U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR JAMES J. DAVIS, Secretary

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

ETHELBERT STEWART, Commissioner

MONTHLY

LABOR REVIEW

VOLUME XIII

NUMBER 5



NOVEMBER, 1921

WASHINGTON GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE

ADDITIONAL COPIES

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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

VOL. XIII-NO. 5

WASHINGTON

NOVEMBER, 1921

Medical Aspect of Women's Ills in Industry.1

By CLARA P. SEIPPEL, M. D., Chicago.

WELVE million women in the United States are engaged in

gainful occupations, according to the census of 1910.

Of these, 8,000,000 are wage earners. It is conservative to estimate that at least 50 per cent of them are employed in the industries; and as the war proved women qualified for many positions theretofore considered exclusively a man's work, we may safely say that when plants are running at capacity there are now not less than 5,000,000 girls and women working in our shops and factories.

As manufacturing becomes more and more simplified through the invention of almost human machinery, and as each process becomes more and more highly specialized and divided, the opportunities for

women increase rather than diminish.

Woman is a permanent factor in industry and a factor of the

greatest economic importance.

She deserves to be studied as a unit of distinct value commercially and socially. So far our policy has been passive rather than active; we have done much talking but very little real work on the subject.

Perhaps the problem seems so difficult because it has so many aspects, all of equal significance and bearing—industrial, social, educational, medical—and these are all so closely interwoven that to discuss one phase only is sure to elicit the criticism that the speaker lacks vision and fails to give due consideration to equally vital factors which belong, per se, to the other divisions.

However, in discussing the medical aspect of women's ills in industry, I am going to speak principally as a gynecologist and present some ideas which, though well known to you as physicians, are not brought

out in the literature on industrial medicine.

When Dr. Donoghue, the chairman of your medical section, asked me to read this paper, my first act was to prepare a questionnaire and send it broadcast. Much to my amazement, I learned that there was no such thing as statistics on illness among women in industry as women. In fact, the records kept in most industries are of no value from the medical viewpoint, except in so far as they compare the frequency of certain diseases between men and women employees and the time lost therefrom, and these tables are familiar to you all.

Mr. Ethelbert Stewart, of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, has compiled some valuable information along this line, and Dr. Robert S. Quinby, of the Hood Rubber Co., has some very interesting data. The purpose of my investigation is to learn how to

 $^{^1}$ Paper read at the eighth annual meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, Ch.cago, Ill., September 21, 1921.

keep the woman physically fit to hold her place in the world of work

and to meet her ever-increasing opportunities.

I communicated in person or by 'phone with the nurses of some of the largest industries in Chicago employing a good many thousand girls and women in different kinds of work.

My question was, "What are the principal complaints for which your girls come to the medical department for relief?" The answer invariably was, "Headaches and dysmenorrhea." Some would stop there, and others would add, "In winter we have a good many colds."

Dr. Mock in his book on "Industrial Medicine and Surgery" reports a study of 15,244 cases of absence because of illness among 5,000 women. More than half were distributed as follows: 24 per cent headaches, 18.9 per cent dysmenorrhea, 14 per cent colds.

However, all statistics I have seen are based upon absenteeism. Yet all day long, in every industry, some girl is applying to the nurse for a headache remedy or something to relieve pain incident to menstruation. The time lost by the girl at work for these two reasons alone is not, and can not be calculated, but it amounts to thousands of hours in the course of a year, and in practically every instance to a lowering of efficiency and a marked increase in fatigue, which makes the question deserving of thoughtful consideration. The present attitude toward this situation is that so long as we can give the girl something to relieve her suffering and keep her at work, it is of no consequence; hence there are no statistics—it is too trivial a matter to make a record of.

Headaches are exceedingly common among people in all walks of life. In the industries as well as elsewhere, headaches are much more common on Monday than on any other day. Young people usually go to dances on Saturday night, eat heartily on Sunday, and lose considerable sleep again on Sunday night. A cathartic is a common and suitable remedy in many cases. There are scores of very young girls suffering from chronic headache, coming to the medical department daily or every few days for something to "cure it." The eyes, teeth, and bowels are normal; we often discover that the headaches began before the girl was of working age. In some cases it is undoubtedly associated with puberty; adolescent boys complain a great deal of headaches, too, which can not be otherwise accounted for.

Investigation into the social conditions of the girls brought out a surprising situation—many of them go to work without breakfast; something I believe no boy would be guilty of. The girls say they get up too late or their mothers do not prepare the morning meal in

time, and so they leave home with empty stomachs.

Often the girl sleeps with another girl who is restless or retires so late that the first girl never gets a sound night's rest. Headaches, nervousness, fatigue, all follow in the wake of such living conditions.

Of course, the "bad night air" is well known to us all, nevertheless it is the bugaboo of hundreds of sallow-skinned individuals who hug the delusion that some other kind of air exists indoors after the

day is done, and they shut all the windows to hold it in.

Constipation is, of course, a great factor in all health questions. In addition to the usual causes which can be attributed to industrial conditions, mentioned by all writers on the subject, I should like to speak of the wash-room facilities from a standpoint not usually presented but nevertheless vital.

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All my life I have heard girls complain of the undesirable toilet rooms in their places of work, on account of which they would wait for hours until they reached home, and to which they attributed their sick headaches, chronic constipation, hemorrhoids, etc.

In many of the smaller shops, and factories that have gradually expanded into adjacent dwelling houses, the wash rooms, especially for women, is placed in the least desirable space—any dark corner will do—or in a location which will require the least amount of piping for water connections. Some are without any ventilation whatsoever and are cared for only at night by an indifferent janitor; the plumbing is defective most of the time and not repaired until conditions grow so intolerable that the responsible person is forced to act.

The care of toilet rooms both in factories and public buildings is often assigned to some incompetent person whose work is never supervised.

A still more important feature is that in many shops the woman's wash room is so placed that the girls are compelled to pass the desk of the foreman or a group of men workers, and this is so embarrassing to a great many girls that they defer attention to their body's needs until they can no longer endure the distress; by this time they have agonizing headaches and for hours have been so distracted with the ever-increasing desire to empty bladder or bowels that their health as well as their work suffers. This repeated day in and day out produces an endless chain of physical ailments and develops a highly nervous temperament.

Thousands of shops are now being conducted in our large office buildings—principally dressmaking, millinery and hairdressing establishments—all employing from a few to dozens of girls. Usually there is just one large wash room for women in these buildings, necessitating the use of elevators and the loss of considerable time. It is customary for many of these employees to wait until the lunch hour or quitting time to visit the wash room. In these shops there is a constant rush and hurry, customers waiting for garments promised several days before, appointment following appointment, and the girls simply will not take the time to travel up and down several floors to the wash room.

Architects should have these facts impressed upon them. There are fully as many women as men employed in our skyscrapers, and a toilet for women should be provided on every floor of such structures as are common in the loop of Chicago. This should appeal to the owners of the buildings, for it would avoid the overcrowding of the elevators during the rush hours and release them for the more direct service of carrying passengers only for the purpose of coming into and going out of the premises.

The monotony of the average woman's tasks and the natural fatigue incident to eight hours' unceasing and uninteresting grind undoubtedly predispose to illness, either directly or indirectly. All the more reason, therefore that we should conserve the health of the woman in industry and spare her from suffering wherever possible.

Outside of the dangerous trades, women in industry are not subject to any peculiar disturbances from which other women do not suffer.

Dysmenorrhea so severe as to incapacitate a woman and compel her to remain at home is said to be comparatively rare in many industries but more common among the office force.

However, the factory girl who goes to the medical department and lies down for an hour or two and gets a dose of one of the remedies ordinarily given to relieve the pain, is by no means up to par when she returns to her machine or table, nor will she be for several days more. So that from five to ten days out of each month the girl is not up to grade physically. There are scores of employees who never report to the nurse but endure without complaint. Women have been told for centuries that it was their lot to suffer from their various physiological processes and we have let it go at that. But why should a girl suffer anything from discomfort to agony for 3 to 10 days, 13 times a year, for 30 years of her life? Nobody on earth would have a dozen attacks of tonsilitis in a year without having the offending glands removed. The one has been declared physiological and unavoidable; the other pathological and curable. We know this is sheer nonsense and that we can do much to lessen and often to avoid entirely this periodical suffering. But in order to interest girls in large numbers in the betterment of their gynecological disturbances we must learn to employ nonsurgical measures as far as possible.

A cathartic administered daily for a few days before the expected

flow will often bring marked amelioration.

The chapter on Women In Industry, in "Industrial Medicine and Surgery," contains many valuable suggestions and is well worth studying. One large industrial concern in Chicago follows up the cases of dysmenorrhea and gives the patient a cathartic for several days before each period. This firm has noticed a gratifying improvement in many of the girls. Even where there is a pathological

condition this treatment mitigates the pain.

Flexion of the uterus or stenosis of the internal os, of course, requires surgical treatment, but I feel convinced that our present method of operating and putting the patient to bed for a week is not always essential. Young women generally will not submit to it; for reasons of modesty they do not want people to know they are afflicted in this manner—going to the hospital would advertise it to their employer, friends, neighbors, etc. For financial reasons they often defer it and go on suffering.

I have therefore attempted to correct these difficulties at the

office and have succeeded in a large number of cases.

For many years I have practiced the routine procedure of dilatation and curettage, and have only occasionally found an endometritis. The dysmenorrhea was undoubtedly entirely due to the obstruction and not to any inflammatory process. Kelly states that in sixty-four patients treated similarly by him the microscope revealed an endometritis in only four instances.

There is another form of abnormal menstruation which is entirely ignored and neglected and which deserves attention. That is menorrhagia. It is very common among young girls and often becomes modified and normal when they are fully matured. I am inclined to think it would be found more often among industrial

workers than among any other class of women.

This excessive loss of blood makes the girl weak and limp throughout the period (which is usually also prolonged) and leaves her more or less exhausted for days afterward. She hardly recovers from the effects of one period before the next ensues. The fatigue incident to her work is particularly hard on her, and she is rarely at her best. Anemia, of course, is common, with headaches, nervousness, etc. It is grossly unjust to allow such a girl to go on for years, when relief is so easily obtained through medical treatment. The application of proper remedies under the direction of a qualified physician, usually produces a marked diminution in the menstrual flow and conserves the patient's vitality. These girls always express their regret that they were so foolish as not to seek medical assistance sooner.

