to pieceworkers' rates consequent upon a reduction of hours from eight to seven shall be maintained.

3. No war wage for days not worked. Unemployment benefit to take its place.
4. Minimum profits to be 17 per cent of the wages paid.

5. No national pool of profits.

While the miners did not and could not dispute the owners' figures regarding the ability of the industry to maintain the increased costs, they believed that the prevailing depression was temporary and that wage rates based upon an unusual financial depression in the industry would not be fair. The coal industry is admittedly a seasonal one and the miners pointed to large profits which had been made in the past. They insisted that the wages offered would reduce almost all of them below the standard of living in 1914, and that such a reduction, at the existing cost of living, would mean practical starvation for many of them. Statistics compiled by the miners' federation showed that the proposed reduction in the various districts would run from 18 to 53 per cent, according to conditions prevailing in the industry.

Attitude of the Triple Alliance.

THE probable action of the triple alliance relative to the miners' strike became at once a matter of intense public interest. Up to that time the alliance had never called a joint strike, although crises had arisen in which such action seemed imminent, and the chances were that it would not rush precipitately into one now unless the railway men and transport workers were convinced that the miners' failure to maintain present wage standards meant certain defeat for them in the near future. But whatever their views regarding the expediency of a cessation of work, the sympathy of the labor leaders was with the miners. They contended that the decontrol of coal which the Government believed essential to national wellbeing had been carried through too hastily and in violation of the Government's previous intention, and that this had been done because an extraordinary opportunity for a reduction in wages presented itself.

The sympathetic attitude of the alliance led to the proclamation of a state of emergency under the act of 1920, and the Government speedily prepared to cope with a condition analogous to civil war.

Meanwhile efforts at mediation were being made. At the personal invitation of the premier, conferences were to be resumed, but the reopening of negotiations broke down because the owners made the responsibility for the safety of the pits on the part of the miners a condition precedent. To this the miners would not agree. But the lack of unanimity among the rank and file of the railway men regarding a sympathetic strike became so apparent that the prerequisite condition was finally accepted, pumping resumed, and negotiations reopened.

At a full conference on April 12 the miners' leaders proposed a new national wage schedule which would be acceptable to them, but the owners rejected their proposal. The Government, while admitting that a national settlement of wages might be practicable, stated its opposition to a national pool of profits on the ground that any arrangement whereby the miners and mine owners in every mining area would be compelled to contribute to a common pool for the equalization of wages in the industry could be carried on successfully only under a complete resumption of State control. It suggested in place of such a plan a standard wage for each district, which should be the first charge upon the proceeds of the industry, any complaints as to the adjustment of which in any particular district to be referred to a national committee composed of representatives of the miners and the mine owners in equal numbers. As regards assistance to meet the abnormal depression of trade, the prime minister said that when the owners and the miners had reached an agreement as to wage rates fixed upon an economic basis the Government would grant temporary assistance to mitigate conditions in the poorer districts due to such a sudden cut in wages.

But after a full discussion of these proposals, the miners still held to their original program of a national pool as well as a national wages board. As they looked at the matter a policy of national wage fixing would be useless without some pooling arrangement which would enable the poorer districts to pay a reasonable living wage. Government assistance granted for only a limited period would not

afford the relief necessary.

## The National Pool.

THE pool that the miners were now advocating was not the national pool of all profits which was in force under Government control, but was an amount to be made up by a levy on all collieries at a flat rate per ton of coal extracted. This sum was to be used for the maintenance of the wage standard in the poorer districts. Under the miners' proposals the levy would constitute a part of the cost of production and would therefore be taken out of the proceeds of the industry before the wages and the profits were distributed. As the miners' wages form about 70 or 80 per cent of the total cost of production, the miners in the prosperous mines would themselves be the heavier losers. They were willing to accept a flat rate reduction of 2s (48.7 cents, par) a day or about £30,000,000 (\$145,995,000, par) a year on the wages bill of the industry. This reduction would bring wages to 133 per cent above the prewar standard, or exactly to the level of the cost of living as shown by the official figures for April, 1921. Furthermore they argued that instead of destroying the incentive to production, such a levy would serve rather to create an interest in promoting the efficiency of the poorer miners, since both wages and profits would depend on the surplus available over and above the cost of production, including the suggested levy. The owners, however, were directly opposed to any pooling of profits plan. They believed that only the better mines would actually contribute to the levy, as the poorer ones would get back what they put in, in wages and profits. This would tend to decrease output in the more productive mines. It would, they contended, require legislation and the

continuance of Government control.

The miners' strict adherence to the idea of a national pool, together with their well-known attitude on the question of nationalization of the mines intensified a belief already existing that their demands were political as well as economic. The premier himself considered the proposal for a national pool a form of nationalization and suggested that the whole matter be submitted to the people for decision. The miners' leaders disclaimed any desire on the part of the miners for nationalization except through act of Parliament.

Following this breakdown in negotiations, the triple alliance decided to support the miners by a strike on the night of April 15. Other trade-unions, especially the electrical workers, pledged sympathetic strikes. Intensive preparations were made by cooperative societies, relief committees, and the Government to meet the impend-

ing crisis.

Meanwhile the unexpected happened. A self-appointed parliamentary committee took negotiations out of the hands of the premier and the cabinet and heard a special statement of each side of the case. In the course of his speech Mr. Hodges, the miners' spokesman, voicing his own opinion, expressed the miners' readiness to discuss a settlement on a district wage basis, but with the understanding that the arrangement should be temporary and that the question of the national pool should be deferred until autumn. It was also understood that the owners on their part were willing to forego profits temporarily. This seemed a possible solution of the deadlock. But the miners' federation refused to support their leader; whereupon the triple alliance at once called off its general strike. Mr. Hodges sent in his resignation, which was not accepted by the miners. It was reported that the motion to accept his suggested terms was lost by only one vote.

The lack of solidarity in the ranks of the triple alliance was admittedly a blow to the labor movement. The miners felt that they had been "disgracefully deserted;" but while they had given the trade-unionists and the people generally the idea that they were combating impossible wage reductions in which they had wide-spread public sympathy, they refused to discuss wages with the owners. In consequence of the confusion thus produced there was no hope of securing united action in support of the strike. The triple alliance was ready to strike against the reduction of miners' wages, but it was not willing to throw the nation into chaos for the miners' political demands; and when the belief became general that the miners' strike was being conducted for political rather than economic ends the conservative element prevailed in the conference.

## The Miners Continue the Strike.

THE loss of support on the part of the other members of the triple alliance did not, however, deter the miners from continuing the struggle. The Government, too, relaxed none of its efforts to meet the crisis. Larger defense forces were enrolled and measures taken to insure food supplies, light, and fuel were continued. The miners' delegate conference on April 22 reaffirmed the miners' original

demands for a national wages board and a national pool and gave

Mr. Hodges a vote of confidence.

As a result of a conference between the owners and the men, on April 25, a new proposition was made providing for a gradual scaling down of wages during a temporary period, at the end of which time (July 31, 1921) wages in each area, constituting the first charge upon the industry, would be fixed by a national board upon the industry's ability to pay. The Government offered a subsidy of £10,000,000 (\$48,665,000, par) to carry the industry through the temporary period, the owners to forego all profits, if necessary, to keep wages up to the standard agreed upon. Under this plan wage reductions would amount to 2s. 9d. (67 cents, par) per shift. But the new proposals did not concede the fundamental principles for which the miners were contending, and a deadlock again ensued.

The situation was further complicated by the action taken by the transport workers and railway men in sending out instructions to their men to refuse to handle coal. The Government made every effort to import coal by furnishing protection to the volunteers who offered to unload it, but railway services were greatly curtailed, only essential trains running. The House of Commons prolonged emergency regulations, adding greater restrictions necessitated by the

long duration of disrupted national conditions.

It would be impossible in an article of this scope to give in detail the various proposals for settlement made and rejected between May 1 and June 27, when the premier at the request of the miners called a joint conference, at which a provisional agreement for a

resumption of work was agreed upon.

Briefly, the men finally accepted terms substantially better than those offered in March. The graduated wage cut is to be 2s. (48.7 cents, par) per shift for July; 6d. (12 cents, par) more for August, and another 6d. for September, when a permanent arrangement along the lines of the owners' proposals is expected to come into operation. Although the Government grant of £10,000,000 (\$48,665,000, par) to assist the poorer districts during the temporary period has been renewed, no permanent subsidy of the industry has been granted. Under the permanent scheme the miners gain a 20 per cent advance upon the 1914 wage rates extending over the whole period of the present agreement (from resumption of work until September 30, 1922, unless three months' notice is given by either side to terminate it) and a living wage is guaranteed to the low-paid miner. For every £100 (\$486.65, par) the workmen get in respect of standard wages the owners will receive £17 (\$82.75). The miners will also share in the proceeds, if there are any, on the following basis: After the standing charges (which must be paid whether the mines are in operation or not) are met, 83 per cent of the balance of the proceeds goes to the men in wages, which constitute the first charge upon the industry; the remaining 17 per cent goes to the owners, out of which establishment and other charges must be paid. A national board composed of an equal number of representatives of both sides, with an independent chairman, will assist district boards in the adjustment of wages.

The miners were forced to abandon one of the causes for which they struck—the national wages pool. The fight for the national

pool was a losing one from the beginning. Neither the Government, the owners, nor the public wanted it. The miners' leaders themselves shifted from a national profits pool to a national wages pool during the negotiations. It is reported that the pool was but faintly understood by the rank and file of the miners, who, it is believed, were really more interested in the fixing of a living wage. The liberal press was relieved to have such a "bewildering method" of wage regulation abandoned.

Though the miners have been defeated upon the issue of the national wages pool, they have obtained a profit-sharing system which, as the Economist (London), July 2, 1921, points out, is wider in its scope and more hopeful in its possible effects than any other yet devised for a great industry. Moreover, to quote from the same source, their loyalty, self-sacrifice, discipline, and law-abiding quietness "have commanded the sincere respect of all classes in the

country.'

The miners were really forced to their final acceptance of terms by several conditions. Their strike funds were depleted and the families of many of them were in such want that the men were returning to the mines. Their position was further weakened by the withdrawal of the embargo on coal on May 31, which had never been a success owing to the fact that the Government was able to secure sufficient transport workers to bring in coal quite easily. The Government limited the time during which its offer of a £10,000,000 (\$48,665,000, par) subsidy would hold good. While the Labor Party at its conference on June 24 passed a resolution expressing its belief that the miners' cause was that of labor generally and calling on the unions to continue their financial support in order to alleviate the sufferings of the coal fields, the last appeal of the miners to the executives of other unions affected by wage disputes "to take national action to secure their demands" failed to meet any enthusiastic response. The engineers were taking a ballot on their own wage reductions; the transport workers were still negotiating wage cuts; the railway men were working on a sliding scale arrangement; and reductions had just been accepted by the cotton operatives after a strike or lockout of some length.

### Effects of the Coal Strike.

IN THE entire history of labor disputes probably no strike has had more far-reaching or more disastrous effects than the recent coal stoppage which crippled transportation, reduced foreign trade, and virtually paralyzed the industrial life of the nation. Many industries were forced to shorten their hours of labor and many others to suspend operations altogether. This was especially true in the iron and steel and pottery trades, which depend upon a daily supply of coal. These plants closed in ever-increasing numbers. For a time the potteries were able to keep going with coal secured from outcrop mining, but this was finally forbidden by the owners of the mines, thus throwing 54,000 workers at Stoke-on-Trent and Newcastle out of employment. Conditions became so bad that during May 8,000 meals a day were furnished children of the pottery employees at Stoke-on-Trent.

The production of pig iron in May, 1921, according to a statement of the National Federation of Iron and Steel Manufacturers, amounted to 13,600 tons as compared with 60,300 in April, 1921, and 739,000 in May, 1920. The production of steel ingots and castings amounted to 5,600 tons in May, 1921, as compared with 70,600 in the previous month, and 846,000 a year ago. Great blast furnaces were damped down and some of them have been blown out permanently.