Amenorrhea is not uncommon, especially during the first year of a girl's industrial life. The majority of cases respond to medical treatment. Occasionally it leads to the discovery of an early tuberculosis.

If the young woman's ailments have received such scanty attention, what shall we say to the older woman? Certain industries employ a great many women over 35 or 40 and they constitute no small per-

centage of the female industrial workers.

How many women still think that the phenomena of the menopause are incurable and only to be endured? Thousands of them. Hot flashes during the day are intensely annoying, and may be so severe as to require a complete change of clothing several times a day; during the night they cause sleeplessness and marked restlessness; nervousness is but a natural sequence to loss of sleep and is marked in these cases; often there is profound depression. We can not expect much from such an employee, and her earning capacity is greatly reduced, especially after months and even years of such suffering. It is, as a rule, an exceedingly simple matter to relieve these women of the hot flashes and other nervous manifestations. The stubborn cases are rare and the difficult ones, in my experience, have had some pelvic pathology. The large majority of women are wonderfully benefited.

Of the married women in industry I am willing to venture that 75 per cent of those who are mothers present some form of pelvic dis-

order by the time they reach the age of 40.

Retroversion is common in women at all ages; it is not always pathological. I find it frequently in young girls who are attending school or college, and in leisure women. Often their only complaint

is constant fatigue, and it can be relieved.

The health, youth, and strength of many a working woman could be conserved if she would have a thorough examination at 30. The laborious work which most poor women of middle life perform only aggravates the pelvic trouble—a retroversion eventually becomes a bad prolapse or a procidentia, with, of course, cystocele and rectocele. How these women can work so steadily and remain so cheerful is a mystery to me. Of course, at this stage surgery alone avails. But an operation will transform such a hapless woman from a slow-moving, miserable, though uncomplaining, worker into an energetic, often vivacious, individual, who is capable of doing twice as much work and able to face her particular problems with confidence and self-assurance. She is a more cheerful mother and a happier woman in every way.

I examine about a thousand young girls under 18 years of age for the courts of Cook County annually. Retroversion is very common in

girls of 15 and 16. The uterus is only partially developed; the entire body is still immature. For that reason I believe it unwise for girls under 16 to work constantly at machines; indeed, I wish it could be deferred until they are 18. At most it should never exceed two hours at a stretch, nor more than four hours of the same kind of work during a day. A variety of work with an opportunity to move about would be much the better plan.

I would make this recommendation to the industries on behalf of our future womanhood and the workers whose mothers they are to be. No doubt, every industrial physician regrets to see boys and girls

even at that age working constantly at machines.

A minimum school age of 16 years would be a wholesome rule, and I am sure industry will profit by it in the end. The eight-hour workday, of course, has been proven to be the ideal for both employer and employee and can not long be deferred as the legal limit in all the States.

There is, of course, much, very much, that the woman in industry can do for herself. And here is where our industrial, social, educa-

tional and medical paths cross and redouble.

First of all, she should dress sensibly. It is painful to walk through a factory and see practically every woman worker shod with French-heeled pumps. The girl who stands most of the time must certainly grow tired long before she should; the girl who operates a foot lever would be far more comfortable in laced shoes that support the ankle.

There is always a squabble among workers over the ventilation. The thinly dressed girl wants the window closed and the warmly clad one wants it open. If every girl on entering the factory would don a plain dress of washable material, her efficiency would be increased and her fatigue reduced. In warm weather she could practically eliminate her other garments and remain cool; at all times she could be free from restraining clothing and work with absolute freedom of body; she could economize on street clothes considerably.

She should learn to sit well back in her chair at her work, and to be comfortably seated at all times; to stand with shoulders back so as to avoid throwing all her weight into the pelvis; to eat three meals a day, get plenty of sleep, and to be sufficiently interested in

her health to care for her teeth and bowels.

Fresh air and recreation are as essential as food and rest. The great out-of-doors holds such delightful entertainment, if only

people knew how to enjoy it.

Our task is to educate the woman worker to take an interest in herself and to regard her health as the capital she has invested in the business from which she must draw her dividends of livelihood, happiness, and contentment. That is the first step toward the conservation of woman power and the reduction of women's ills in industry.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS AND LABOR CONDITIONS.

Labor Unrest in Australia and South Africa.

By Mrs. VICTORIA B. TURNER.

Australia.1

IN ITS issue of July, 1920 (pp. 59 to 66), the Monthly Labor Review published an article on the development of the labor situation in Australia, material for which was summarized from a report submitted to the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce

by A. W. Ferrin, trade commissioner at Melbourne.

The article referred to traced the development of the Australian trade-union movement from its inception up to the end of 1919, showing the strength of the movement politically as well as numerically and dealing briefly with its national and local organization. Australia's well-known labor legislation regulating wages, hours, and other labor conditions was also discussed, special mention being made of the legislative machinery in operation for the prevention of industrial unrest. This included the "wages board" system, whose aim is to regulate wages, hours, etc., in specific industries before disputes occur, and the industrial arbitration court, which reviews unsatisfactory working conditions, either before or after disputes have arisen. The wages board system prevails in Victoria and Tasmania, the arbitration court in Western Australia; while New South Wales, Queensland, and South Australia maintain both systems. furthermore presented in statistical form the actual strike situation of the Commonwealth from 1913 to 1918, inclusive, and described in some detail the most important strikes of 1919, namely, the seamen's strike, marine engineers' strike, and the long Broken Hill (miners') strike, then in progress.

The year 1920 was a notable one in the annals of Australian labor, and it is the purpose of this article to discuss the more immediate aspects and tendencies of the movement with only such references to preceding conditions and events as seem necessary for a clear

understanding of the present.

Causes.

LABOR unrest has become a world-wide disease, prevalent even amid conditions which make its presence seem an anomaly. Such, at first glance, appears to be the case in the Commonwealth. Australia is a great country with vast natural resources, occupied by

¹In preparing this article on Australia, the following official and unofficial sources were consulted: Australia. Bureau of Census and Statistics. Labor and industrial branch. Report No. 10. Prices, purchasing power of money, wages, trade-unions, unemployment, and general industrial conditions, 1919; Australia Bureau of Census and Statistics. Official Yearbook of the Commonwealth of Australia, 1901–1919; Australia. Bureau of Census and Statistics. Quarterly summary of Australian statistics. Melbourne, March, 1921. Bulletin 83; currentissues of Labor Overseas; Labor Gazette (British); Monyhlix Labor Review; Round Table; Australian Worker; Christian Science Monitor; Melbourne Argus; Industrial Bulletin (New Zealand Employers' Association); Monthly Review (New South Wales, Trades Hall, Sydney); Wages and prices in Australia, by H. M. Murphy.

a comparatively small number of people (about 5,500,000), over 10 per cent of whom are trade-unionists; a country where deposits in savings banks (1919), averaging over £40 (\$195 par) per depositor and made by more than half the population, indicate labor's vested interest at least in its social stability. Trade-union membership is growing. The Labor Party, though not so strong as formerly, still actively represents the labor movement in political circles; at this writing labor governments exist in New South Wales and Queensland, and labor legislation of an advanced type safeguards the rights

and welfare of the worker.

Moreover, the nationalization of public services, and even of industries, prevails. The railways have long been nationalized, and the Federal Government, in addition, owns and operates shipbuilding vards, several banks, posts, telegraphs, a woolen mill, a small-arms factory, and other industrial enterprises. Victoria has State-owned and conducted coal mines; Queensland, State fisheries and meat works, whose products are distributed through State retail shops; while the State-owned industries of New South Wales include brick works, road metal quarries, pipe works, a State bakery, a State motor garage, sawmills, a drug depot, a clothing factory, timber yards, a fleet of deep-sea trawlers, and the State, railway system. Tramways are generally municipally operated. But notwithstanding the attainment of many of the ideals always a part of labor programs, industrial unrest, accompanied by a distinct movement toward the "Left," has steadily increased since the war, the number of strikes in 1919 being 460, as against 298 in 1918, while strike statistics for 1920 show no improvement in this respect. And why?

Briefly, existing labor unrest is ascribed by those in touch with the situation to high cost of living, first of all, and the belief that the price fixing followed during and since the war has failed to prevent profiteering; to the drastic application of the war precautions act, to a decrease in production due to war-time restrictions, particularly those of overseas transport, and, the employers claim, to a "go-easy" policy on the part of the workers; to dissatisfaction with the delay in action upon the claims presented to the wage boards and industrial arbitration courts; and to the determination of wage earners to

secure their share of the prosperity of the country.

A writer in the Round Table, June, 1919, commenting upon the Australian labor situation, says:

The neglect of the legitimate interests of the workers by the well-to-do in all countries is one of the main causes of present social unrest. This is no less true of Australia than of England. The better conditions enjoyed by the Australian worker have been gained generally in the teeth of the strong opposition of the employer. The enlightenment now being exhibited by British employers in their conception of the relations between employer and employee is greatly in advance of the views prevalent among Australian employersgenerally. As has often been stated in these articles, the intense class bitterness in Australia is probably traceable to closer industrial organization on both sides, the success of labor in politics, and the better education and conditions of life of the workers. Existing methods no longer meet our industrial needs. The workers demand a share in the control of industry and security from economic accident.²

Cost of Living.

The Australian worker is convinced that notwithstanding all the legislative safeguards placed around him, he is losing out economi-

² Round Table, June, 1919, p. 619.

cally, and the rapid increase in cost of living since the armistice has made his dissatisfaction poignant. In July, 1919, retail prices of food represented an increase of 47 per cent ³ over the prewar level, while better grades of clothing and coal had advanced 100 per cent. For the same time men's wages (Commonwealth average) had risen 24 per cent and women's wages, 21 per cent.⁴ Then retail prices of food took a jump and by July, 1920, stood at 94 per cent ³ above the 1914 figures, an increase due, labor claimed, to uncontrolled price manipulating and "market rigging." On the other hand, dealers attributed the high prices to the fact that, relying upon the usual practice of Australians to buy imported goods, they had made heavy orders for which, on account of gold shortage, they were unable to secure money to pay.

With the cost of food about 100 per cent higher than it was in 1914, with the prices of clothing and other necessaries already high and in some cases also advancing, the Australian worker faced the necessity common to wage earners the world over of endeavoring to make his income do the impossible. Wages increased in many industries. But available reports for individual industries do not indicate increases, even under the basic wage system, sufficient to meet the increased cost of living. And even if his wages had been doubled the worker contends that the doubling of wages in itself would not solve the complex problem. It would only adjust wages to cost of living without giving him a share in the increased prosperity and produc-

tivity of the State.

Labor generally considered high cost of living a national question which the Government was able to deal with as it had with similar problems arising during the war, and considerable dissatisfaction resulted from the inaction displayed in this respect. Measures designed to limit the operations of the profiteer were adopted by the labor government of New South Wales, which passed the profiteering prevention bill and the fair rents amendment bill, the first designed to prevent undue profit taking and to punish profiteers; the second, abolishing the system of payment of bonuses for keys of houses offered for rent, as well as the practice of property owners of refusing tenancy to families with children.

Trade-union organizations turned their consideration to methods whereby it was hoped a reduction might be brought about in the prices of necessary foodstuffs, and as a result of a conference held in December, 1920, requested the Federal and State Governments to fix the prices of the wheat, meat, and butter required for home consumption, such prices to be based upon the cost of production to be ascertained by an inquiry. Trade-union wages and a fair profit

were to be guaranteed the farmer.

During the period July, 1920, to July, 1921, food prices fell from 94 per cent to 61 per cent above the 1914 level. Between June, 1920, and April, 1921, retail prices of shoes declined 15 to 30 per cent; beef and mutton, 20 to 30 per cent. In dress materials, too, there has been a considerable reduction, all of which has been a measure of relief from the pinch of high prices in the first six months of 1920.

³ Labour Gazette (London), February, 1921, p. 75.

⁴ Australia. Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics. Price, purchasing power of money, wages, trade-unions, unemployment, and general industrial conditions, 1919. Labor and industrial branch, Report No.10, p. 89.

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War-Precautions Act.

The drastic application of the war-precautions act, corresponding to the British defense of the realm act, was continued into times of peace until Australians of all classes resented the exercise of arbitrary executive power for which they saw no further justification. A case in point was the action taken in the strike of the marine engineers in December, 1919. The engineers refused to accept arbitration as a means of settling their demands, and the Government "with a view to the public safety and defense of the Commonwealth" invoked the powers of the war-precautions act, cutting off all supplies from the strikers, and making it a punishable offense to give any assistance to them. Moreover, banks in which the society had funds were enjoined from paying them to the strikers. Public sympathy, which at first had been withheld because of the extreme attitude of the men, was by this action of the Government promptly enlisted on behalf of the engineers, even the nationalists declaring this a "grave abuse of authority.'

Strikes, 1920-21.

DURING 1920 industrial disputes throughout the Commonwealth numbered 554 and involved 155,566 workers, who lost 3,587,267 working days and £2,370,387 (\$11,535,488.34, par) in wages. The number of strikes in New South Wales alone was 349, involving directly or indirectly 90,382 persons and a loss of 2,265,175 working

Melbourne gas employees were out from June 11 to July 28 for an increase in wages of 4s. (97.3 cents, par) a day, and they were joined by the firemen and engineers employed at the electricity and the gas works. The city council granted an increase of 3s. 6d. (85.2 cents, par) to the electricity workers, but after a month of contest between the enginemen's union and the Chamber of Manufacturers the gas men returned to work on the terms offered before the strike, a basic wage of 13s. (\$3.16, par) a day and an increase of 20 per cent, retro-

active to May 1, 1920.

A strike unique in its character was that in which the State teachers of Western Australia joined the civil-service employees in their demand for increased wages. The cost of living had been advancing since the armistice, and a deficit in the State treasury had prevented the usual advances in salary made to the senior officers in both classes as a reward for meritorious service, which may account for the fact that the senior officers were leaders in the strike. The railwaymen, the third group of State employees, had obtained advances, and members of Parliament had, in 1919, increased their own salaries 333 per cent. Acting upon these precedents, the teachers and clerks asked an increase of 331 per cent on the first £180 (\$876, par) of all salaries and a board to deal with questions relating to wages. The premier approved the demand for a wages board, but could not promise the desired increase in salaries, whereupon a strike was declared about July 1. The usual strike procedure was adopted, and by the 13th of the month most of the State administrative offices ceased to function, the law courts were closed, and children were sent home by teachers doing picket duty.

On July 21 the Government sent an ultimatum to the strikers, ordering a return to work the following day and promising an appeal board to deal with the reclassification of wages up to £252 (\$1,226, par) a year and to determine whether allowances to the senior officers greater than those already granted by the Government were necessary. The decisions of the board were to be retroactive to July 1, 1920. In the negotiations which followed a request was also made for payment for the time on strike. This the Government refused to grant, but in place of it agreed to a temporary advance by way of a loan to those who were in need of it. The strikers then asked to be allowed to forego annual leave for pay forfeited in the strike. But this suggestion also was refused, and the State services were resumed July 30, leaving the question of the repayment of the loan open. Later an arrangement was made whereby the loan might be paid after three months' delay by two consecutive deductions from

the new salaries to be fixed by the board.

During the same month sheep shearers in all the Australian Provinces, with the exception of Queensland, where a wage award had recently been made, demanded £2 5s. (\$10.95, par) for each 100 sheep, £5 (\$24.33, par) a week for shed hands, £6 (\$29.20, par) a week for pressers, and a 44-hour week for all. In South Australia, Victoria, and New South Wales shearers' rates were fixed at £2 (\$9.73, par) a hundred sheep, while the wages of shed hands were advanced to £4 10s. (\$21.90, par) a week and maintenance. The 44-hour week was agreed to by all the employers except the 6,000 members of the New South Wales Graziers' Association. Declaring that, as the shearers were bound by an award to a 47-hour week, the matter of a revision of hours was one for the arbitration court, they refused to grant the demands in this respect, and a strike of 30,000 shearers followed, lasting until the middle of September, when the association authorized its members to make the best terms possible with their men, the 44-hour week being granted in practically all cases.

The protracted industrial dispute at the Broken Hill Mine, an account of which was given on pages 64 and 65 of the July, 1920, number of the Monthly Labor Review, came to an end the last of September and work was resumed November 10, 1920. The men, who 18 months before had demanded a 5-day week, 6-hour shift, and a flat wage of £1 (\$4.87, par) a day for all men and boys, finally accepted new wages based on a minimum of 15s. (\$3.65, par) a day and a 44-hour week. Underground workers, however, are to work only 5 shifts of 7 hours each until a technical commission has investigated the question of disease incidental to work in the mines and working conditions generally. The loss of output resulting from the strike is said to have been estimated at 200,000 tons of lead, 300,000 tons of zinc concentrates, and 11,500,000 ounces of silver, representing a total value of \$200,000,000. The loss in wages exceeded \$8,000,000.

During the early part of the present year the Government of New South Wales passed an act making provision for Broken Hill miners suffering from tuberculosis and pneumoconiosis. Such miners will be paid compensation on the scale of £2 (\$9.73, par) a week, additional allowances being made for dependents. The Government

and the mine owners are to share equally the cost of administering this act.

The first special tribunal appointed under the industrial peace act, recently passed to overcome the difficulties and defects of the existing arbitration machinery, was the result of a dispute in the coal mining industry. An award had been rendered by the Commonwealth Coal Industry Special Tribunal establishing a minimum wage of 16s. 6d. (\$4.01, par) per day for surface men and 26s. (\$6.33, par) for coal cutters, and included in the award were the brown coal miners of Morwell (Victoria), who were working on a minimum of 13s. (\$3.16, par) a day, which had been fixed by the State wages board. The Victorian Government at once questioned the right of a Federal tribunal to fix wages in a State-owned industry, and, arguing further that brown coal mining, being in an open cut, is really quarrying or common laboring, refused to be bound by the award. Whereupon all miners in the State-owned mines struck, and in sustention of their action the Australasian Coal and Shale Employees' Federation refused the State of Victoria supplies of coal and coke, for which it was dependent upon New South Wales. Supplies of gas and electricity were also greatly restricted by the lack of fuel, and after a fortnight of industrial tension all parties concerned agreed to make this a test case in court, the decision to be binding. The Victorian Government, however, reserved "all its rights in and in relation to any proceedings which may be instituted with respect to the award."

On February 4, 1921, by an award of a Federal coal tribunal valid for one year, a minimum rate of 16s. 6d. (\$4.01, par) a day was fixed for coal and shale workers, including employees of the Victorian Gov-

ernment and the State railways.

The Australian shipping industry was badly crippled, and consequently during the latter part of December thousands of workers were thrown out of employment through a strike of the seamen in regard to the spread of hours. The stewards, who were working under a Federal award, which provided for a 10-hour day, demanded an 8-hour day at sea to be spread over 13½ hours. The owners granted the 8-hour day, but insisted that it be spread over 15 hours. When negotiations between the men and the shipowners had reached an apparently favorable stage stewards on the Rotomahana left their work, precipitating a strike. The owners then withdrew their offer, and all nego-

tiations ceased temporarily.

Back of the alleged causes of the dispute there was the system of "job control" which the seamen had for some time been endeavoring to establish. The policy of this industrial warfare followed by the seamen was to select a favorable moment, when a steamer had been loaded and her passengers were aboard, to formulate and make, through a committee appointed from among the men, sudden demands and if they were not granted, to tie the ship up. Its aim was to give the workers undisputed sway on the job. Anxious to keep their ships moving, the owners had been forced to accede to unusual demands, a continuance of which would be detrimental to the trade. In order to come to an understanding on the job-control policy the owners refused to arbitrate until some assurance was given by the seamen that efforts at job control would be discontinued.

An appeal to the premier for the appointment of a special tribunal to consider the points at issue met with refusal on the ground that the seamen had at that time a registered agreement under the arbitration act. They were refusing to man the ship, except under conditions which they were endeavoring to obtain by compulsion from the owners, who on their part had offered to employ them on the terms of the agreement. If the seamen were dissatisfied with the terms of the agreement their remedy, the premier announced, lay in an application to the arbitration court, the means provided by law for the settlement of industrial disputes, for a variation of the award. The strike was called off the last of January, 1921, but operations in the shipping industry were not resumed until February 25, 1921, the owners having stood steadfastly by their determination not to recommission their ships until the stewards' union and the federated seamen's union had given guarantees against future practice of the job-control policy and for the use of constitutional methods in securing improved conditions.