It was reported in Parliament on July 5 that the cost of the Government measures taken with the coal stoppage, including the sub-

sidy, was £18,855,000 (\$91,757,858, par).

During the first weeks of the strike railway services were greatly curtailed, but there was a very considerable improvement in this respect during the latter part of the strike, owing to a freer movement of coal and the use of oil for fuel. A semiofficial statement says that the strike caused a deficit averaging £9,500,000 (\$46,-231,750, par) monthly on the working railways still under Government and the strike caused as the strike caused as a strike that the strike caused a deficit averaging £9,500,000 (\$46,-231,750, par) monthly on the working railways still under Government and the strike caused as the strik

ment control.

Manufacturers were not as a rule as seriously affected as the industries mentioned. Falling markets at the beginning of the strike led to an accumulation of stock. The manufacturers were thus able to get rid of surplus goods, and they managed to keep up the limited demand by working their plants on part time. Ordinarily they had greater stocks of coal on hand, and as their supply diminished they gradually reduced the hours of working time. The workmen in these cases naturally felt the pinch of the strike much more keenly than did the employers.

Owing to the almost total collapse of the great shipbuilding, iron, steel, and pottery trades, and the limitation upon working time in other industries, unemployment grew by leaps and bounds. According to figures of the Ministry of Labor for June 3, 1921, there were on the live registers of the unemployment exchanges 2,147,000, which number is exclusive of short-time claimants, who numbered 1,188,400, and also of those who did not register. The total number of unem-

ployed, it is reported, reached over 5,000,000 persons.

The high percentage of unemployment largely depleted the State unemployment fund. On May 13 the amount paid out had reached £20,055,200 (\$97,598,631, par), none of which had gone to the miners, cotton operatives, and others on strike. This amount is, of course, in addition to the immense sums being paid out in benefits by the various trade-unions, especially those in the iron and steel trades and among the general workers. The Amalgamated Engineering Union asked its members to increase their contributions 50 per cent for the second quarter of the year. The strike is said to have cost the National Union of Railwaymen £24,000 (\$116,796, par) a week.

As a result of the inroads made upon the new unemployment fund the Government has brought in a bill providing for an increase in the contribution and a decrease in the amount paid to both men and

women.

One of the worst features of the employment situation is the fact that the dislocation of industry is so great that in many plants it will be months, perhaps a year, before complete working forces can be taken on again. This is especially true in the case of some of the flooded collieries, which must be pumped out and restored to a working condition. In the Dunfermline (Scotland) district, for instance, over 30,000 persons were employed in mining operations. It is estimated that upon resumption of work not more than 50 per cent of the operatives will find employment the first three months. The total material cost in the district will be close to \$10,000,000. Fortunately, most of the coal-producing districts are not so badly hit as this one. A long period must also elapse before operations can be resumed in the great blast furnaces which have of necessity been allowed to go out. It seems obvious that unemployment, which was general at the beginning of the strike, will continue to be a serious problem for months to come.

One of the interesting developments of the strike is the increased use of oil as fuel. The conversion of many of the locomotives of the Great Central Railway Co. from coal to oil burning resulted during the period of the strike when coal could not be had in the increase of 24 additional services on that line. It is stated that the consumption of coal by the tramways has been reduced 75 per cent; but that because of the difference in the qualities of coal used, the brief period over which the experiment has extended, and certain mechanical difficulties, it has not as yet been possible to calculate

reliably the comparative values of oil and coal as fuel.

# Important Strike of Japanese Miners.1

EARLY in April, 1921, the Furukawa Co., of Tokyo, operating great copper mines at Ashio, curtailed work and cut down the force. This action, together with several other matters, led to a strike and threatened sabotage, the strikers even proposing to withdraw the pumpmen and flood the mines.

A sympathetic strike was started at the company's smelting works at Ashio in the middle of April, and upon the arrival in Tokyo of a representative of the Japanese Federation of Labor the strikers staged

a great demonstration.

In the latter part of April, however, it was reported that the controversy had been satisfactorily settled, "the 340 dismissed miners agreeing to leave the mine premises on a promise of the Labor and Capital Harmonization Society that employment would be found for them." It was also reported that the striking smelters had gone back to work.

<sup>1</sup> Source: The Trans-Pacific, June, 1921. Tokyo, Japan. p. 109.

# COOPERATION.

# Cooperation, a Study in Constructive Economic Reform.

THE University of Illinois has recently published an interesting and readable bulletin entitled "Cooperation, a Study in Constructive Economic Reform." This bulletin was prepared as a result of the many requests for information received by the university. While the report contains a discussion of the various forms taken by cooperative societies and an account of each of these branches of the movement in the United Kingdom, the greater part of the study is devoted to consumers' cooperation in the United States. The author regards the cooperative movement as of first importance among the constructive forces in our economic life.

The development and present status of the cooperative movement should command thoughtful consideration for several reasons: First, it manifests the practical possibilities of the fundamental principle upon which all such reformist schemes are established—the principle of mutual interest and cooperation; second, it reveals the persistence and determination of wage earners to improve their economic status by controlling agencies of distribution; third, it demonstrates the wisdom and sanity of peaceful, constructive, and deliberate action in the solution of the serious economic problems of modern civilization; and, fourth, it proves conclusively that workingmen can organize and operate successfully business enterprises.

In discussing the conditions out of which cooperation develops, the writer says:

The existence of private profits and a high price level is not the only condition that stimulates the development of cooperative enterprise. No less important is the fact that under modern conditions and methods of production, distribution, and credit, the amount of capital required to organize and operate a business is usually so large that it is very difficult, if not almost impossible, for the average wage earner or salaried man to engage in independent enterprise. Cooperation provides a medium through which the modest savings of these classes may consolidate to finance the production and distribution of goods and the construction of homes, and at the same time make possible the accumulation of additional capital to finance even larger scale operations. As the economies and efficiencies of large scale production and distribution are effected the cooperative enterprise becomes self-sustaining and self-perpetuating, yielding the benefits of business to those who patronize and support it.

That part of the study dealing with the consumers' movement in the United States gives a sketch of the history and growth of the movement here, and describes generally the progress in various sections of the country. A relatively large proportion of this account is devoted to describing each of the cooperative wholesale societies. This report, like all the other studies on the movement in the United States, remarks upon the unavailability of general statistics covering the country. Some of the information given concerning the wholesale societies is not now applicable. This, however, is a fault which

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> University of Illinois. Cooperation, a study in economic reform, by Gordon S. Watkins. Bulletin No. 28, Mar. 14, 1921.

is unavoidable in view of the continuous state of change which the movement is undergoing.

No one can study the cooperative movement in Europe, even in the light which the present brief outline throws upon that subject, without recognizing the grasp which the cooperative ideal has upon the minds of the polyglot peoples of the Old The recent phenomenal growth of the movement in countries whose political, social, and economic structure has been shaken to its very foundation, if indeed, the very foundation itself has not been destroyed as in Russia, is striking evidence of the practical possibility of the fundamental principles of cooperation. Of one thing we may be assured, namely, that the cooperative movement has become a permanent phase of the economic life of Europe. A second fact of no less significance is that cooperation stands supreme among the movements that seek economic reform and readjustment in a peaceful, evolutionary, and constructive manner. The immediate program of cooperation—the elimination of the middleman—has been achieved on an unexpected scale. Whether, out of the political and economic chaos of Europe, the cooperators' ideal commonwealth, founded on mutual aid and functioning in the interest of all, will ultimately emerge, is a question which only time can answer. At present there appears to be little ground for thinking that this ultimate program of cooperation will be realized in the immediate future.

When we turn to the United States and Canada, in which conditions of life are quite similar, we find cooperation holding a relatively inconspicuous position in economic life. The achievements of the movement in these countries in recent years give some promise of greater stability and continuity, but it can not yet be said that cooperation has become a very potent factor in their productive and distributive systems. It may not be that the present period of unemployment and price recession will result in an ebbing of the tide of cooperative effort, but for a long period to come cooperation will attain no such prominence in the United States and Canada as it has achieved in the Old World. There is every reason to believe, however, that the movement in

these countries will experience a steady growth.

What has just been said suggests the inquiry as to the reasons why cooperation has developed so tardily and achieved so little success and permanence in North America. Generally speaking, there has been a higher degree of individual comfort here than in Europe, which has made people less cognizant of the need for small economies and so has retarded the expression of the associative spirit and the development of cooperative action in production and distribution of commodities. In new countries, as the United States and Canada, the abundance of economic resources and the prevailing opportunity for economic prosperity have developed a spirit of individualism and competitive achievement. There has been neither the economic necessity nor the individual inclination to develop a system of cooperative enterprises. As free access to the soil and the open door to individual enterprise are closed to the masses of our people, we shall doubtless have a greater measure of cooperative effort in production and distribution. In regard to the acquisition of land we are rapidly reaching that status, and the growth of corporate organization and industrial consolidations indicate a narrowing of the field of individual enterprise, but for a long time to come America will, in all probability, continue to reward so generously individual enterprise and initiative that the cooperative movement will have difficulty in enlisting leaders and managers with business acumen and ingenuity.

Careful examination of cooperative associations in America reveals the following specific reasons for their slow development and frequent failure on this side of the

Atlantic:

1. Geographic isolation of individual societies, which has prevented the development of solidarity of interest and protective measures

2. Isolated societies have been organized frequently by people wholly ignorant of essential principles of business organization and inexperienced in sound policies of business administration and operation. 3. The absence of a spirit of thrift among the common people which precluded the

appeal of small economies in purchasing.

4. The polyglot or heterogeneous character of the population which has made cooperative effort difficult. National and racial prejudices have destroyed the good will so essential to successful cooperation, consequently much of our prosperous cooperation is found among distinct racial and national groups, such as the Finns, the Russians, the Germans, and the Jews.

5. Unscrupulous managers who, lacking true loyalty to the cooperative ideal, have either administered the stores for selfish purposes or conducted the business care-

lessly and inefficiently.

6. The excessive extension of credit on sales, a serious departure from pure Rochdalism, has resulted in the accumulation of bad debts and bankruptcy.

7. The unwise practice of attempting to sell commodities at cost rather than at

standard or prevailing prices.

8. The strong competition of immense chain stores, department stores, and mail-order houses, capitalized at millions of dollars, and frequently able to undercut prices in order to lead customers from the small enterprise.

9. The unrelenting opposition of private retailers and wholesalers, who bend

every effort to crush the cooperative enterprises.

10. The degeneration of cooperative movements into aggressive labor organizations, placing more faith in strikes and boycotts and collective bargaining than in

cooperative business ventures.

11. The mobility of American wage earners, a frequent migration of the population either from one section of the country to another or to and from the mother countries, is not conducive to permanent interest in a cooperative society in a par-

12. The lack of a unified policy and the failure to centralize administration of educational and publicity work. A beginning has now been made in this regard by the organization of the National Cooperative League of America, with head-

quarters in New York.

13. The absence of adequate cooperative wholesale facilities, a difficulty which is rapidly being eliminated through the new movement for cooperative wholesale

societies, already discussed in this study

The advantages accruing to the working classes from cooperative enterprise are many. Aside from the monetary benefits derived, cooperation acquaints its supporters with the practical methods and policies of business administration, develops an awakened and intelligent interest in the political and economic life of the nation, promotes the spirit of mutual social service and altruism and creates a financial reserve and an economic organization which are always beneficial to the laborers in periods of unemployment and industrial depression. For these reasons the ideal of cooperation will never be totally absent from the minds of wage-earning groups. Nor is it desirable that such an ideal should be absent from the minds of our citizens. In these days when forces of readjustment seem to degenerate easily into revolutionary agencies, the wisdom of encouraging peaceful, constructive business ventures owned and operated by wage earners and salaried groups can not be ove estimated.

# Progress of Cooperation Abroad.

# Argentina.

CCORDING to the February, 1921, Bulletin of the Pan American Union (p. 170), there are at present in Argentina some 120 agricultural cooperative associations with a combined membership of 30,000 and an approximate capital of 12,000,000 pesos (paper, \$5,094,000, par).

# Australia (New South Wales).

THE report of the registrar of friendly societies, etc., of New South Wales for the year 1919 shows that there were 50 cooperative societies in that country at the close of 1919. Most of these societies sell groceries, provisions, shoes and clothing or are engaged in the manufacture of some of the necessaries of life. It is stated that "almost without exception the societies outside the metro-politan area have been established in mining districts, where, as a rule, they have proved very successful."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> New South Wales. Legislative Assembly, 1920, 2d sess. Friendly societies, trade-unions, building societies, cooperative societies, and transactions under the workmen's compensation acts. Report of the registrar for the year 1919. pp. 16, 17, 33–35.

The following statement shows, for the year 1919-20, certain items of operation of these 50 societies:

Number of societies	50
Number of members	43, 381
Share capital	£349, 309
Value of real estate and equipment	£219, 439
Value of merchandise at end of year	£377, 946
Amount of sales	
Total expenses	£2, 342, 031
Surplus savings	£198,813
Amount of dividend returned	£160, 930

In the following table are shown comparative statistics for the years 1909–1919:

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS FOR COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN NEW SOUTH WALES, 1909 TO 1919.

Year.	Num- ber of societies.	Share capital.	Amount of business.	Expenditures.	Amount of savings.	Value of merchan-dise.
1909	40 44 42 42 40 45 46 46 44 44 44 50	£97, 891 121, 241 138, 201 156, 534 199, 174 234, 846 253, 185 274, 409 310, 776 348, 341 349, 309	£1,032,086 1,306,250 1,458,252 1,605,849 1,789,103 1,804,463 1,888,925 2,193,036 2,478,801	£955, 091 1, 232, 062 1, 342, 564 1, 462, 617 1, 672, 336 1, 736, 778 1, 777, 908 2, 068, 156 2, 342, 031	£104, 285 113, 171 146, 183 167, 763 163, 904 157, 752 166, 449 186, 774 198, 813	£137, 94; 169, 65- 188, 75; 197, 09; 225, 44; 281, 74; 313, 82; 352, 32; 377, 94;

### Finland.

THE following figures, taken from the International Cooperative Bulletin for January, 1921, show the growth of the cooperative movement in Finland from 1913 to 1919:

Consumers' societies:	1913	1919
Number	419	630
Membership	90,000	303, 000
Salesmarks <sup>1</sup>	60,000,000	840, 000, 000
Fundsdo	5, 400, 000	53, 400, 000
Dairy societies:		
Number	370	426
Membership	40,000	46, 500
Businessmarks	35, 000, 000	196, 500, 000
Fundsdo	5,000,000	10, 200, 000
Loan banks:		
Number	420	591
Membership	21,000	30,000
Loans grantedmarks	5, 500, 000	20,000,000
Fundsdo	800,000	2,000,000
Central organizations.	5	8
Registered societies of all kinds		3, 135

According to this account there are in Finland at the present time a cooperative society for every 1,200 inhabitants and one cooperative member for every seven inhabitants.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Finnish mark at par=19.3 cents.

## Germany.

A CCORDING to the 1921 Yearbook of the Central Federation of German Consumers' Cooperative Societies,<sup>2</sup> the number and membership of the four types of cooperative societies affiliated with the five largest central organizations in Germany during the period 1916–1918 was as follows:

NUMBER AND MEMBERSHIP OF COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES AFFILIATED WITH THE FIVE LARGEST CENTRAL ORGANIZATIONS IN GERMANY, 1916-1918, BY TYPE OF SOCIETY.

Type of society.	Year.	General Federation of German Purchasing and Eco- nomic Co- operative Societies.	General Federation of German Raiffeisen Coopera- tive Societies.	National Federation of German Agricul- tural Co- operative Societies.	Central Federation of German Consumers' Societies.	Main Federation of German Industrial Coopera- tive Societies.	Total.
				Nun	mber.	,	
Credit societies	1916 1917 1918	924 917 888	4, 433 4, 119 4, 430	11,555 11,320 11,164		432 432 353	17,344 16,788 16,835
Purchasing, productive, and other societies	1916 1917 1918	38 80 92	890 976 968	6,392 6,210 6,614	29 29 26	556 847 1,011	7,905 8,142 8,711
Consumers' societies	1916 1917 1918	255 218 220	13 14 16		1,060 1,063 1,067		1,328 1,295 1,303
Building societies	1916 1917 1918	190 202 196	3 5 5	41 28 28	1 1 1		235 236 230
Total	1916 1917 1918	1,407 1,415 1,396	5,339 5,114 5,419	17, 988 17, 558 17, 806	1,090 1,093 1,094	986 1,279 1,364	26, 815 26, 459 27, 079
				Memb	ership.		
Credit societies	1916 1917 1918	592, 544 578, 573 575, 469	482, 523 488, 810 471, 624	1,019,756 1,104,032 1,099,842		103, 240 108, 723 92, 809	2,288,063 2,240,138 2,239,744
Purchasing, productive, and other societies	1916 1917 1918	5,749 7,721	64, 447 76, 273	645, 550 605, 119	9,351 9,181	43,102 57,340	768,199 755,664
Consumers' societies	1918 1916 1917 1918	8, 098 334, 549 330, 816 303, 025	77, 979 2, 281 2, 201 2, 513	732, 507	8,438 2,020,815 2,154,623 2,196,081	69,164	896, 186 2, 357, 645 2, 487, 640 2, 501, 619
Building societies	1916 1917 1918	59,510 63,273 68,347	183 283 270	3,784 1,585 1,672	485 485 485 485		63,962 65,626 70,774
Total	1916 1917 1918	992,352 980,383 954,939	549, 434 527, 567 552, 386	1,759,090 1,710,736 1,834,021	2,030,651 2,164,289 2,205,004	146,342 166,063 161,973	5,509,193 5,586,096 5,708,323

The following statement shows the status of the consumers' cooperative movement throughout Germany on January 1, 1921:

Number of members		3, 8	300,000
Amount of sales	arks3	1,681,	826, 800
Goods manufactured	do	263,	530,000
Share capital	do	207	000 000

 $<sup>^2</sup>$  Zentralverbandes Deutscher Konsumvereine. Jahrbuch. Neunzehnter Jahrgang. Hamburg, 1921. Vol. 1, 720 pp.  $^3$  Mark at par=23.8 cents.

# Hungary.

A DVANCE figures showing the progress of the societies affiliated with the Hungarian cooperative wholesale society, the "Hangya," are given in the February, 1921, issue of the International Cooperative Bulletin. These figures are shown in the following table:

DEVELOPMENT OF COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES AFFILIATED WITH THE "HANGYA," 1914 TO 1919.

[Crown at par=20.3 cents.]

Year.	Number of societies.	Number of members.	Share capital.	Reserve.	Amount of business.	Net savings.
1914 1915 1916 1916 1917 1918	1, 276 1, 307 1, 386 1, 707 2, 140 2, 334	190, 555 228, 403 292, 062 467, 077 658, 267 800, 351	Cr. 5, 184, 614 5, 953, 040 8, 014, 720 16, 507, 546 27, 161, 656 42, 589, 591	Cr. 6,091,399 8,338,681 10,038,730 10,515,335 14,043,216 22,081,201	Cr. 58, 762, 483 77, 069, 069 107, 278, 794 172, 661, 259 247, 700, 037 483, 947, 988	Cr. 325, 220 568, 960 929, 521 1, 806, 628 5, 343, 365 5, 192, 733

By the end of 1920, according to the April-May, 1921, issue of the same publication, the number of societies in affiliation with the "Hangya" had decreased to 1,777. During 1920 the business done by the "Hangya" with these societies amounted to 1,374,400,891 crowns (\$279,003,381, par). During 1920, it is stated, the "Hangya" disbursed a million crowns (\$203,000, par) for charitable purposes. The surplus for 1920 is to be divided as follows: 21,000,000 crowns (\$4,263,000, par) to be returned in dividend to member societies; 5,000,000 crowns (\$1,015,000, par) to the employees' provident fund; 3,000,000 crowns (\$609,000, par) to the fund for developing agricultural production among small farmers; 200,000 crowns (\$40,600, par) for publishing; 200,000 crowns (\$40,600, par) to the pension fund of the National Hungarian Agricultural Society; 400,000 crowns (\$81,200, par) each to the faculty of economics of the University, the Hungarian Academy of Science, and the fund for combating infant mortality.

Italy.

THE Pacific Marine Review for June, 1921, contains (p. 374) a short account of the progress of the Cooperativa Garibaldi, the cooperative navigation society of Italy. According to this account the financial condition of the association on December 31, 1920, was as follows:

WS.	Lire.4
Total income	18, 609, 369, 05
Expenditure	17, 396, 577, 37
Net profit. Distribution of profits:	1, 213, 791. 68
To reserve	121, 379, 17
To amortization of shares	546, 206, 26
To pension fund	242, 758. 33
To development fund	303, 447. 92
Assets	35, 631, 492, 36
Value of fleet	17, 069, 548. 79
Bank balance	10, 501, 408. 18
Paid-up capital	27, 063, 768, 94

The Cooperativa Garibaldi has about 28,000 members and the society sails a fleet of nine ships, six of which it owns.

<sup>4</sup> Lira at par=19.3 cents.

# Japan.

A CCORDING to an article in the February, 1921, issue of the International Labor Review of the International Labor Office (pp. 265 to 277), although the cooperative movement in Japan dates from about 1892, the first great impetus was given by the enactment in 1900 of laws regulating the constitution of cooperative societies. From that time the number of societies rapidly increased, and at present there are over 13,000 of them in 12,000 cities and towns of Japan.

Four classes of cooperative societies are found: Credit, marketing, workers' productive, and consumers' societies; many societies combine the functions of two or more of these classes. As the following statement shows, the credit societies are the most numerous:

Number of societies of each kind in Japan in 1917. Nu	mber.
Credit societies	, 092
Marketing societies	248
Consumers' societies	414
Workers' productive societies	133
Marketing and consumers' societies	401
Marketing and productive societies	134
Consumers' and productive societies	25
Consumers' and productive societies	180
Credit and marketing societies	251
Credit and consumers' societies	2,710
Credit and productive societies	55
Credit, marketing, and consumers' societies	2,964
Credit, marketing, and productive societies	158
Credit, consumers' and productive societies	49
Credit, marketing, consumers', and productive societies 1	, 111
Total	2,025

The following table shows the number of members and the average size of each of the types of society in 1916, the latest year for which detailed figures are given:

NUMBER OF SOCIETIES, NUMBER OF MEMBERS, AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF MEMBERS PER SOCIETY, BY TYPE OF SOCIETY.

Type of society.	Number of societies reporting.	Number of members.	Average number of members per society.
Credit societies  Marketing societies.  Consumers' societies  Productive societies  Marketing and consumers' societies  Marketing and productive societies  Consumers' and productive societies.  Marketing, consumers' and productive societies.  Credit and marketing societies.  Credit and consumers' societies.  Credit and productive societies.  Credit, marketing, and consumers' societies.  Credit, marketing, and productive societies.  Credit, consumers' and productive societies.  Credit, marketing, and productive societies.  Credit, marketing, consumers', and productive societies.  Credit, marketing, consumers', and productive societies.	2, 863 165 364 98 328 99 25 144 328 2, 462 50 2, 572 122 50 917	402,533 17,167 47,311 7,788 34,390 6,354 2,215 14,268 34,941 284,770 4,037 344,738 18,765 3,871 134,354	141 104 1380 79 1055 64 88 99 107 116 45 133 134 154 777
Total	10,587	1,357,502	128

In most cases, it is stated, only persons of "independent livelihood" are eligible for membership in the cooperative societies of Japan. As the majority of the societies are found in rural districts, it is but natural that farmers form a large percentage of the membership. The composition of the membership of the societies, by occupation, is as follows: Farmers, 82.9 per cent; small manufacturers, 3.9 per

cent; traders, 6.7 per cent; fishermen, 1.6 per cent; foresters, 0.1 per

cent; and other occupations, 4.8 per cent.