The agreement finally reached at a compulsory conference of owners and unions, through the offices of the Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Court, provided—that the question of extra help on ships should be settled by a manning committee of nine members, four appointed by the employers, four by the seamen's union, and a chairman mutually agreed upon, a decision of the committee to be binding upon all parties concerned during the life of the agreement; that disputes should be settled constitutionally; that the policy of "job control" should be abandoned; that a conference should be called within two weeks to consider alterations of wages and conditions; and that the agreement should remain in force until

December 31, 1921, or until mutually determined.

The terms of this decision and the method by which they were reached are of interest, since the stand of the leader of the seamen's union upon compulsory arbitration is well known, and in the great maritime strike of 1919 it was generally understood that he and his followers intended if possible to destroy the arbitration court and vindicate the policy of direct action. The strike lasted 74 days. The 2,000 stewards who precipitated the strike lost £37,000 (\$180,061, par) in wages, but a conservative estimate of the wage losses of the 30,000 or 40,000 other workers affected in Victoria alone was £600,000

(\$2,919,900, par).

During the period when the shipping industry was virtually paralyzed by the seamen's strike, land transportation facilities were interrupted, though not to so serious an extent, by the strike of 7,000 railwaymen employed on the State railways of Western Australia, for shorter hours and a 25 per cent increase in pay. The prevailing daily rates of wages among the railway men fixed by the arbitration court a few months before were 20s. 4d. (\$4.95, par) for engineers; 16s. 4d. (\$3.97, par) for firemen; and 12s. 11d. (\$3.14, par) for cleaners. They were working an eight-hour day. The new demands included 25s. (\$6.08, par) for engineers; 20s. (\$4.87, par) for firemen; and 16s. (\$3.89, par) for cleaners; a seven-hour instead of an eight-hour day; and a 50 per cent increase for night work and overtime after the first hour. It was claimed that the demands of the railway men would have required an additional State expenditure of \$7,000,000

besides making the operation of short lines impossible. On January 15, 1921, after two weeks during which in addition to the shutting off of transportation services, numerous public utilities were interfered with, the men agreed to resume work and refer their claims to the arbitration court.

Results of Industrial Unrest.

THE influence of the unrest prevailing among Australian workers is discernible in the industrial developments of the past year, which bid fair to have a marked effect upon the economic history of the country. These include the 44-hour week and basic wage awards, the industrial peace act, the Commonwealth conciliation and arbitration [amendment] act, 1920, and the action of the all-Australian labor congress held in June of the present year.

The 44-Hour Week.

Eight hours has constituted the working day in Australia for a quarter of a century; but since the war there has been a distinct trend toward shorter hours, and during 1920 this movement for the 44-hour week gained great headway, many of the stronger unions, such as the building and the metal trades, the shearers, and the Broken Hill miners enrolling in it. A number of individual unions, by means of strikes or arbitration, succeeded in establishing the 44-hour week in their trades, among them carpenters in Queensland and Victoria, Victorian clerical workers, gold miners at Kalgoorlie, clothing workers in Western Australia, bank employees throughout the Commonwealth, municipal employees in Sydney, and shearers in Queensland, South Australia, and New South Wales.

At the beginning of September, 1920, the New South Wales engineers, boiler makers, and iron workers decided to hold stop-work meetings Saturday mornings instead of working. Complete unanimity of opinion regarding shorter hours was, however, lacking in the ranks of the engineers; for while all of the dissenting unions favored the 44-hour week, they were not in accord as to the means being used to secure it, nor on the manner of carrying it into effect. The employers at once declared a lockout of all those who refused to work the 48-hour week agreed upon, and a week later at a conference of the opposing factions called by the Government, the men agreed

to revert to the 48-hour week.

The future establishment of the 44-hour week in other industries was undoubtedly given an impetus in the award of the Commonwealth Arbitration Court regarding timber workers. When the timber workers applied for a 44-hour week, in May, 1920, Mr. Justice Higgins made it known that he would welcome expert evidence from both sides covering all phases of the question. Consequently a conference was called in September, 1920, at which both employers and workers were represented, and a protracted and extensive inquiry followed. On November 12, 1920, Justice Higgins announced that 44 hours should constitute a working week for the timber workers. He reached this decision not so much from the purely industrial aspects of the evidence presented, such as its effect upon output and unemployment, for instance, as from a consideration of the extent of

the movement in other countries and the moral claim of the workers to a greater share in the ever-increasing product of industry.

While the decision does not make the 44-hour week universal, the Justice intimated that applications for the 44-hour week made by workers in other occupations, particularly those which involve the tending of machinery, would be favorably received. Under these circumstances it is not to be expected that the rest of the trade-unionists will be content with a 48-hour week. In fact, at the time the decision was handed down a similar inquiry was being conducted in New South Wales by Hon. G. S. Beeby, judge of the court of industrial arbitration and president of the New South Wales Board of Trade, for the building and iron trades. On November 28, 1920, Judge Beeby submitted his report recommending a 44-hour week for both trades, but owing to a definite shortage of mechanics in the iron trades advised the postponement of the reduction in working hours in those trades for a period of six months.

Following Judge Beeby's decision, an amendment to the New South Wales 8-hour act was passed, providing for a special court to inquire into working hours in any industry within its jurisdiction and to consider applications for a reduction of the 48-hour week. In making its investigation the court must consider the introduction of the 44-hour week in its entire relation to industry and working conditions, including its effect upon trade, cost of living, output, health, and well-being of workers, wages, and overtime; but it may without further inquiry confirm and adopt as its report the reports made by Judge Beeby. Recent reports state that on June 22, 1921, the New South Wales State cabinet agreed to a "44-hour week being worked in Government departments on five days (omitting Saturdays), except where the cost would be increased or the efficiency lessened" and that the principle of the 44-hour week is gradually being extended to other

occupations.

The Basic Wage.

The minimum wage is an underlying principle of labor legislation in Australia, and the amount arrived at in different ways in different States usually depends upon the cost of living rather than upon the character or extent of the workers' output. If cost of living advances, application is made to the arbitration court or wages boards, and statistics show that there has been a general increase in wages to

meet, as far as possible, such advances.

The lack of coordination of method in wage fixing and the overlapping of wage-fixing agencies, resulting in inequalities in wages in the various States, have often been the basis of discontent among all classes of workers. When the labor board of New South Wales raised the basic wage in that State to £4 5s. (\$20.68, par) criticism of it was rife in industrial circles. Labor contended that it was entirely inadequate to meet existing prices, while employers protested that the industries affected could not therefore compete with those in other States, and an agitation was immediately begun to bring other States into line and to secure a Commonwealth award increasing the basic wage of interstate and Commonwealth employees. Subsequently in fulfillment of a promise made at the general election a royal commission composed of an equal number of employers and workers was appointed by the Government to investigate the actual

cost of necessary commodities for a family of five and the automatic adjustment of the basic wage to the rise and fall of the purchasing power of the sovereign. The report of the commission was published November 21, 1920, and its conclusions based upon the evidence submitted indicated that a basic wage of approximately £5, (\$24.33, par) per week was necessary if a reasonable standard of comfort was to be maintained. The wages suggested varied with conditions in the various towns and cities covered, as follows: Melbourne, £5 16s. 6d. (\$28.35, par); Sydney, £5 17s. (\$28.47, par); Brisbane, £5 6s. 2d. (\$25.83, par); Newcastle, £5 15s. 6d. (\$28.10, par); Adelaide, £5 16s. 1d. (\$28.25, par); Perth, £5 15s. 11d. (\$27.72, par); Hobart, £5 16s. 11d. (\$28.45, par).

The average wage for the Commonwealth for 1920 was about £4 4s. (\$20.44, par), and the increase suggested is said to have created a sensation among all classes. The recommended wage, while not exorbitant when a family of five persons is considered, would require a total amount so large that if passed on to the consumer in increased prices would, it is believed, prevent the relief to the worker expected from it. Even labor leaders who had urged the wage admitted this

danger.

Unrest among Government employees resulting from the report led the premier to ask for a memorandum on the effect of the basic wage as applied to such employees. The chairman in his memorandum suggested that in place of the scheme recommended each adult male worker be paid a minimum wage of £4 (\$19.47, par) per week and 12s. (\$2.92, par) a week additional for each dependent child under 14 years, this additional amount to be paid by the employer into a Government-controlled pool. Parliament, however, did not commit itself to either scheme; but later the wages of Federal workers receiving less than £500 (\$2,433, par) per year were fixed at £4 (\$19.47, par) a week, with 5s. (\$1.22, par) per child under 14. The Board of Industry of South Australia, composed of employers and employees, with the president of the industrial court as chairman, has recently announced that a living wage in that State is 13s. 3d. (\$3.22, par), instead of 12s. 6d. (\$3.04, par) fixed last year. Employers' representatives predict that if prices continue to go down and high local wages are maintained, unemployment, which in June, 1921, was estimated to have been about 50,000, will increase, due to the inability of the industries to bear the burden of increased wage costs, and press reports indicate that these costs have already been added to the prices of Australian goods, resulting in the cancellation of large contracts, especially in the engineering trades.

On December 5 a conference of trade-unionists decided that the wage recommended by the commission should form the future wage demands, and strikes have already occurred to obtain the proposed

rates.

Industrial Peace Act.

The conciliation and arbitration act of 1904 made the arbitration of industrial disputes involving employees of an industry extending beyond the limits of one State compulsory and provided a penalty of £1,000 (\$4,867, par) against any person or organization that did anything to cause or continue a lockout or strike. Although the administration of the act through the Commonwealth Arbitration Court

has been in the main excellent, compulsory arbitration has not proven entirely successful or satisfactory, and its failures have been attributed by Mr. Justice Higgins, president of the court for 14 years, to the appointment by the Government of special tribunals whose decisions discredited the work of the arbitration court. Furthermore, the delay in making the awards occasioned by an inadequate staff and a consequent overcrowding of the court, has created dissatisfaction among the laboring class and encouraged some of the strong trade-unions to seek redress in direct action.

On June 29, 1920, the industrial peace act was passed ostensibly to improve the machinery of industrial conciliation. The act, which is described as a combination of the Whitley councils and Australian arbitration courts, expressly provides for special tribunals to deal with industrial disputes. The passage of this act was followed later in the year by the resignation of Justice Higgins, whose experience with similar tribunals led him to believe that the proposed arrangement would operate to completely undermine the arbitration court.