Credit societies.—It is stated that the loans granted by the credit societies amounted at the end of 1918 to 91,700,000 yen (\$45,666,600, par), an average of 8,399 yen (\$4,183, par) per society and 62 yen (\$30.88, par) per member. Loans are usually unsecured, these unsecured loans forming 80 per cent of the total amount of loans. Interest charged is 1 or 2 per cent lower than the current local rate.

The societies receive three kinds of deposits: Current, fixed, and deferred. At the end of 1918 the deposits amounted to 133,000,000 yen (\$66,234,000, par), an average of 12,200 yen (\$6,076, par) per society and 94 yen (\$46.81, par) per member. Interest is paid at the

rate of 5 or 6 per cent.

Marketing societies.—These societies handle such commodities as rice, wheat, barley, vegetables, fruits, tea, linseed oil, cocoons, raw silk, mattings, straw and straw products, cattle, textiles, hosiery, pottery and porcelain, earthenware, timber, fuel and charcoal, fish, sugar, paper, etc. The business of these societies in 1918 was estimated at 134,000,000 yen (\$66,732,000, par), averaging 22,383 yen (\$11,147, par) per society and 169 yen (\$84.16, par) per member.

Consumers' societies.—Most of the consumers' societies are found

in agricultural districts and are, for the most part, simply buying clubs, though in some cases the society conducts a store. The price is in many cases as much as 5 per cent lower than the standard market price. As a rule cash payment is required, but where old customs persist payment is made every half year or at the end of the year. The purchases made during 1918 totaled 85,630,000 yen (\$42,643,740, par), which means an average of 10,240 yen (\$5,000 par) per society and 89 yen (\$44.32, par) per member. The chief articles bought through the medium of these societies are manure, agricultural implements, seeds and young plants, silkworm eggs and sericultural implements, all kinds of raw material for work, tools and machinery, fishing tackel, etc., and such articles of daily necessity as rice, wheat, barley, and other cereals, salt, soy, sugar, sake, vermicelli, fish, fuel and charcoal, kerosene oil, textile fabrics, etc.

Productive societies.—These societies undertake such work as packing and repacking of rice and other cereals, rereeling or packing of raw silk, drying cocoons, thread manufacture, drying and weaving, cleaning rice and other cereals, the manufacture of flour, paper, and sugar, the preparation of the products of fishing, condensed milk manufacture, etc. The business of these societies amounted to about 1,160,000 yen (\$577,680, par) at the end of 1918, making an average of 584 yen (\$291, par) per society and about 5 yen (\$2.49, par) per member. In addition, as the laws relating to agricultural warehousing were put into force in 1917, many cooperative societies were formed for building barns to preserve corn and cocoons for farmers, for working such products as were intrusted to them, for the packing, repacking, and transportation of these articles, for acting as sales agents or for doing a general brokerage business, and for lending funds to agricultural communities on the security of agricultural warehouse bonds. This branch of the work gives promise of a hopeful future, inasmuch as the cooperative societies in the warehousing business

already numbered 564 at the end of February, 1920.

Besides the individual societies there are also 100 federations of

Cooperative societies in Japan enjoy certain privileges accorded them by the Government. These are: (1) Exemption from business. income, and registration taxes; (2) preferential treatment by the Government in the purchase by the latter of supplies for the army, much of these being bought from the cooperative societies; (3) loans at low interest from the Government through certain banks; and (4) unsecured loans procured from the Japanese mortgage bank and other real estate banks. Portugal.

EVEN though Portugal may be said to be a backward country from the standpoint of cooperation, the movement there is a required the standpoint of cooperation, the movement there is growing. This is shown by a consular report of March 8, 1921, according to which the Federation of Cooperative Societies, established in 1920 by 46 associations, had up to December 31 of that year done business amounting to 167,000 escudos (\$180,444, par). During the first quarter of 1921 its business amounted to 304,000 escudos (\$328,472, par). The number of societies in affiliation has increased to 135 and the individual membership is now 70,000. These societies have a combined capital of 2,700,000 escudos (\$2,917,350, par). The societies are now said to be considering the formation of a central cooperative bank. Union of South Africa.

A BILL 5 has been introduced into the Parliament of the Union of South Africa which provides for the formation and registration of "cooperative trading societies." Only those societies are entitled to come under the law which return their surplus savings to their members. The bill specifies the conditions of election of directors and their powers and lays down rules of procedure for meetings. All societies registered under the bill must make an annual report to the Government registrar. A schedule is appended, giving model rules for cooperative societies.

United Kingdom.6

HE statistics of operation of cooperative societies, members of the Cooperative Union during 1919, are given in the People's Yearbook, 1921. The following table shows the details of operation for these societies:

STATISTICS OF OPERATION OF MEMBERS OF THE COOPERATIVE UNION, 1919. [£ at par=\$4.8665.]

Class.	Num- ber of socie- ties.	Number of members.	Share and loan capital.	Sales.	Net surplus.	Number of em- ployees.	Salaries and wages.
Distributive societies. Distributive federations. Productive societies. Supply associations. Special societies. Wholesale societies.	1,357 5 95 3 4 3	4, 131, 477 61 39, 331 8, 351 736 2, 063	£74, 411, 306 46, 512 2, 299, 565 472, 089 82, 694 21, 489, 065	£198, 930, 437 153, 735 7, 047, 147 2, 238, 312 954, 284 115, 457, 164	£20, 390, 833 10, 237 487, 282 74, 405 52, 808 793, 998	33 11,075 1,732 1,154 42,920	£14, 219, 320 3, 757 1, 232, 127 252, 292 105, 535 5, 149, 138
Total	1,467	4, 182, 019	98, 801, 231	324, 781, 079	21, 809, 563	187, 535	20, 962, 169

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Union of South Africa. Government Gazette Extraordinary. Capetown, Apr. 6., 1921. Vol. XLIV, No. 1138.

<sup>6</sup> Data are from the People's Year Book, 1921, p. 49; The Producer (Manchester, England), April, 1921, p. 159; The Economist, Apr. 23, 1921, p. 821; and the Christian Science Monitor, May 30, 1921.

The report of the English Cooperative Wholesale Society for the six months ending December 25, 1920, shows sales for that period amounting to £54,213,760 (\$263,831,263, par) and for the year 1920 to £105,439,628 (\$513,121,950, par). Deposits and withdrawals in the banking department amounted to £331,308,844 (\$1,612,314,489, par) for the six-months period and to £645,772,632 (\$3,142,652,514, par) for 1920.

There was a "disposable balance" of saving amounting to £68,078

There was a "disposable balance" of saving amounting to £68,078 (\$331,302, par). The wholesale committee recommended a dividend of 5 per cent to members and of half that rate to nonmembers. To do this, it is reported, it will be necessary to take from the reserve

fund £211,112 (\$1,027,377, par).

Some of the departments of the wholesale showed a loss, which is attributed in part to the fact that "trade began to decline in the early part of April, 1920, a decline which has continued with increasing rapidity ever since, with the result that sales have fallen off and stocks have increased. To adjust cost to price in a rapidly increasing market for goods was quite easy, but there was the greatest difficulty in adjusting price to cost in a rapidly falling market. This seems to be the very essence and root cause of the troublous times through which we are passing, and until some adjustment is made between costs of production and selling prices our troubles are likely to become more acute as time goes on."

#### Ireland.

According to the March, 1921, number of the International Cooperative Bulletin the number and status of each of the various types of cooperative societies in Ireland at the end of 1919 was as follows:

NUMBER, MEMBERSHIP, AND BUSINESS OF COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN IRE-LAND IN 1919, BY TYPE OF SOCIETY.

10-1	41	ODOF 1
2: 20	par=\$4.	8055.

Type of society.	Number of societies.	Number of members.	Share and loan capital.	Amount of business.
Central and auxiliary dairy societies	439 350 138 13 55 31 2	50, 324 51, 449 15, 914 3, 576 11, 575 2, 531 1 490	£607, 800 362, 028 67, 143 6, 099 83, 505 50, 561 129, 882	£7, 047, 079 1, 279, 471 33, 834 246, 599 696, 649 47, 791 1, 807, 160
Total	1,028	135, 369	1, 307, 018	11, 158, 583

<sup>1</sup> Societies.

### Scotland.

According to a consular report recently received by this bureau, a new feature in cooperative organization in Scotland during the past year has been the establishment of farmers' cooperative blacksmith shops in a number of districts. The farmers combine in the purchase of a shop and employ skilled blacksmiths to do the work. In this way they effect a saving of from 7s. to 8s. (\$1.70 to \$1.94, par) for every horse shod and get their jobbing work done at correspondingly low rates. The employees receive the union scale of wages and the business is run at a profit.

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# WHAT STATE LABOR BUREAUS ARE DOING.

## Connecticut.

AMONG the more important subjects covered in the report of the industrial investigator of the Connecticut Department of Labor and Factory Inspection on the condition of industrial wage earners of that State, from January 15, 1919, to November 30, 1920, are labor conditions, mercantile establishments, and cost of living.

#### Labor Conditions.

The report states that there has been considerable idleness in New Haven, Norwich, Bristol, New London, New Britain, and Bridgeport, but not in a degree to be regarded as menacing.

Production is being lowered in nearly every branch of labor by the great law of supply and demand, augmented by limitation of credit by banks, deficient transportation, irregularity of labor production, and scarcity of raw materials. The latter, by the way, for months, has not existed in the sense that raw material was not somewhere, but it could not be obtained when it was needed. For example, it was hardfor the woolen mills to secure the finer grades of wool at the time there was a great
demand for the finished product, but there is and has been a surplus in Great Britain, Australia, South America, and the wool-growing parts of the United States.

An active agent in the bringing about of present conditions as far as many industries are concerned has been overlooked. This is the combination of the consumer against

the maker and the seller.

The soaring of prices for finished products in 1919 and 1920, when they reached a scale that even the reckless buying of the war time would not stand, caused people to limit their expenditures to the absolute necessities. Of course, there were hundreds who bought as largely as their purses permitted, but there were thousands who did not, and the result of this quiet and persistent economy had an influence which can not be discredited.

### Mercantile Establishments.

Since 1914 wages in the lower grades in mercantile establishments have increased over 200, 220, and 250 per cent. In the higher grades, ranging from \$10 to \$50 a week, the increase has ranged from 6 to 45 per cent.

This does not take into consideration the paying of bonuses by many firms not allowing the employees to buy at cost or at 10 per cent to 15 per cent discount from the selling price.

Many firms, an increasing number since 1916, in addition to the wages, pay their employees a commission on sales, ranging from 1 per cent to 5 per cent over a certain amount of such sales.

Notwithstanding the increase in wages, the \$8 received to-day really equals in purchasing about \$3.93 of the wages in 1914.

There are 16,634 women in mercantile employment in the State, 10,000 of whom have direct connection with stores. Out of 20,329 men in mercantile work about 10,000 are directly connected with stores. The large stores in many of the more important cities of Connecticut have made great progress in sanitary and welfare conditions. The stores in small towns are to a certain extent also making improvements along similar lines.

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#### Home Workers.

The number of home workers reported for different periods in 1919 and 1920 in 34 villages, towns, and cities ranged from 1,016 to 2,658. It is probable that a survey at this time would show another change.

Over 100 firms employ home workers, 3,500 in number in 1920, an increase of 48 per

cent in employers and 57 per cent in employees.

There is no growth of sentiment in favor of this work. In no case did any employer say that he would use it in preference to shopwork. Nor is it of the character which interferes with the latter. Home work is an adjunct. Many employers stated that in their experience it was a most helpful and needed means of increasing the home income. \* \* \*

It is difficult to establish a satisfactory ratio between the rates of pay for home work and for factory work. Taking piecework for comparison, it must be held in mind that in the factory the worker attains the highest rate of speed that can be mustered, while in the home the labor is performed at different times, when opportunity permits, and at varying rates of quickness. The character of the work is different. But as far as comparison can be carried out, it is estimated that the difference of wage rate is from 30 per cent to 45 per cent.

#### Cost of Living.

The personal budgets of 1,000 workers of every grade of wages and nationality were secured in 1919–20.