It is feared that the establishment of such tribunals all over the Commonwealth will make still more difficult the coordination of awards and industrial conditions, the strike of the Victoria coal miners being cited as a case in point. Furthermore, a 1920 amendment to the Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Act provides for the variation of an award during its currency if circumstances justify such a change; for a penalty of £1,000 (\$4,867, par) for a strike or lockout against an award; and for deputy presidents of the court.

Public Service Arbitration Act.

The public service arbitration act approved October 7, 1920, recognizes unions of Federal employees and provides for a public-service arbitrator, who shall decide disputes as to wages, hours, etc., affecting the public service. This is important legislation in view of the fact that owing to the nationalization of public services and industries in Australia a large proportion of the population consists of Government employees, either Federal or State, and one of the immediate effects of this law is said to have been the formation of a strong railway union.

Present Tendency of the Labor Movement.

The Australian labor movement consists of two parts: Trade-union organizations and the Labor Party. Trade-unions have existed in the Commonwealth since the middle of the nineteenth century and may therefore accurately be said to have grown up with the country. In 1920 they numbered 796 with an estimated total membership of 684,450, which is growing rapidly. The Labor Party originated in the period following a disastrous general strike in 1890, from a desire on the part of the trade-unionists to make themselves a power politically. And this desire has been realized, the combined force of the political and industrial wings of the movement resulting in repeated triumphs for labor at the polls, both in the Federal Government and in the State governments.⁵

⁵ MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, July, 1920, p. 60.

In 1916 the united front which had been the strength of the labor movement was split by the conscription issue, and Mr. Hughes, the leader of the party, joined the liberals in forming a national ministry. But even before the war there had been growing up within the ranks of the movement a dissatisfied element which condemned the Labor Party for its inability to secure desired reforms for the working classes, and advocated direct action rather than compulsory arbitration in the settlement of industrial disputes. And the social and political out-of-jointness of the times generally incident to a world war gave opportunity for the extremists to voice their disapproval of the existing order and to secure the acceptance of an appreciable amount of their doctrine by workers suffering from real and imaginary This has especially been the case among the seamen, injustices. whose leader, Mr. Walsh, as stated before, takes an open stand for direct action; and the more extreme element increased among the miners during the Broken Hill strike, while many others are out for socialization of industry and its accompanying "job control." A definite split between the opposing factions of the party finally came when the extreme industrialists in the trade-unions and the political labor party separated from the reformists and organized the Industrial Socialist Party of Australia. The Labor Party immediately expelled the seceding members and it was thought that this prompt action coupled with the failure of the "one big union" up to that time would react strongly against the policy of direct action and other extreme measures. That these expectations failed of realization is shown in the character of some of the recent strikes and in the steady development of industrial unionism.

One Big Union.

For many years the Australian trade-union movement made repeated efforts to achieve national solidarity; but up to 1919 all attempts at unified organization had proved failures. Amalgamation, despite the opposition from craft and other unions, has gradually taken place under the ægis of the Australian Workers' Union, which, originating among the bush workers, now claims 100,000 members from miscellaneous unions, including a goodly portion of the miners and rural workers. During 1920 the New Zealand Workers' Union, numbering 12,000 members, joined forces with the Australian Workers' Union.

The Australian Workers' Union, like the labor party which it supported, has been traditionally conservative, seeking and obtaining its ends through constitutional channels. Its aim was to build up a great union along Australian lines and suited to Australian needs. But the advocates of one comprehensive industrial union, in which the old trade-union lines of demarcation should be obliterated, succeeded in forming a "one big union," known as the Workers' Industrial Union of Australia which, in contradistinction to the principles advocated by the Australian Workers' Union, recognizes the class struggle as inevitable and substitutes revolutionary for constitutional action to bring about "a complete change, namely, the abolition of capitalistic ownership of the means of production—whether privately

or through the State—and the establishment in its place of social

ownership by the whole community."

The first reaction to the platform of the One Big Union was one of unqualified disapproval. The craft unions did not propose to destroy the work of years; the Labor Party opposed it because of its repudiation of the labor platform with its reliance on parliamentary action; while the Australian Workers' Union, in a manifesto to its members. scathingly criticized the "one big union" scheme and charged that the preamble and constitution adopted by the "one big union" were

borrowed from the American I. W. W.

When, however, the struggle between the Australian Workers' Union and the "one big union" for industrial control finally came to an end in June of the present year, victory apparently had perched on the banner of the militarists. The Labor Party executives, realizing that the extremist element was gradually drifting away from the official party and that something must be done to establish a closer union between the industrial and political wings of the movement, called an all-Australian labor congress at Melbourne, June 22-26, 1921, with the declared purpose of "putting itself in harmony with the new psychology and the mental revolution taking place among the workers of the world."

In view of the past history of the Australian labor movement the remarkable feature of the congress was that the Australian Workers' Union and the Labor Party apparently accepted the program of the "one big union," going on record with the rest of the congress for socialization of industry, production, distribution, and exchange, and for industrial as opposed to craft organization. A council of action of 12 members was appointed to be the real governing power of the Australian industrial movement. The Western Australian, commenting upon the action of the congress, observes that "the Australian political labor movement is little more than 30 years old. In its generation it impressed itself forcefully upon legislation, and operated with success which is embodied in the statutes and institutions of six States and of the Commonwealth, to improve the condition of life of wage earners. Last week the All-Australian Congress of Unions definitely passed sentence of death upon political labor."6 The Sydney Worker, on the other hand, says the congress "agreed to a scheme of unity so uncompromising, so comprehensive, that its realization will completely change the whole industrial history of this country."7

Just what effect the action of this conference will really have upon the future of the Australian labor movement is impossible of prediction, but two things are certain—the old trade-union lines seem to be breaking down and the Labor Party will face the country at the

next election with an entirely new objective.

⁶ Quoted from Industrial Bulletin of the New Zealand Employers' Association, August 6, 1921, p. 5.

Union of South Africa.1

To WOULD seem that by virtue of her isolation and abundant natural resources the Union of South Africa might have escaped the more serious economic consequences of the war. But while the force of a world upheaval has not perhaps been so keenly felt in a rich agricultural and mining country tucked snugly away below the tropic of Capricorn, South Africa, has, nevertheless, not proved an

exception to the general rule.

The war brought to the Union a period of record-breaking prosperity for which the inflated values of her products and the unusual protection afforded her industries through war restrictions were largely responsible. Prices of commodities rose and the resulting higher cost of living there as elsewhere led to increased demands on the part of the wage-earning classes for a larger share of the proceeds. With the ending of hostilities and subsequent renewal of international commercial intercourse the wave of prosperity began inevitably to subside, leaving in its wake the flotsam of unrest which has everywhere been only too apparent under different forms.

Briefly stated, the most important factors of unrest in the social structure of the Union during the past few years have been the serious rise in the cost of living, the development of an extreme section among the workers and its probable effect upon conservative labor, the extent to which the native races may demand an improvement in their social and economic status, and the issue of republicanism between a certain section of the Dutch inhabitants and the rest of the population, an issue which has apparently been definitely settled, for

the present at least, by the results of the last election.

General Industrial Conditions.

WHILE mining has always been the most largely developed industry in the Union and undoubtedly has contributed most to the development of the country and the growth of the white population, agriculture in its various phases is really the principal occupation of the people. It is estimated that the profits of South African farmers were £10,000,000 (\$48,665,000, par) greater during 1918 and 1919 than during the two years just preceding the war, an increase due to increased acreage, high prices, and the growing activities of the cooperative movement.

In prewar days little encouragement was given to the establishment of manufacturing industries, but recent statistics show that owing to the limitations upon trade during the war South Africa has become increasingly capable of producing many articles formerly imported. Especially is this true in the case of some iron and steel products. The official list of manufacturing industries includes tanning, brewing, dairying, building construction, and the manufacture of flour, tobacco, sugar, chemicals, explosives, etc. The

¹ In preparing this article on South Africa the following books and current numbers of periodical publications have been used: Labor Overseas, London; South African Review; African World; South African Mining and Engineering Journal; Round Table; The South African Commonwealth, by Manfred Nathan, Johannesburg, 1919; Report of the British Board of Trade on the trade of South Africa for the year 1919; and the following official reports of the Union of South Africa—Official Yearbook, 1910–1918; Office of Census and Statistics: quarterly abstract of Union statistics, No. 5, January, 1921; office of census and statistics, 1895–1921; Census of the European or white races, 1918; Department of Mines and Industries annual report, 1921.

railways, together with the ports and harbors, are under State management. The Government also holds fractional interests in many of the mines, and these State-controlled industries give employment to large numbers of men both white and colored.

Such industries as do exist appear to be fairly well organized from the viewpoint of both capital and labor. The latest available data regarding employers' associations are given in the following table:

EMPLOYERS' ASSOCIATIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA, DEC. 31, 1919, BY NAME, NUMBER AND MEMBERSHIP.1

Association.	Number of associations.	Membership.	
Transvaal Chamber of Mines. Chambers of commerce. Manufacturers' associations. Municipal associations Other	1 61 6 4 67	80 2, 878 421 191 3, 758	
Total	139	7, 328	
Federated associations.			
Associated chambers of commerce. South African Federated Chamber of Industries. National Federation of Building Trades' Employers in South Africa. Federation of Master Printers of South Africa.	1 1 1	61 11 2	
Total	4	86	

¹ Union of South Africa. Office of Census and Statistics. Quarterly abstract of Union statistics. January, 1921. Johannesburg. p. 18.

Generally speaking, the laboring element is made up of whites, Asiatics, and natives, with a great predominance of native and Asiatic workers. The trade-unions, existing almost entirely among skilled white workers, are organized along British and Australian lines. Strong and flourishing, with their representatives in Parliament and the provincial councils, they make a continuous effort to secure improved conditions of employment for workmen, and meet with a considerable measure of success. South African employers take a fairly liberal attitude toward improvements in working conditions, but the prevailing scarcity of skilled labor may constitute an inducement to liberality on their part as well as a factor in the success of trade-union activity.

The following table shows the trade-union membership in various occupations, on December 31, 1919:

TRADE-UNIONS AND OTHER ASSOCIATIONS OF EMPLOYEES IN SOUTH AFRICA, DEC. 31, 1919, BY OCCUPATION, NUMBER, AND MEMBERSHIP.1

Occupation.	Number of unions.	Mem- ber- ship.	Occupation.	Number of unions.	Mem- ber- ship.
Mining Engineering and metal working Building Printing, bookbinding, etc	8 4	22, 248 8, 777 7, 212 1, 872	Municipal and tramway services. Trading and elerical. Domestic (hotels, etc.). Miscellaneous.	25 15 3 11	6, 564 9, 493 1, 114 4, 680
Manufacturing State services (excluding teaching) Teaching services	16 7 5	6, 848 41, 941 4, 056	Total	110	114, 80

¹ Union of South Africa. Office of Census and Statistics. Quarterly abstract of Union statistics. January, 1921. Johannesburg. p. 18.

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In a number of these cases craftsmen and others are members of more than one union, and while the extent of duplication can not be given it is reported as being relatively small. On December 31, 1920, the total trade-union membership had increased to 132,784.

The South African Industrial Federation, a body similar to the Trades-Union Congress of Great Britain, had in January, 1921, an affiliated membership of 60,000 as against 50,000 in 1920 and 5,000

in 1915.

The National Union of Railway and Harbor Workers is the largest organization not affiliated with the South African Industrial Federation. As Government employees the railway men are penalized for striking by six months' imprisonment and a fine of £50 (\$243.33 par) plus the confiscation of contributions to their superannuation funds. Moreover, their scale of wages, their working conditions, and privileges are all fixed upon different bases from those prevailing in general industry. For these reasons the National Union of Railway and Harbor Workers, or "Nurahs," as they are called, maintain their separate organization. The attitude of the South African Industrial Federation toward the isolated position taken by the railway men was shown recently when the federation notified the "Nurahs" that if they failed to affiliate with the South African Industrial Federation within two months from January 30, 1921, the federation would itself attempt to bring the railway workers within the federation fold.

The Cape Federation of Labor, the South African Workers' Bond, the Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union of South Africa, and the South African Mine Workers' Union are among other worker groups. Of these the South African Workers' Bond is an influential body representing the irreconcilable nationalist element of the Witwatersrand (Transvaal) mine workers. It stands for the principle of the "one big union" and is not recognized by the Chamber of Mines as a trade-union. It has recently concentrated its efforts on winning members from the South African Mine Workers' Union, and the union members have retaliated by refusing to work on any property with seceders from their ranks.

The Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union of South Africa is an organization composed of native workers, among whom the tradeunion idea is just beginning to spread. At the first annual general meeting held at Bloemfontein on July 12, 1920, delegates from the South African Native National Congress, an anti-European organization, and other native workers' unions were present. The congress voted to form "one big union" of all the non-European workers in South Africa, including agricultural laborers and women in industry and domestic service. The principle of equal pay for

equal work was also adopted.

The bank clerks have a nontrade-union organization known as the South African Society of Bank Officials. This society has an agreement with the representatives of the banks whereby the society is recognized by the banks, which are themselves organized, on condition that the society remain independent and nonpolitical. Grievances are discussed at joint conferences.

An organization called the South African Council of Organized Workers was formed in 1920 to represent the interests of "mental and manual workers," the former apparently predominating. It includes the Association of Assayers; South African Municipal Employees' Association; Guild of Insurance Clerks; Mine Surface Officials' Association of South Africa; South African Association of Draughtsmen; South African Telephone and Telegraph Association; South African Typographical Union; Transvaal Teachers' Association; and the Underground Officials' Association.

Government Labor Department.

THE Government of South Africa has no independent labor department. Labor matters are dealt with through six provincial government labor bureaus located in Johannesburg, Pretoria, Cape Town, Durban, Bloemfontein, and Port Elizabeth, which are in turn connected centrally with the white labor bureau of the Department of Mines and Industries. There are also smaller local agencies in

various towns of the several Provinces.

These bureaus apparently concern themselves largely with the placement of the white workers only. Through a monthly bulletin containing statistics from each local bureau the central department gives information as to the demands for labor in different parts of the Union and the possible supply of workers to meet the demands. A special effort is made to settle white men and their families on the land and to recruit the right sort of workers for the Government afforestation and irrigation schemes. An inspector from the labor department has the welfare of the laborers employed by the South African railways in charge. In order to equalize, as far as possible, the supply and demand of labor, to foster the substitution of white for native labor, and to prevent the drift of the rural workers to the cities, labor advisory boards are being organized in each district of the Transvaal.

The department also administers the industrial disputes prevention act, 1909 (Transvaal) and the regulation of wages, apprentices and improvers act, 1918, and endeavors to keep in touch with industrial disputes throughout the Union with a view to securing equitable settlements. Juvenile advisory boards established in several towns furnish advice on all questions affecting juvenile employment, both temporary and permanent. Women's employment is also dealt with by

the department.

All matters relating to native labor, except that recruited by the Government, are administered by the Department of Native Affairs and are under the direct control of a director of native labor. In addition to workmen's compensation he awards compensation under the miners' phthisis act where natives are concerned, and in many respects his office exercises a sort of paternal care over the natives subject to his jurisdiction.

The Labor Party.

LABOR'S political organ is the Labor Party, whose representatives during the party's existence of some 14 or 15 years have constituted a small but nevertheless vocal part of the Union Parliament. Since the organization of the party a number of greatly needed bills favorable to the working classes have been passed, and if the party can

not take entire credit for them it has at least given them generous support. Among these bills are a workmen's compensation act, a miners' phthisis allowance act, a trades dispute act, and an act promulgating regulations for securing safety in mines and other works. At present legislation indorsed by both employers' and workers' organizations has been introduced providing for the creation of local joint boards presided over by impartial chairmen to fix minimum wages in particular trades. As a party platform the Labor Party advocated in the recent election:

(1) Keeping South Africa an integral part of Great Britain;

(2) Securing by political and constitutional means the "abolition of the present profiteering cut-throatsystem of society" and its replacement by "a social and economic commonwealth through the extension of State and municipal enterprises";

(3) Seeing that industries are not developed on the cheapest form of black labor;

(4) Fighting for the establishment of industries on the highest form of civilized

standards:

(5) Equal pay for equal work (this would prevent the native or Asiatics pulling down the European and would protect the Asiatic from exploitation by the capitalist);

(6) Equal opportunity to all classes of children for the best education;

(7) Placing land at disposal of the people;

(8) A fair deal for widows and disabled soldiers.

At the election March 15, 1920, the Labor Party increased the number of its representatives in Parliament on the issue of high cost of living and the Government's failure to deal with it, but in the recent election, February 8, 1921, secession was made the issue, the South African Party and the unionists combining against the nationalists, who champion republicanism and a freeing of South Africa from British rule. The nationalists lost only three votes, but the Labor Party, which has always opposed secession from England, found its bloc of 21 votes reduced to 9, many of the workingmen voting against republicanism rather than along sectional or economic lines. During the war the party suffered in prestige through the attitude of some of the extreme members, an attitude which was disavowed by the executive of the party. Latterly there has been dissatisfaction with the labor administration of Johannesburg, much of the labor trouble being attributed to the Labor Party's tactics. On the other hand, part of the laborites contend that the recent election was really an attack upon the Labor Party because it attempted to defeat two Government bills, viz, the rents bill and the income tax exemption bill. They charge that there was really no occasion for an election since the majority against secession was a safe one.

Labor Unrest: Its Causes and Manifestations.

COST of living in South Africa, which was relatively high before the war, did not fall with the signing of the armistice, but continued upward unchecked, until in December, 1920, when retail prices of food were 88 per cent above the 1914 level. That this increase was not so great as cost-of-living advances in a number of other countries proved a matter of small consolation to the people of the Union, many of whom found the purchasing power of their incomes further and further reduced.

The suddenness of the armistice led to a cancellation of orders on the part of the merchants, with a consequent shortage of stock and a corresponding rise in local prices. The lack of adequate housing accommodations felt throughout this period became especially acute during the influenza epidemic of 1918, and though ameliorative measures were taken by the various municipalities, and the Government appointed a commission in 1919 to investigate the whole matter, the shortage continued so great that landlords were enabled to make large profits on rents. Droughts in 1919 and floods in the early months of 1920 were disastrous to agriculture, pasture, and the cattle

supply.

Another important factor in the increase in prices was the repeated resale of imports. This was especially apparent in staple foodstuffs, grain prices having risen to more than three times prewar values. During 1919 a 2-pound loaf of bread at Cape Town, a city of direct access to grain markets, cost 2s. (48.7 cents, par). Maize, which is the principal food of the native population and which was formerly considered dear at 10s. (\$2.43, par) a bag, went to 35s. (\$8.52, par) a bag. Owing to droughts in India and the adverse rates of exchange, rice, upon which the large Indian population of Natal subsists in great part, sold at famine prices. Butter at times went to \$2 per pound and eggs brought almost as much per dozen. A wheat shortage in the early part of 1920 led to an increase of 25 per cent in the price of wheat in the month of May alone.

A cost-of-living commission appointed to investigate the causes of high prices found evidences of excessive profiteering in food-stuffs, boots and shoes, soft goods, hardware, and other necessaries. But a select committee appointed to report upon the cost-of-living commission's reports reached conclusions quite dissimilar, and for this *eason it seems inadvisable to quote figures. It appears probable, however, that the profiteering section of the community reaped ample returns in South Africa as elsewhere during this period,

and that there was no legal remedy.

While certain sections of organized labor were able through arbitration, strikes, or threats of strikes, to obtain cost-of-living bonuses or permanent advances in wages, many of the manual workers received either no increases at all or increases insufficient to meet the cost of living, and strikes and wage advances among the skilled men created a spirit of unrest in the ranks of the native workmen, resulting in spasmodic outbreaks. Among the salaried classes—the Government employees, bank clerks, teachers, and nurses—the reduced purchasing power of money was keenly felt. They resented especially the shortage of houses which enabled landlords to fix their own prices for rents. As a result the Government has had the not unfamiliar experience of finding it difficult to keep men in positions requiring special educational or technical training.

A rents act passed during 1920 did something to retard the upward movement in house rents. Various rent boards throughout the Union constituted under the act are reported to have investigated 42,000 cases, effecting reductions totaling £41,000 (\$199,527, par) per annum. The act has been continued for the year 1921, and a clause has been inserted in the new measure to protect, in certain instances, woman tenants and their families from being

turned out of their homes in case of the death of the lessee.

The continued rise in cost of living, together with the large profits, the evidence of plenty of money among a few classes, and extravagant living among the people generally, marked the years 1918 and 1919 with industrial disputes and disturbances. The total number of strikes increased from 23 in 1918 to 66 in 1920. Out of 23 strikes in 1918, aggregating 31,786 working days, 13 were called

to secure wage increases.