The expenditure in families whose income was between \$1,300 and \$1,400 was about \$150 for clothing, \$300 to \$360 for rent, \$500 for food. In some cases they had heated apartments for the latter rent; where they had not, they spent \$70 to \$80 for heat and light.

They had very little of the income over at the end of the year.

Families between \$1,400 and \$1,500 covered their clothing expenses by \$200 for entire family; between \$500 and \$600 for food; \$420 for rent; \$80 to \$90 for heat and light; took a daily paper, went to the movies, spent about \$50 a year on insurance; about \$40 on recreation.

about \$40 on recreation.

Between \$1,500 and \$1,600, clothing expense ran from \$200 to \$250 a year; food \$600, an average of about \$12 a week; some expense for household assistance to the wife; rent over \$400 or whole or part ownership of a home; in some, no expense for heat; expense for light and phone \$68 or \$75; incidentals much larger.

expense for light and phone \$68 or \$75; incidentals much larger.

In the class from \$1,600 to \$1,800, in some there was found a closer economy than in the lower wage earners, but more expense for clothing, amusement, recreation, and

travel.

#### Other Subjects of Investigation.

Labor unrest and turnover, profiteering, child labor and vocational education, housing, the laundry industry, and the worker's attitude toward cultural and uplift work in the factory are also discussed in this report on conditions of wage earners.

#### Kansas.1

THE Labor Department of Kansas, under the direction of the Court of Industrial Relations, is gathering and compiling information from industrial establishments regarding the number of employees, male and female; their hours of labor and average weekly earnings; the number of strikes, lockouts, and other labor difficulties during the year. The results of this survey will give very valuable data on the industrial activities of the whole State.

The women's division of the Industrial Welfare Commission, under the Kansas Court of Industrial Relations, is making a survey of the cost of living of the women of the State. This survey will include

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Information furnished by the judge of the Kansas Court of Industrial Relations under date of June 25, 1921.

the 31 towns in which the United States Women's Bureau made its

hour and wage study last summer.

Conferences are being held with the retailers in the various communities. A general cost-of-living budget has been prepared and also a special clothing budget.

The plan of procedure will be as follows:

1. To get working women in the various cities to ascertain what they actually do spend.

2. To study room rent and board, both at restaurants and board-

ing houses.

3. To have the women's division agents take the prepared budgets and price the various articles by making shopping tours in the different communities.

4. To hold conferences with women's organizations and business men, especially retailers, and submit to them both the general and the clothing budgets.

# Massachusetts—Department of Labor and Industries.1

AS PART of the industrial health work of the department, a study of infected injuries is being made by its division of industrial safety. The questionnaire employed in this connection covers occupation of the injured person, previous employment, age and sex, nature of injury, date and duration of injury, provisions made in the establishment for treatment of injured persons, nature of first-aid given, when infection was first noted, and result of injury.

The division of minimum wage is conducting an investigation of wages of women employed in the public housekeeping occupation, including hotels, restaurants, apartment houses, clubs, and insti-

tutions.

A study of the pay rolls of 107 buildings inspected in Boston, under the office and other building cleaners' decree, shows that in 38 the rates as recommended by the commission were adopted without any change in the number of working hours or in the number of women cleaners. No change was necessary in 5 buildings, as the prevailing rates were as high, or even higher, than those recommended. The total number of women cleaners in these 43 buildings is 320.

Prior to the recent decree of the commission, the majority of women worked 5 hours a night—six nights a week. Subsequent to the decree, hours in 10 buildings were changed from 30 to 42 a week.

In 63 buildings, approximately one-half, minimum rates recommended were technically adopted, but various changes were made in the working schedules of these buildings which seem to indicate that although the letter of the recommendations was acknowledged, the spirit of the decree was not. In 23 buildings there has been a reduction of 105 women since the decree went into operation. Following is a summary of the inspection of 107 buildings:

Number of buildings where compliance with the decree was already in effect	5
Compliance with the decree without a decrease in hours or reduction of working force.	38
Compliance with decree by increasing the hours from 30 to 42 a week and wages to \$15.40 or more.	10

<sup>1</sup> Note furnished by the Department of Labor and Industries of Massachusetts.

Compliance with the decree by reducing hours and slightly increasing wages	5
Compliance with the decree by reducing hours—pay roll remaining unchanged	20
Compliance with the decree by reducing hours—pay roll lower than formerly	2
Compliance with the decree by increasing rates and reducing number of women. Approximate compliance with the decree, employers refusing to pay fractions of	4
dollars as it complicates bookkeeping.	14
Compliance with the decree by increasing hours and reducing number of women	9

The following question was submitted to the attorney general's office:

"Does the law permit a woman to work more than 48 hours in 7 consecutive days, although in any calendar week she does not exceed 48 hours?"

The Attorney General's reply was:

"That in the absence of an express declaration that the term week' in the statute shall mean any consecutive 7 days, it must be given its usual meaning and be considered equivalent to the phrase in any calendar week."

This opinion affects the employment of women in drug stores, hotels, and restaurants. In such establishments it is possible under this opinion for women to be employed as long as 57 hours in a period of 7 consecutive days, provided thay are not employed more than 48

hours in any one calendar week.

During the month of May (25 days) the number of persons placed by the three offices was 2,679, as compared with 2,660 placed during the month of March (25 days) and 1,804 during the month of January (25 days). This very gratifying increase was made possible by an increase of 1,166, or 50 per cent, in the number of persons applied for

in May over the number in January.

The extent to which the industrial depression has affected the work of the three State employment offices is indicated by the following comparisons: During the first 5 months of 1921 the number of persons placed was 11,523, as compared with 16,885 placed during the first 5 months of 1920—a decrease of 5,362, or 31.7 per cent; while the number of persons applied for by employers during the first 5 months in 1921 was 15,019, as compared with 28,014 during the corresponding period in 1920—a decrease of 12,995, or 46.4 per cent. The three offices supplied 76.7 per cent of the persons applied for by employers during the first 5 months in 1921, as compared with 60.2 per cent during the first 5 months of 1920.

#### Minnesota.

THE secretary of the Industrial Commission of Minnesota reports, under date of June 27, 1921, that the former civil-service law of the State, providing that all appointments in the department of labor should be made from a list of eligibles who had passed competitive examinations, was amended by the last legislature "by eliminating all positions in the department from the civil-service feature with the exception of factory inspectors, railroad inspectors, elevator inspectors, inspectors of the bureau of women and children, statisticians, clerks, and stenographers." Many have been taking examinations for these positions.

Under the above-mentioned date the secretary of the Minnesota commission also writes that there was scarcely any improvement in the industrial conditions in that State during the previous 60 days.

Considerable unemployment is reported. Many men have been

thrown out of work by the closing down of a majority of the iron

mines on the Mesaba Range.

There has been, however, an amicable adjustment between building contractors and the building trades, the latter having accepted a 20 per cent reduction in wages, and building operations have been stimulated to some extent.

## North Dakota.

AT THE request of the commissioner of agriculture and labor of North Dakota, a special agent of the Federal-State Employment Service at Fargo has forwarded to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics the following information under date of July 5, 1921:

To facilitate proper handling of harvest laborers, North Dakota has been divided into districts, with offices at Fargo, Grand Forks, Minot, Bismarck, Jamestown, Devils Lake, and Oakes. Each office serves a certain number of counties, the grouping being primarily based upon railroad facilities. The various county agents, farmbureau presidents, etc., have been advised as to which office will serve them. No office accepts an order from outside its own territory, but if such an order is received the applicant is referred to the proper office or the application is relayed to that office.

State distribution headquarters is at Fargo. All offices within the State report to the Fargo office regarding conditions in their fields. The Fargo office is in a position

to direct the movement of labor in the State and keeps all offices informed as to the demand and supply of men in other parts of the State as well as an average wage.

Weekly news letters are mailed to each county agent, farm-bureau president, or other individuals personally interested in the labor market through placing individuals in positions. These news letters contain a summary of the reports from all offices in the State, giving a general idea of labor conditions throughout the State.

# Pennsylvania.

## Department of Internal Affairs.

THE Bureau of Information of the Pennsylvania Department of Internal Affairs reported on July 15, 1921, that 79,512,200 tons of hard coal were produced in 1919 in the 10 anthracite counties of the State, while in 1920 the production was 79,364,600 tons, or 147,600 less than in the previous year. The coal mined in 1920, however, had a value of \$436,488,000, while that in 1919 was valued at \$364,801,100. In 1919 there were 151,812 workers employed in 178 coal-mining plants in the anthracite field and in 1920 144,551 persons in 187 plants, a decrease in the number of employees of 4.8 per cent. The value of the anthracite coal produced was approximately 20 per cent higher in 1920 than in 1919, while the actual quantity of coal produced in 1920 was less than in the preceding year.

The records show that anthracite mine workers in 1920 were paid a total wage of \$237,302,900, while in 1919 the total wages amounted to \$209,452,900. Of the 144,551 wage earners in the industry in 1920, all were males with the exception of one. Of the number employed 67,299 were Americans, white, 333 were Americans, colored, and 76,919 were foreigners. Increases were recorded in both classes of American employees last year, but the number of foreigners was 7,629 less than in 1919.

### Regulation of Motion Pictures. 1

The committee appointed by the commissioner of the Department of Labor and Industry of Pennsylvania to aid the Industrial Board to draft regulations for the exhibition of motion pictures in churches, schools, and "similar places of public assembly" has agreed to submit the following rulings for the consideration of the industrial board at its July 12, 1921, meeting:

1. Approval of motion-picture projectors.—All motion-picture projectors shall be approved by the Industrial Board for use within the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, in

accordance with the method of procedure for the approval of such devices.

2. Permits and licenses for operators.—(a) All persons operating approved motion-picture projectors in churches, schools, lodges, and other similar places of public

assembly shall file an application for a permit.

(b) Applicants desiring to operate approved motion-picture projectors designed for safety films only shall be granted a permit upon filing an application properly filled in and duly affirmed before a notary public or other person authorized to administer oaths.

(c) Applicants desiring to operate approved motion-picture projectors designed for "standard films''only, or "safety and standard films," shall file an application properly filled in and duly affirmed before a notary public or other person authorized to admin-

Such applicants shall be granted a permit upon completing satisfactorily an exami-

nation covering the particular type of projector to be operated.

(d) Applicants desiring to operate approved motion-picture projectors for commercial purposes shall be required to take the regular examination for motion-picture

operators of theaters and similar places of public amusement.

3. Permit for use of building.—Every building in which motion pictures are exhibited shall be approved for such purpose by the Department of Labor and Industry and a permit be issued signifying the approval.

## Home Work in Custom Tailoring in Philadelphia.

An investigation of 121 homeworkers in custom tailoring in Philadelphia has recently been made by six Bryn Mawr graduate students under the supervision of the Pennsylvania Department of Labor.

It was found that in 91 homes the homeworkers whose names were listed were assisted by 121 additional persons, 71 of whom were classified as helpers. Thirty-five wives were working with their husbands, and 5 daughters and 10 sons were assisting their fathers.

Forty-seven of the home workers are operating under city licenses, five under State licenses, and sixteen did not know whether the license held was city or State. Fiftyfour had no licenses. Thirty-one of the licenses held have been issued since 1920. The workers in many instances do not know whether their licenses have to be renewed or not. All but five of the licenses held will have expired by the end of June, 1921. The ideas of the workers regarding inspection are very hazy. Seven of the homes have never been inspected. Some of the homes were inspected at the issuance of licenses, in many cases several years ago, and not since then; some "every once in a while"; and a very few "once or twice a year."

One hundred and nine of the 121 listed workers have special work Fourteen rooms were reported as "not orderly, poor, or rooms. dirty." There had been 11 cases of contagious diseases within 6

Of the 121 families, 72 are Italian, 46 Jewish, 2 Hungarian, and 1 Swedish. Thirty families have 5 persons in them; 36 less than 5; and 54 more than 5. Five constitutes the average family. In 16 families, 4 girls and 12 boys under 16 years of age run errands and receive and return work after school. One family has the children do basting on garments.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Bulletin of Information issued by the Industrial Board of the Department of Labor and Industry of Pennsylvania, June, 1921.