During 1919 disputes were prevalent in a number of trades. especially in the Transvaal, where industrial unrest is usually more pronounced than in the other States of the Union. A three months' strike in the building trades on the Rand as well as at Port Elizabeth and Cape Town resulted in increased wages and shorter hours. Labor disputes also developed among the boot and shoe workers in Johannesburg, while waiters, tailors, and barbers organized themselves into unions in order to make effective demands for shorter hours and increased wages. Tramway strikes occurred at Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, Durban, and Johannesburg, that at Johannesburg being of an unusual character. Following a decision of the Johannesburg town council to drop 30 men from the tramway department, the power station and tramway men decided to call a strike. The strike committee requested the reinstatement of the 30 men. shorter hours, and an increase of wages. Furthermore, it demanded the appointment of a joint board of control to run the municipal services until the recalcitrant town council—to the unreasonable attitude of a majority of whose members the strike was attributed should concede the workers' demand.

A board of control appointed by the strikers took over the different municipal departments, but the heads of these departments refused to place their services at the disposal of the self-constituted board, and the acting prime minister was appealed to for assistance in adjusting the matter. Meantime, at a meeting of the strikers one of the councilors, a sympathizer with the strikers, said, in discussing the lack of cooperation of the heads of departments, that crowns and constitutions were crumbling all over the world and there was no reason why Johannesburg should be the last place. Another sympathetic member of the council stated that the socialistic principle of production for the use of the people had been operating in Russia for 18 months,

and despite all efforts to the contrary, was spreading.

Two days after the arrival of the ministers of justice and land sent by the prime minister the board of control ceased to exist, the strike committee and the restored town council reaching an agreement to the effect that no retrenchment in the force should be made and that advisory committees of employees elected by the men should discuss with the management all questions affecting labor. It was also agreed that the employment and paying off of men should rest with the respective heads of departments in consultation with the prospective advisory committees from the ranks of the workers.

As suggested in the brief account of the Labor Party, the general public did not take kindly to what it considered a high-handed proceeding in local government. The board of control as constituted was devoid of the least vestige of legal authority, and the spirit shown by the extreme labor element in this strike may, it is believed, have operated to reduce materially the labor vote in the recent election.

Unemployment, while possibly not so great a problem in South Africa as elsewhere, at least among skilled workers, gradually in-

creased during 1919, especially in the mining industry. For a part of that year 22 low-grade mines operated at a loss and in the first quarter of 1920 operating costs of these mines continued so excessive that a scheme for retrenchment was necessary which called for the discharge of many workers. Along the Reef (Transvaal) some classes of skilled workers were able to obtain work in the profit-paying mines, but for unskilled workers and for engineers, clerks, fitters, and mill hands the question of unemployment became a rather serious one. In the Orange Free State, on the contrary, there was such a scarcity of artisans in April, 1920, that wages were forced up to 4s. (97.3 cents, par) per hour, and requests were made for State-

aided immigration.

By September, 1920, unemployment had reached such proportions that Government action was sought to provide measures of relief. The governor-general therefore appointed an unemployment commission to inquire into the causes of unemployment and the best manner of dealing with it; the most effective way of checking the influx of unskilled rural workers into the towns; and the advisability of instituting unemployment insurance. Hearings before this commission indicated that the employment of Asiatics adversely affected the chances of Europeans for employment, and the importation of thousands of natives while white men were out of employment was severely criticized by the leader of the Labor Party. The importation of unskilled labor is, however, always a moot question between the labor unions and employers. The latter claim that there is really a shortage of native labor and that the future prosperity of the mines depends upon a greater supply.

Official employment statistics for November, 1920, showed that in eight of the principal cities of the Union there had been 3,332 applications for work, 1,584 demands from employers, and 1,173 placements, as compared with 1,905 applications, 679 demands, and 511 place-

ments in the preceding month.

Late in the fall of 1920 a departmental committee was appointed to promote schemes for road making, afforestation, and irrigation. By December, the Government had assisted in considerably reducing unemployment among the miners at Johannesburg. Special arrangements were made in the trade-unions whereby unemployed ex-service men were allowed to work at wages less than the standard rates on condition that their pensions should bring their wages up to trade-union levels. The soldiers were also given the first places on the waiting lists.

The labor advisory board of Witwatersrand (Transvaal), composed of representatives of the municipalities, chamber of mines, chamber of commerce, and South African Industrial Federation, recommended (1) communal land settlements where the unskilled workers could be trained in some occupation and (2) a mobile corps of skilled workers which could be sent to any part of the country when their services were needed on public works. The skilled workers would receive the rate prevalent in the trade; the wages of the unskilled would be regulated according to need.

Notwithstanding the efforts made on the part of the Government, the employers, and the trade-unions to reduce unemployment, it appeared in June of the present year to be as prevalent as ever. The unemployed on the Rand alone were roughly estimated at 4,000 or 5,000. As regards the Union as a whole, available information indicates that there were at least 10,000 out of work, most of whom were "poor whites."

Strikes in 1920-1921.

Industrial unrest manifested itself among the ranks of the tradeunionists themselves during the month of April, 1920, when members of the staff of the South African Industrial Federation, the central trade-union organization in South Africa, struck, for a variety of reasons, their omnibus bill of demands including: A salary of £40 (\$194.66, par) a month for a bookkeeper; £30 (\$146, par) a month for a stenographer; £5 (\$24.33, par) a month for an office junior; hours on five days of the week to be from 9 to 5, on Saturday from 9 to 1; employment of nonunion members to be precluded; a second stenographer to enroll as a member of the federation or be dismissed.

A strike of Johannesburg tramwaymen occurred on May 3, 1920, over the suspension of a tram conductor who was obeying the company's rules rather than the inspector's orders. The strike committee recommended a return to work on condition that an inquiry into the cause of the strike should be instituted, no strikers to be victimized and that the payment of wages for the strike period should depend upon the result of the inquiry. When on the 18th of the month the men had not returned to work the town council ordered them back on penalty of dismissal. Having meantime withdrawn all opposition to the suspension of the conductor, the strikers could not reasonably remain out longer. They therefore resumed work May 21, having gained only a promise of an inquiry.

The difference in wages paid the native and the white workers led to a strike of 100 colored harbor workers at Mossel Bay, May 11, 1920. The colored workers demanded 8s. (\$1.95, par) a day, basing their demand upon the fact that white workers received from 8s. to 10s. (\$1.95 to \$2.43, par) a day for work for which they received 2s. 9d. to 4s. (66.9 to 97.3 cents, par) a day. During the same month 1,000 native dockers struck at Durban for £5 (\$24.33, par) a month, an increase of 100 per cent. After their voluntary resumption of work the employers granted an increase of 2s. 6d. (60.8 cents, par) and

overtime rates.

During the latter part of May the developers at Springs refused an offer of 28s. (\$6.81, par) a shift plus a contract price of 31s. to 35s. (\$7.54 to \$8.52, par) a foot and struck for a greater increase in wages. The miners at once declared a sympathetic strike, which was supported by the local union but condemned by the South African Miners' Union, which also recommended a return to work. The strike ended June 5, a board of reference being appointed to adjust the developers' future wages. About the same time the South African Amalgamated Engine Drivers' and Firemen's Association (surface mine workers),' whose members work a 7-day week, threatened a general strike unless a 6-day week of 48 hours was conceded. As the men were bound by a yearly agreement the Chamber of Mines refused to negotiate on the question of a reduction of hours at that time. On July 31 the dissatisfaction existing among these workers culminated in the first of a series of four week-end strikes. Admitting that from the nature

of the work Sunday labor is indispensable, the men thought it should be paid for at time-and-a-half whether it is really overtime or not.

The Chamber of Mines, which at first had refused to consider the matter, finally proposed a conference with the South African Industrial Federation, and its proposal was accepted. The question of the recognition of the union, which was responsible for the breach of agreement and for the strike, caused a deadlock in negotiations. The chamber then issued a circular regarding overtime of which particulars are not given but which the strikers considered a breach of

agreement on the part of the Chamber of Mines.

Later the circular was withdrawn, the strike was called off August 24, and negotiations resumed. Since representatives of the striking union participated in the conferences leading up to a settlement it is reasonable to suppose that the Chamber of Mines conceded the demand for recognition at once. As regards the seven-day week, the decision was a compromise, the chamber proposing "that the principle of one day's rest in seven (not necessarily Sunday) be applied as far as practicable; that overtime for the seventh day be paid at time-and-a-half for the period worked. If the seventh day be a Sunday, at least 8 hours' pay at the ordinary rate must be given; if Sunday is included in the six-day week of any employee, it is to be paid for at time and a quarter.' The chamber's proposal was accepted by the South African Engine Drivers' and Firemen's

Association in November, 1920.

Four hundred engineers at Durban (Natal) struck the last of July to obtain an hourly wage of 4s. (97.3 cents, par); 14 days' annual leave on full pay; payment for three public holidays; apprentices' pay to begin at 20 per cent of journeymen's rates and advance to 60 per cent. All of these demands were granted in full except the first, wages being fixed at 3s. 9d. (91.3 cents, par) per hour and made retroactive to May 15. The strike lasted about two weeks. During the same month engineers on the Rand struck for practically the same causes, and in addition demanded a 44-hour week and 3s. 6d. (85.2 cents, par) an hour for riveters. The employers made an offer of 3s. 6d. (85.2 cents, par) an hour to mechanics and 3s. (73 cents, par) to riveters, which the workmen refused to accept. The miners, engine drivers, and mechanics employed in the coal mines of the Witbank district demanded a weekly wage increase of 48s. (\$14.11, par), which would have brought weekly wages of miners up to £9 10s. 6d. (\$46.35, par); those of engineers up to £9 (\$43.80, par); and those of mechanics £8 8s. (\$40.88 par). The Chamber of Mines offered £9 a week to miners and engineers; a 40 per cent increase to other workmen; a minimum of 12s. 6d. (\$3.04, par) to unskilled workers; time-and-a-half for overtime, and holidays on, full pay. These terms were accepted by the men in November, 1920.