The work was very irregular in 118 families. The two busy seasons are about three months in the spring and about three months in the fall. The figures on hours and wages are for the most part mere guesses by the home workers, as in the majority of cases no records were kept. Hours of work are reported, however, as varying from 8 to 18 per day in the busy times of the year. It is also reported that the average weekly earnings range from "0 in the slack seasons to \$190 per week in the busy seasons. The highest wages for one member range from \$6 to \$125 and the lowest from 0 to \$25. Rates of pay vary from \$7 to \$25 per coat, \$1.50 to \$4.50 per vest, and from \$2.50 to \$5 for trousers."

### Texas.

ACCORDING to the sixth biennial report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of Texas, 1919-1920, the private employment agencies of the State during the fiscal year ending August 31, 1920, had 121,127 applications for employment and furnished 113,295 positions. The total fees collected amounted to \$135,168.80.

The following figures show the number of positions furnished men and women (white, Negro, and Mexican) for the same year:

MALE.		FEMALE.	
Negro	2, 373	White. Negro. Mexican.	107
	111, 451		1,844

The women's division of the State department of labor has formulated the following labor standards for women and children in in-dustry which will be recommended in all industries employing women and children:

- (a) No woman should be employed for more than 8 hours in any one day. The time when the work period begins and ends and the time allowed for meals and rest periods should be conspicuously posted in workrooms, and a strict record of overtime
  - (b) Half holidays on Saturday should be the custom.(c) Every woman should have one day of rest out of seven.
- (d) At least three-quarters of an hour should be allowed every woman worker for meals.
  - (e) A rest period should be allowed in the middle of each work period.
  - (f) No woman should be employed between the hours of 10 p. m. and 6 a. m. (g) Equal pay for equal work regardless of sex
- (h) Continuous standing, sitting, or heavy lifting should be prohibited, and suitable seats provided for every woman employed, and their use encouraged.

  (i) All machinery should be safeguarded and fire drills and other forms of safety
- regulations instituted.
  - i) Dress suitable for occupation, health, and safety should be required.
- (k) Thorough study in matters of industrial hygiene in order to be cognizant of the conditions leading to the deterioration of health of workers, and be able to promote industrial hygiene and sanitation.
- (1) Proper provisions should be made for lighting, ventilation, and sanitation, and comfortable rest and dressing rooms provided.
- (m) No work should be given out to be done in rooms used for living or sleeping purposes, or in any rooms directly connected with rooms used for living or sleeping purposes.
- (n) No child should be employed in industrial pursuits where the service of an adult can be used, and under no circumstances where it comes in contact with

influences which may have a bad effect upon its physical, moral, or mental condition.

(o) No child should be permitted to work more than 8 hours per day of 24 hours, and under no condition should it be permitted to work after 8 p. m. or before 6 a. m. (p) The child who is prohibited from working should be in school, and the school should make every effort to interest the child, so that he will postpone going into industry as long as possible.

The findings in the child labor surveys in Austin and Corpus Christi clearly demonstrate the need for improvement in the legal protection of children.

### Wisconsin-Changes in Personnel of Industrial Commission.

THE secretary of the Wisconsin Industrial Commission states that Hon. F. M. Wilcox, who has been a member of the commission for eight years, has succeeded Hon. George P. Hambrecht as chairman of that body. Hon. R. G. Knutson, of La Crosse, became a member of the commission July 1 upon the retirement of Mr. Hambrecht.

### Wyoming.

AN IMPORTANT development in the work of the Wyoming Department of Labor is its cooperation with the Federal Employment Service in conducting an employment clearing house. The commissioner of labor and statistics reports that the scheme is working out in a very satisfactory manner and that most of the activities of the department are centered along this line at present because of the large amount of unemployment.

The commissioner also reports that through a mediation board, of which he was the chairman, a controversy between the contractors' association and the several building crafts of Cheyenne has been successfully adjusted and a new wage scale established for 1921.

### CURRENT NOTES OF INTEREST TO LABOR.

### Vacations for Factory Workers.1

AS A result of a questionnaire on vacations for factory workers, which was sent out by the Chicago Council of the Industrial Relations Association of America, in 1920, 63 firms, employing 147,707 persons, responded. Thirty-six of these establishments do not grant vacations to factory help, which is on an hourly, daily, or piecework basis. Five firms give vacations without pay; 1 with half pay; 11 with full pay; and 4 grant vacations to some of their old employees or to employees whose work involves unusual strain.

The following extracts from the factory managers' replies show

quite a difference of opinion on the question at issue:

1. A 10-day vacation with pay for each employee is worth while if workmanship, attendance, and tardiness are considered in granting leave to employees. Also pro-

vided the employee works 30 days after the end of the vacation.

2. I believe in vacations for all hands with full pay. These vacations should be contingent upon length of service and regularity of attendance. \* \* \* Those on piecework rates should have pay at the average of their earnings for some fair period, such as the previous six months. The vacations should be given when the employees can be best spared from their work and as nearly as possible in accordance with the wishes of the employees themselves.

3. An attendance of 95 per cent or better should be rewarded by vacations with pay. It is our practice to allow 2 hours a week for 100 per cent attendance, amounting

to approximately 100 hours, or 12 days a year.

4. I believe that a worker deserves some such recompense for faithful service. In fact, they most generally expect it. The small loss incurred is more than cared for by additional energy put forth by the workers in an effort to show their appreciation. 5. I believe it would be to the general advantage of all parties to close down for a

period of vacation each year.
6. It is our belief that health warrants vacations with pay.

7. Our labor agreement and piecework system make vacations inadvisable.

8. Our plant could not function properly with part of the men away, as in most cases our operations are performed in gangs that require particular experience for each individual gang.

9. Our pieceworkers are all of foreign extraction and wish to work full time. Vaca-

tions do not appeal to them.

10. I believe that vacations for industrial workers have no good effect, since they add nothing to their industry, efficiency, or loyalty, but might have directly the opposite effect.

11. The factory workers receive time and one-half for overtime, while office workers

are allowed supper money and vacations. One offsets the other.

12. Vacations in addition to overtime payments at time and one-half and double time for hourly rate employees—now the best paid employees in any organization seem to make the arrangements less equitable.

13. I don't think that employees working on hourly or piecework basis are entitled

to vacations.

The following statements are made as a result of interviews with factory managers in five establishments granting vacations to their employees on piecework, hourly, daily, or weekly basis:

Company A is now allowing two vacations annually to its employees on piecework and weekly basis. It is the opinion of the manager

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Factory, May 1, 1921, Chicago, pp. 1086, 1087.

that such vacations "are desirable from an economic standpoint, that confined employees need two periods each year to rest to fit

themselves for further endeavor."

In company B the "operation of a vacation plan to include shop workers in 1920 has brought about a satisfactory reaction." The scheme has been made a permanent policy of the firm. The workers receive full pay on vacation, the length of which depends upon the time they have been in the service of the company.

The employees who have worked for three years in company C have regular vacations with full pay. The men return refreshed and in better spirits. It is believed that the plan, which has been in operation for five years, is an economic advantage to the company.

Company D gives all the workers who have been in its service for a year or more vacations with pay. This has been the practice for three years and has had satisfactory results. Vacations are equal in length, but senior employees have priority in the selection of dates.

The manager of company E not only has summer-resort circulars posted on the bulletin board for the benefit of the employees, but he talks over their vacations with them upon their return to the factory.

It is conceded that vacation allowances will be most efficacious when they are the reward of good service. "They should not be gifts but investments which are to return better work from the employees." Each particular business should earnestly study the question before committing itself to a permanent vacation scheme. Different establishments require different plans, local conditions calling for individual consideration and treatment.

The need for employees spending their vacations in a beneficial

way is especially emphasized.

## British Movement for a Christian Order of Industry and Commerce.1

S AN outcome of several informal conferences, a meeting was held in London on May 18, 1921, to lay the foundations for a national campaign to "unite all men of good will engaged in the administration of industry, commerce, and the professions, in a movement for the application of Christian principles to industrial and commercial life." This undertaking has received the support of various religious leaders, and is also backed by many prominent business men.

The following are the principles of the movement as drafted for

discussion at the conference:

1. The governing motive and regulative principle of all industry and commerce should be service of the community.

2. The receipt of an income lays on the individual the duty of rendering service in accordance with his capacity. Every person should perform the best possible work.

3. The receipt of an income from industry should carry with it a responsibility for

the conditions and purposes of the industry. 4. Any competition should be subordinated to the service of the community.

5. Industry should create and develop human fellowship, and any practices calculated to destroy such fellowship are immoral.

6. The value of all natural resources and of every privilege which owes its worth

to the labor of all or to the necessities of all should be held and utilized for the benefit of all.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Excerpt from Monthly Report British Trade and Commerce, dated at London, England, May 12, 1921, forwarded by the State Department to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics; Manchester Guardian, May 19, 1921, p. 5.

7. Every individual man and woman is of intrinsic worth and human labor can not be regarded as a commodity. Therefore, every industry should be organized to

a. As a first charge an income sufficient to maintain, in reasonable comfort, all

engaged in it.

b. Provision for any special burden to which those engaged in the industry may be liable, such as undue fluctuations in work, sickness, etc., owing to the conditions of that industry—this in addition to any general provision that may be made by the State or otherwise.

c. Provision for superannuation—this in addition to any general provision that

may be made by the State or otherwise.

d. Healthy conditions for all engaged in the industry.

e. Opportunities for development of personality, talents, and self-expression.

The conference on May 18 decided upon the setting up of a governing council of the movement, consisting of men and women engaged in business, such council to be requested to consider how cooperation could be brought about with the Christian members of labor organizations.

#### Chinese in Canada.

A CCORDING to a report from the American consul at Kingston, under date of June 21, 1921, there are about 55,000 Chinese in Canada, a fifth of whom live east of the Great Lakes, the rest in western Canada. Vancouver has a Chinese colony of 10,000, Toronto and Montreal each 5,000, Victoria 3,000, Ottawa and Hamilton nearly 500 each, and certain other cities 100 each. In the Province of British Columbia they are successful market gardeners, while others serve as railway section hands or as miners. Calgary has a successful knitting mill owned and operated by Chinese.

They are said to be hard-working, honest, and law-abiding, Chinese communities having lower criminal records than those of other for-

eigners, and vagrancy among them is practically unknown.

# Coventry Firm Regulates Wages by Cost of Living.

THE American consul at Birmingham, England, reports, under date of April 29, 1921, that a large sewing-machine manufacturing company in Coventry has entered into an agreement (effective until October, 1921) with its workers, which provides that the rates per hour shall be regulated by the cost of living. The British Board of Trade cost of living index number at 133 points over the prewar level was made the basis for the rate at the time the report was made. There is to be an addition or reduction of 1d. (2 cents, par) per hour for every rise or fall of 10 points in the index.

Countries Prohibiting Use of White Phosphorus in Match Manufacture.

THE British Labor Gazette of May, 1921, states that Austria and Czechoslovakia have announced to the Swiss Federal Council adherence to the international convention of September 26, 1906, prohibiting the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches.

In addition to these two countries the following have signed the convention: Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Ireland, Italy, Luxemburg, Norway, Netherlands, Poland, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, and Tunis. It will be noted that the United States is not one of the signatories. This Government, however, has placed a prohibitive tax on the manufacture, sale, and transportation of matches made from white phosphorus, there being a constitutional objection to the signing of the international treaty.<sup>1</sup>

#### Industrial Conference in Czechoslovakia.

THE American consul at Prague reports, under date of May 25, 1921, that the chief subject under discussion at a meeting of representatives from the various industrial organizations of Czechoslovakia held on May 12, 1921, was the influence of the general economic situation on wages. The different organizations declared themselves, by resolution, as not opposed to a fixed rate of salary and as anxious to cut down the expenses of the working classes by reducing the cost of necessary commodities. These delegates, however, would not consent to any reduction in the salary rate until the fall in the cost of living had become permanent.

Attacks on the 8-hour day were protested. Demand was made that proposed legislation for the establishment of homes for the

aged should be presented to Parliament.

Emphasis was laid upon the need for more effective unemployment relief, for protection against arbitrary discharges, and on the necessity of putting to a vote proposed plans for obtaining financial State aid and granting public contracts to reduce the number of the unemployed.

It was also stated that all persons not earning more than 15,000 Czecho-Slovak crowns (about \$3,039, par) a year should be given

tickets entitling them to buy flour at a reduction.

## Depression in the Watchmaking Industry in Switzerland.

THE American consul at Geneva, Switzerland, reports that in 1920, and also in the current year, conditions in the watch-making industry in that country have been very unsatisfactory, especially with regard to unemployment. In March, 1920, only 97 men were unemployed in the industry; in November, 1920, 6,300; and in December, 1920, 14,500. In February, 1921, 24,700 were unemployed, 5,600 being totally out of work.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Constitutionality of treaty provisions affecting labor, by Thomas I. Parkinson, in American Labor Legislation Review, March, 1919. Pp. 21–32.

# PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO LABOR.

## Official-United States.

ALASKA.—Mine Inspector. Annual report, 1920. Juneau, 1921. 72 pp.

The data on mine accidents are summarized on page — of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

California.—Industrial Accident Commission. Mine safety orders. Effective January 1, 1921. Sacramento, 1920. 125 pp.

— Shipbuilding safety orders. Effective April 1, 1921. Sacramento, 1921.

Connectiour.—Department of Labor. Report on the condition of wage-earners in the State. 1919-1920. Hartford, 1920, 125 pp.

Excerpts from the report appear on pages 204 and 205 of this issue of the Review.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Department of Education. Division of Vocational Education.

Annual returns to Departments of Labor and Industries, and Education. Home permits, employment certificates, educational certificates. Boston, 1920. 16 pp. 1920, No. 5. Whole No. 114.

Describes the methods of obtaining the required information concerning minors certified for employment.

New York.—Industrial Commission. Bureau of Women in Industry. Industrial posture and seating. Albany, 1921. 56 pp. Illustrated. Special Bulletin No. 104. This pamphlet is summarized on pages 142 and 143 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Texas.—Bureau of Labor Statistics. Sixth biennial report, 1919-1920, Austin, 1921, 116 pp.

Data from the manuscript copy of this report appeared on pages 228 and 229 of the January, 1921, issue of the Monthly Labor Review. Excerpts from the printed copy of this report are given on pages 210 and 211 of the present issue of the Review.

Utah.—Industrial Commission. Report for the period July 1, 1918, to June 30, 1920. Salt Lake City [1921]. 473 pp.

Portions of this report are summarized on page 147 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Virginia.—Industrial Commission. Report for the year ending September 30, 1920. Richmond, 1921. 47 pp.

 $\dot{}$  For a summary of this report see pages 147 to 149 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

United States.—Congress. House of Representatives. Committee on Ways and Means. Recapitulation of wages in industries, domestic and foreign. Washington, 1921. 39 pp. Tariff information, 1921. Sixty-sixth Congress, third session.

The wage data were compiled from the oral testimony and briefs submitted to the committee at hearings on general tariff revision in January and February, 1921.

Department of Commerce. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Statistical abstract of the United States, 1920. Washington, 1921. xix, 874 pp.

Three sections relate to occupations, labor, and wages; to prices; and to money, banking, and insurance, respectively. Relative union rates of wages and hours of labor in various occupations are shown by years, for 1914 to 1920, and wages of farm labor for 1910, 1919, and 1920, by States.

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UNITED STATES.—Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics. History of the Shipbwilding Labor Adjustment Board, 1917 to 1919. Washington, 1921. 107 pp. Bulletin No. 283. Labor as affected by the war series.

 $\Lambda$  résumé of this bulletin appeared on pages 183 and 184 of the June, 1921, issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

- Bureau of Naturalization. Student's textbook. A standard course of instruction for use in the public schools of the United States for the preparation of the candidate for the responsibilities of citizenship. Washington, 1921. 131 pp.
- Children's Bureau. The administration of the aid-to-mothers law in Illinois.

  Washington, 1921. 176 pp. Legal series No. 7. Bureau publication No. 82.

The report points out the need of centralized control of the administration of the mothers' pension law and the need of larger pensions to insure fair living conditions.

ment of minors is affected by school attendance laws.

— Department of the Interior. Bureau of Mines. Coal-mine fatalities in the United States, 1920, and coal-mine statistics supplementing those published in bulletin 115. Washington, 1921. 112 pp. Technical paper 288.

A summary of this report appears on pages 141 and 142 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

## Official-Foreign Countries.

Australia (South Australia).—Statistical Department. Statistical register for the year 1919-20. Part V.—Production. (Section 1.—Prefatory report.) Adelaide, 1920. xxxi pp.

Includes a comparative statement, by industry groups, of the average earnings of male and female employees in 1914, 1918–19, and 1919–20. The average earnings of male employees of all ages were £131 4s. 2d. (\$638.53, par) in 1914 as compared with £162 8s. 8d. (\$790.48, par) in the year 1919–20, an increase of 23.8 per cent. Female employees of all ages earned an average of £44 18s. 11d. (\$218.73, par) in 1914 and of £64 2s. (\$311.94, par) in 1919–20, an increase of 42.6 per cent.

Canada (Alberta).—Workmen's Compensation Board. Report, 1920. Edmonton, 1921. 40 pp.

This report is noted on pages 149 and 150 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

— (ВВІТІЅН СОLUMВІА).—Department of Labor. Annual report, 1920. Victoria, 1921. 74 pp.

Contains tables of classified wages, by industries, reports of the activities of the minimum wage board and of the provincial employment service, an account of labor disputes, and a directory of labor organizations of the Province.

— Minimum Wage Board. Report for 1920. (Reprinted from the annual report of the Department of Labor for the year 1920.) [Victoria, 1921.] 14 pp. Gives a brief summary of the nine wage orders issued by the board, the first becoming effective February, 1919, and the last, February, 1920.

— (Nova Scotia).—Commission on Mothers' Allowances. Report. Halifax, 1921. 55 pp.

The commission recommends the passing of an act to provide for the payment of allowances in certain cases to the mothers of dependent children. It is pointed out that these allowances are not to be confused with compensation or pensions for widows. The appendix contains the text of the mothers' pension laws passed by other Canadian Provinces.

Denmark.—Statistiske Departement. Arbejdsløsheden i aarene 1915–1919. Copenhagen, 1921. 82 pp. Danmarks Statistik. Statistiske Meddelelser. 4. række. 61. Bind. 4 Hæfte.

This publication gives unemployment statistics for the period from 1915 to 1919.

Great Britain.—Industrial Court. Decisions. Nos. 589 to 637. Vol. III, Part III. London, 1921. 134, iv pp.

Also contains index to parts I, II, and III of Volume III.

— Industrial Fatigue Research Board. Report No. 13. A statistical study of labor turnover in munition and other factories. London, 1921. 92 pp. General series No. 4.

This study relates principally to labor turnover during the war period, although some data for the postwar period is included. The appendixes contain statistical tables and a memorandum on factory records, including specimen forms for recording turnover data.

- Ministry of Labor. Intelligence and Statistics Department. Standard time rates of wages and hours of labor in the United Kingdom at December 31, 1920. London, 1921. viii, 288 pp. Cmd. 1253.
- Registry of Friendly Societies. Building societies, cooperative societies, and tradeunions. Statistical summaries showing the operations of these societies. London, 1921. 5 pp.

The data are for the year 1919. More detailed information will be issued in the annual reports.

—— (Scotland).—Board of Agriculture. Report on farm workers in Scotland in 1919–20. Edinburgh, 1921. vi, 78 pp.

This report is summarized on pages 100 to 102 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

International Labor Office.—International Labor Review, Vol. 1, No. 2. Geneva, February, 1921. 129 pp.

Contains among the special articles one on "Industrial hygiene" by Sir Thomas Oliver, which outlines the industrial health problems which will naturally fall within the scope of the duties of the International Labor Office, and gives a brief account of what has already been done in different countries toward improving conditions. The formation, aims, and activities of the Economic Labor Council of France are given by Leon Jouhaux, secretary of the Confédération Générale du Travail and an article on "The German Works Councils Act and its significance" is contributed by Eduard Bernstein, a member of the German Reichstag. "Daily tonnage output of the pick miner," by Ethelbert Stewart, United States Commissioner of Labor Statistics, is reprinted from the Monthly Labor Review of February, 1921. Other articles include: An account of the Kyocho Kai or Harmonizing Society of Japan and an article on cooperation in Japan; "Attendance of workers in Moscow factories"; "Industrial rehabilitation in the United States of America," and, under the subject of industrial hygiene, an article on "Industrial tuberculosis and the problem of factory dust" and one on "The health of the British population judged by the examination of recruits in 1917 and 1918."

— International Labor Review. Vol. 1. No. 3. Geneva, March, 1921. 157 pp. The principal articles in this number of the Review are one on "International labor law," by Ernest Mahaim; "Socialization of the German building industry," by A. Ellinger, and "Occupational diseases in Germany." In "Social welfare in Japan," the recent work of the Kyocho Kai and other organizations along the lines of poor relief and emergency aid, clinical and dispensary work, child protection, unemployment relief, and factory welfare work is reviewed. In a discussion of the Government proposal for workers' control of industry in Italy, the full text of the bill as presented to the Chamber of Deputies in February, 1921, is given. Statistical articles include one on production, prices, and cost of living in different countries and one on employment conditions in February, 1921, based on returns from employers. Labor conditions in Great Britain and in Russia are treated in articles on "Conciliation and arbitration in Great Britain" and "Regulation of employment conditions in Soviet Russia."

- International Labor Office.—The International Seamen's Code. Note addressed to the Governments of the States members of the International Labor Organization by the International Labor Office. Geneva, 1921. 174 pp.
  - This report is summarized on pages 174 and 175 of this issue of the Review.
- Netherlands.—Central Bureau voor de Statistiek. Overzicht van den omvang der vakbeweging op 1 Januari 1920. (Statistique des syndicats ouvriers au 1er janvier 1920.) 's-Gravenhage, 1921. 36, xxxii pp. Bijdragen tot de statistiek van Nederland. Nieuwe volgreeks, No. 317.
- Statistics of trade-unions of Netherlands to January 1, 1920.
- Overzicht van den omvang en den voornaamsten inhoud der collectieve arbeidsovereenkomsten op 1 Januari 1920. (Aperçu de l'étendue et du contenu principal des conventions collectives de travail au 1 er janvier 1920.) 's-Gravenhage, 1921. viii, 43 pp. Bijdragen tot de statistiek van Nederland. Nieuwe volgreeks, No. 316. Report on principal provisions of collective labor agreements up to January 1,
- Statistiek den spaar- en leenbanken in Nederland, 1918–1919. 's-Gravenhage, 1921. 101 pp. Bijdragen tot de statistiek van Nederland. Nieuwe volgreeks, No. 318.

Statistics of savings and loan banks in the Netherlands for the year 1918-19.

— Rijksverzekeringsbank. Verslag, 1919. 's-Gravenhage, 1921. 185, iv pp.

Report for the year 1919 of the operation of the State insurance bank, organized for the administration of the Dutch compensation act of 1901. There were 91.499 accidents reported and 86,406 injuries compensated.

— (Amsterdam).—Arbeidsbureau. Verslag over het jaar 1919. [Amsterdam, 1920] 49 pp. Tables. Verslagen van bedrijven, diensten en commissiën der gemeente Amsterdam. No. 17.

Statistical report for the year 1919, on wages and salaries of employees in the various departments of the city of Amsterdam.

— Veiligheidsmuseum. Jaarverslag, 1920. Amsterdam [1921]. 53 pp. Annual report of the safety museum of Amsterdam.

New Zealand.—Census and Statistics Office. Official year book, 1920. Wellington, 1920. x, 414 pp.

Includes statistics on subjects of interest to labor, such as accidents in mines and factories, wages, old-age and widows' pensions, housing, industrial unions, strikes, and prices. The data are for 1919 and several preceding years.

Sweden.—Socialstyrelsen. Undersokningar angående Alkoholens Sociala Skadeverkningar. Stockholm, 1921. [Various paging.] Sveriges Officiella Statistik. Socialstatistik.

Report of an investigation by the Labor Department of Sweden concerning injurious effects of alcohol.

#### Unofficial.

ALLEN, HENRY J. The party of the third part. The story of the Kansas Industrial Relations Court. New York, Harper & Bros., 1921. 283 pp.

This volume was written by the governor of Kansas, who was largely responsible for the enactment of the law of that State establishing a court of industrial relations. It has for its subject the history of the law, the reasons back of its enactment, and the results of its operations up to near the end of the year 1920. Legal and economic principles are discussed, with numerous instances of the intimate workings of the strike system under which there were within 45 months ending December 31, 1919, 705 separate strikes at individual mines in the State of Kansas, entailing, as stated by the author, a wage loss to the miners of nearly \$4,000,000 with an actual net gain by them of \$852.83.

The arguments of the opponents of the law are reproduced at length, and consideration is given to the various alternative methods of adjusting labor disputes. As indicated by the title, the writer bases the action of the Kansas legislation on a consideration of the rights of the public, including in that term every member, employer and employee, as well as the actual "party of the third part." Naturally the book must be accepted as an authoritative presentation of the point of view of the proponents of the law, and of their arguments in its favor and their interpretation of its workings up to the present time.

AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR. Metal Trades Department. Proceedings, June 8-11, 1921. Washington, D. C., 1921. 107 pp.

— North Dakota branch. Proceedings, 1921. Grand Forks, N. M. Aune, secretary-treasurer, 1921. 75 pp.

— Railway Employees' Department. Bureau of Research. Exhibits on the national agreements case presented before the United States Railroad Labor Board by W. J. Lauck on behalf of the Railway Employees' Department of the American Federation of Labor. 13 pamphlets. Washington, D. C. [1921].

These pamphlets are entitled as follows: The development of collective bargaining; Human standards and railroad policy; Inadequacies of railway management; Industrial relations on railroads prior to 1917; Occupation hazard of railway shopmen; Punitive overtime; Railroad boards of labor adjustment; The recognition of human standards in industry; The sanction of the eight-hour day; Seniority rules of the national agreement; Standardization; The unity of the American railway system; The work of the railway carmen.

— Exhibits on the wage case presented before the United States Railroad Labor Board by W. Jett Lauck on behalf of the railway employees, represented by 12 unions. 11 pamphlets. Washington, D. C., 1921.

These pamphlets, 10 of which are mimeographed, are entitled as follows: Human standards and railroad policy—an attempted revival of the theory that labor is a commodity; The cost of housing, 1920–1921; Recent changes in prices and cost of living—wholesale prices not a guide to cost of living; What a living wage should be, as determined by authoritative budget studies; The cost of living in the United States since 1913, as determined by the studies of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics; Probability of prices increasing; Wages in various industries—a comparison of wage rates and wage levels of unskilled railroad labor and similar labor in other basic industries; Irregularity of employment of railroad workers; Occupation hazard of unskilled employees on the railroads; Seasonal fluctuations in prices and cost of living; and The practicability of a living wage—an analysis of the production of the country in relation to the requirements of a fair standard of living for the whole population.

Brailsford, Henry Noel. Russian workers' republic. Harper & Bros., New York and London, 1921. x, 274 pp.

A discussion of conditions in Russia under the soviet régime. The author seeks to explain or excuse the admitted weaknesses and defects of the soviet system.

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Division of economics and history. Government control and operation of industry in Great Britain and the United States during the World War. By Charles Whiting Baker. New York, 1921. v, 138 pp. Preliminary economic studies of the war, No. 18.

The results achieved through Government control and operation of industry in Great Britain and the United States during the war are reviewed in relation to a possible solution of economic problems through Government ownership. The author maintains that revolutionary changes are impending and indeed are greatly needed in our industrial system and on the whole draws a favorable picture of governmental management. In the introduction it is stated that in the author's belief the average citizen favors Government ownership, while business men generally oppose it,

but in one of the closing chapters the somewhat contradictory statement is made that public sentiment is conservative as evidenced by the general demand for the return of the railways to private ownership. The gradual absorption by the British Government of control of essential industries and their more rapid absorption in this country are outlined. There is detailed discussion of the work of the Railroad Administration, of the control of telegraphs and telephones, of the Shipping Board and the Food and Fuel Administrations, as well as of the work of the War Labor Board in adjusting disputes and fixing wages. There is a tendency throughout the book to minimize the mistakes which were made by the excuse that the need for haste was so great that waste, incompetence, and even graft were to be expected and overlooked. The writer believes that the only hope for progress is through changes in the organization and methods of the Government, and says:

There is no doubt that Government control is far from ideal in its operation and that the special circumstances of the war, as has been fully explained in previous chapters, made the control then exercised especially faulty in many ways. That is the reason for its rejection when necessity compels, and the logic of necessity will compel its gradual extension in the future as in the past, no matter what political party may rule.

Chisholm, Archibald. Labor's Magna Charta. Longmans, Green & Co., London and New York, 1921. 192 pp.

A study of the labor clauses of the peace treaty and of the draft conventions and recommendations of the Washington International Labor Conference, in which the author endeavors "to estimate the significance of these clauses, to examine the principles on which they are based, and at the same time to indicate the dangers attached to a too ruthless application of some of them."

Consumers' League of Cincinnati. Report for 1919 and 1920. Cincinnati, 25 East Ninth Street, 1921. 11 pp.

The general lines of work followed by this organization during 1919 and 1920 were investigation, law enforcement, legislation, and education. The investigation covered the wages, hours, and working conditions of charwomen, woman drug clerks, women and minors in mercantile establishments and factories and some small establishments.

Douglas, Paul H. American apprenticeship and industrial education. New York, 1921. 348 pp. Columbia University studies in history, economics, and public law. Whole No. 216.

This exhaustive treatise on the increasingly important subject of industrial education is divided into four parts, viz, (1) American apprenticeship: Its background, development, and decay; (2) Juvenile labor and the educational requirements of modern industry; (3) Modern substitutes for apprenticeship; (4) Social aspects.

Drever, James. The psychology of industry. London, Methuen & Co. (Ltd.), 1921. xi, 148 pp.

A discussion of psychology as applied in the sphere of industry and commerce prepared partly for the purpose of meeting the needs of the author's Workers' Education Association classes and courses for social study in the University of Edinburgh.

Eldridge, Seba. Social legislation in Illinois. Needs and opportunities in 1921. Rockford, W. M. Shimmin & Co., 1921. 110 pp.

Two chapters are devoted to labor conditions and housing, respectively. The former relates to child labor laws, minimum wage laws for women, workmen's compensation, and health and unemployment insurance.

Evans, Chris. History of United Mine Workers of America from the year 1860 to 1900. Indianapolis, United Mine Workers [1921]. 2 vols. (518, 838 pp.)

International Association for Labor Legislation. Norwegian section. (Norsk Forening for Socialt Arbeide.) Aarsberetning, 1920. Christiania [1921]. 8 pp. Annual report of the Norwegian Association for Labor Legislation.

LIGGETT, HAZAL M. The relation of wages to the cost of living in Los Angeles, 1915 to 1920. Los Angeles, 1921. 10 pp. University of Southern California sociological monograph No. 19.

Based principally on data published by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Mercer, T. W. The proposed national cooperative society. Manchester, England, Cooperative Union, Ltd. Holyoake House, Hanover Street, 1920. 16 pp.

Contains a summary of the plan advanced by Mr. J. C. Gray, in 1906, for the amalgamation of the existing cooperative societies into one national society. Under this plan the local societies would cease to exist except as branches of the national body, and would be controlled entirely by the central organization. The author advocates instead of this plan four measures to forward the ultimate establishment of a national society: (1) The ending of all overlapping by the amalgamation of cooperative societies in the same districts; (2) the formation of local cooperative federations to carry on such forms of business—as bakeries, laundries, etc.—as can not be economically undertaken by one society, creating a sense of fellowship and leading eventually to a general movement toward a larger cooperative unity; (3) the adoption of a uniform system of bookkeeping; and (4) the adoption of a system of social benefits, such as collective life insurance, thus accustoming the members to receive part of their dividends in kind instead of cash, making easier the adoption of a uniform rate of dividend and augmenting the power of the societies to accumulate capital.

O'BRIEN, GEORGE. Labor organization. London, Methuen & Co., Ltd., 1921. xi, 182 pp.

In a comparatively brief treatment of the general subject of labor organization, the author deals first with the craft guilds of the Middle Ages, describing their organization, movement, aims, their advantages and disadvantages, and the external and internal causes of their decay. Modern labor organizations he divides into two parts, viz, (1) organization under the wage system; (2) organization on a nonwage basis. Part one consists of a history of trade-unionism, a discussion of the classification, federation, and government of trade-unions; their methods, regulation and value; combinations of employers and methods of settling industrial disputes. The author discusses proposed substitutes under which labor might be organized on a nonwage basis. Among them are profit sharing, cooperation, collectivism, syndicalism, and guild socialism.

People's Year Book and Annual of the English and Scottish Wholesale Societies, 1921. Fourth year of publication. Manchester, England, Cooperative Wholesale Society (Ltd.), 1 Balloon Street, 1921. 400 pp.

Contains much interesting and valuable material on the cooperative movement and economic situation in various European countries, by leading cooperators of the respective countries. For a review of the operations of the societies belonging to the Manchester Cooperative Union see page 203 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Phelps, Edith M. (compiler). Selected articles on immigration. New York, The H. W. Wilson Co., 1920. 370 pp. The handbook series.

Philadelphia Conference on the Construction Industries. Proceedings, 1921. Philadelphia, Chamber of Commerce, 1921. xiv, 254 pp.

Contains also the proceedings of the National Construction Conference held in Chicago on March 2 and 3, 1921, under the auspices of the National Federation of Construction Industries. At these conferences the discussion covered various aspects of such subjects as housing, transportation, wages and hours of labor, cost of living, and cost and conditions in the manufacture of building materials.

VEILLER, LAWRENCE. How England is meeting the housing shortage. London, Spottiswoode, Ballantyne & Co. (Ltd.), 1920. 108 pp.

A summary of this book appears on pages 131 and 132 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Verband der Gastwirtsgehilfen. Geschäftsbericht der Hauptverwaltung vom 1. Juli 1919 bis 31. Dezember 1920. Berlin, 1921. 104 pp.

A business report of the administrative committee of the German Federation of Restaurant and Hotel Employees covering the period July 1, 1919, to December 31, 1920. The report shows that in 1920 there were 161 separate movements of restaurant employees for improved wage and working conditions. These movements covered 23,804 establishments, employing 242,150 persons, and were participated in by 200,166 of the latter; 134 of the movements were peacefully settled, while 27 led to strikes. The result of these movements was that 31,896 employees obtained shorter hours of labor, and 160,442 employees obtained wage increases averaging about 22 marks per capita per week.

Watkins, Gordon S. Cooperation, a study in constructive economic reform. Urbana, March 14, 1921. 85 pp. University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. X VIII, No. 28.

For a summary of this study see this issue of the Monthly Labor Review, pages 194 to 196.

Wilson, R. M. The care of human machinery. London, Henry Frowde, 1921. xi, 238 pp.

The author seeks to show that satisfactory output can be secured only by healthy happy "human machinery." He feels that industrial medicine forms a new basis for the settlement of industrial disputes. Among the subjects discussed are industrial fatigue, hours, women, and children in industry, ventilation and output, the dust peril, safety, first aid, noise in industry, etc.

ZENTRALVERBAND DEUTSCHER KONSUMVEREINE. Jahrbuch. Vol.1. Hamburg, 1921. 720 pp.

The yearbook of the Central Federation of German Consumers' Cooperative Societies for 1921, containing statistical data of the German cooperative movement, and particularly of the consumers' cooperative movement. Some of the data given are found in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review, page 198.