A maximum wage of 25s. (\$6.08, par) a day was demanded by the Durban (Natal) tramwaymen in October, 1920. The increase being refused by the municipal council, the men modified their demand to 23s. (\$5.70, par) a day but without success. A strike was then called which lasted until November 26, when the matter was referred to a joint advisory board and the men returned to work. The board recommended a 5 per cent increase in wages which the council also refused to grant, having in the meantime organized a motor service

to relieve the situation in case of strike. As a result of this unsuccessful strike of the tramwaymen the South African Industrial Federation undertook what is known as a "suspense strike," that is, a strike which is announced and then postponed from time to time. This is said to be the first official strike called by the federation since the close of the war.

A matter of trade-union discipline led to a strike of 5,000 miners in a Langlaagte gold mine on the Rand in January of the present year. The managers and men have an agreement whereby the union undertakes to enforce breaches of discipline through fines rather than by suspension, the mine owners deducting imposed fines from wages. The employers also collect trade-union fees through their pay sheets. In this case a foreman refused to attend a meeting to answer charges brought against him by the men. Apparently the union demanded his discharge, but the manager, acting under his agreement with the union, refused to discharge the foreman. The South African Miners' Association indorsed the strike but refused to make it general. Work was resumed on February 18, 1921, the matter being referred to the board of reference which sided with the owners, the manager being instructed to reprimand the foreman and warn him to be more tactful in future.

The Chamber of Mines, charging that the union had broken its agreement to refer disputes to the board of reference before calling a strike, notified the men that after one month the mining company would discontinue its practice of deducting trade-union subscriptions and fines from the pay sheets, an arrangement instituted in 1917 to assist in establishing trade-unionism on constitutional lines.

Output was greatly reduced on the Rand by the closing of the plants, some of which will not reopen, and £30,000 (\$145,995, par) in wages were lost. The union claims that miners who returned to work were victimized, some being compelled to sign on as new hands, thus breaking their period of service and forfeiting leave and other privileges, while others returned at lower wages. The chamber defends its position by pointing out that the men were warned that they would be automatically discharged upon failing to return to

work by a certain day.

Another important labor dispute of the present year, which, with that of the Langlaagte mine, threatened to tie up commerce and industry, was the demand of the engineers on the Rand for a wage increase amounting to an advance of 83 per cent over prewar rates and a 44-hour week. The Chamber of Mines refused the demand, which was followed by a suspense strike on the part of the engineers and lightning strikes in 10 other mines, out of sympathy. The chamber offered a scale of wages declining at intervals of three or four months or the stabilization of existing wage rates for a year. District officials urged the men to hold out, but the union executive repudiated the strike committee. On February 13, 1921, the men accepted the latter alternative of the chamber's offer. The settlement of these two unauthorized strikes along constitutional lines is reported to have been something of a blow to an element among the workers which has shown an increasing unwillingness to abide by the rules of the game and is willing to endanger the wages of hundreds of fellow unionists through impossible demands.

A strike of cabinetmakers at Cape Town was in progress the 1st of April, 1921. The furniture trade was suffering from a heavy setback which the employers attributed largely to the excessive costs of production, due to a "ca'canny" policy among the workers. They accordingly gave notice of the termination of existing agreements and of the increase of the hours of work from 44 to 48 per week, reserving also the right to enforce piecework if found necessary.

The men refused to accept these terms and went on strike about the middle of March. The employers retaliated by discharging all their men and proclaiming an "open-shop" policy. The Cape Federation of Labor Unions at its annual meeting denounced the attitude of the employers and decided also to enforce a "boycott" of all "open shops" and withdraw their engineers. It was also decided to purchase a factory and start the manufacture of furniture on coop-

erative lines.

Employees of the Durban tramway system were on strike from June 11 to August 14, 1921, during which time tramway service was completely at a standstill. A fair transportation service was, however, maintained by means of motor cars and busses. At the time of the strike the men were receiving an average of 19s. (\$4.62, par) per day, or about £30 (\$146, par) a month. They demanded an increase of 2s. (48.7 cents, par) a day, which the municipal council refused to grant. An agreement was reached on August 13. The men returned to work at the rate prevailing when they ceased work in June, but the war bonus, which was to have been stopped, was continued through 1921. Provision was also made as to future conferences between the tramwaymen's representatives and the council for the discussion of matters affecting tramwaymen.

Results of Labor Unrest.

CENERALLY speaking, the post-war period has been marked, so far as the labor world of South Africa is concerned, by an increase in wages and a reduction in hours of work. In some cases these results have been obtained through mutual adjustment on the part of the men and the employers; in others they have been forced through strikes and labor disputes, standards naturally varying in the different districts.

Hours.

The factory act of 1919–20 fixed a $9\frac{1}{2}$ -hour day and a 50-hour week for adults. No Sunday labor or work on public holidays was allowed unless equal time was granted in compensation. The skilled workers, however, had agreements limiting their hours of labor still further. At present the eight-hour day is accepted in principle at least and prevails in most trades. Native workers, according to available sources, have a shorter day than the white workmen.

Weekly hours of labor for many of these occupations prevailing, December, 1919, in Cape Town, Durban, and Johannesburg are shown in the following statement which appeared in Labor Overseas, Octo-

ber-December, 1919, page 130:

WEEKLY HOURS OF LABOR IN SOUTH AFRICA, DECEMBER, 1919, BY OCCUPATION.

Occupation.	Hours per week.	Occupation.	Hours per week.
Bakers Blacksmiths Boilermakers, ironworkers, and ship- builders. Bricklayers Carpenters Coach builders Electricians Engineers Fitters Furniture workers Leather workers, cutters Machinists Masons.	48 44 to 48	Plasterers Plumbers Printers: Hand compositors, day Hand compositors, night Machine tenders, day Machine tenders, night Binders, day Binders, night Riveters Tailoresses Tramway motormen and conductors. Turners.	44 to 44 44 to 48 44 to 54 44 to 54 42 to 44 42 to 44 42 to 44 44 to 5 44 to 5

In the mines, however, an $8\frac{1}{2}$ -hour day from bank to bank prevailed in 1919. The building trades now have a 44-hour week. In the latter part of 1920 the engineers at Port Elizabeth (Cape Colony) were granted a 42-hour week.

Wages.

In the latter part of 1920 building workers' wages at Johannesburg were advanced to 4s. 3d. (\$1.03, par) an hour, representing a total increase of 70 per cent over prewar rates. The average weekly wages paid to workers in the building trades (exclusive of laborers) throughout the Union increased from 100s. 7d. (\$24.47, par) in 1914 to 164s. 9d. (\$40.09, par) in December, 1920. Municipal employees in Johannesburg received increases in September, 1920, which brought their wages also up to 70 per cent over the prewar rate. Under the increased rates unskilled white workers received 17s. (\$4.14, par) a day; tramway men, £9 1s. (\$44.04, par) a week; mechanics, £10 4s. (\$49.64, par) a week. Equally as great, and in some instances greater. increases in wages are noted in comparison of changes of wage rates in the engineering and printing trades. In Cape Town fitters' wages increased from 56s. to 84s. (\$13.63 to \$20.44, par) per week in 1913 to 20s. (\$4.87, par) a day in September, 1920, while compositors who received from 66s. to 80s. (\$16.06 to \$19.47, par) a week in 1913 were paid 152s. 9d. (\$37.17, par) a week in September, 1920. In considering these advances it should be remembered that the purchasing power of the sovereign fell from 18s. 7d. (\$4.52, par) in 1914 to 11s. 11d. (\$2.90, par) in December, 1920.

All classes of workers, however, have not shared proportionately in the matter of wage increases. Take the bank clerks (Cape Town), for example. Under a scheme recently adopted for grading their salaries, male employees at 30 years of age will receive £300 per year (\$1,460, par) plus cost-of-living allowance, providing annual reports of their work are favorable. Those receiving £300 (\$1,460, par) in 1914 will retain any promotions they have received and receive in addition £170 (\$827, par) in the case of single men and £225 (\$1,095, par) in the case of married men, to meet the present cost of living. Woman clerks must begin at £9 (\$43.80, par) a month, advancing to

⁻Union of South Africa, Office of Census and Statistics, Pretoria. Social Statistics, 1921, p. 15.

£15 (\$73, par) a month the seventh year of their service, plus cost of

living allowance.

In the mining industry, also, up to June, 1920, at least, wages had not reached the high levels noted in other occupations. The following statement shows the rates of pay for white underground employees in the Witwatersrand gold mines, June, 1920, as compared with June, 1914. The figures given include any allowances, but exclude pay for overtime.

AVERAGE RATES OF PAY IN WITWATERSRAND GOLD MINES, 1920, COMPARED WITH 1914, BY CLASSES OF EMPLOYEES.

[Shilling at	par=24.3	cents;	penn	y = 2.03	cents.]	
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Class of employees.	June, 1920.	June, 191	14.
Shift bosses . Timbermen Pipemen Pitters Plate layers Skipmen and onsetters Trammers (excluding contractors) Pumpmen Miners: Machine stoping. Hand stoping. Gay's pay Gontract. (day's pay Gontract. (day's pay Machine developing. Shaft sinkers. Engine drivers (winding).	8.	18 20 18 16 14 18 18 18 18 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 19	

¹ Union of South Africa. Department of mines and industries. Annual reports. Pretoria, 1921, p. 29.

The average rates of pay of colored persons, other than native laborers, employed in the same mines on any of the above classes of underground labor, was approximately one-fourth of the amount shown for white men. The average earnings of native laborers employed underground in the Witwatersrand gold mines were 2s. 2½d. (53.7 cents, par) per shift, in addition to which they received free quarters

and food, estimated to cost 1s. 1d. (26.3 cents, par) per shift.

With the downward trend of prices since January 1, 1921, there has been a movement to reduce wages. At Cape Town the cost-of-living bonus of 1½d. (3.04 cents, par) an hour has been withdrawn, leaving basic hourly rates in the building trades as follows: Carpenters, masons, and bricklayers, 3s. ½d. (74 cents, par); plasterers, 2s. 11d. (71 cents, par); plumbers, 3s. 6d. (85.2 cents, par); electricians 2s. 11d. (71 cents, par); painters, 2s. 2d. (52.7 cents, par). Government workers including railway men have had the 25 per cent war bonus withdrawn. The railway men moved energetically against this reduction, suggestions of joint "direct action" being made among the Cape Town employees.

The decrease in the price of gold, high operating costs, and falling cost-of-living figures have led to a movement for the reduction of miners' wages. At a conference between the Chamber of Mines and the South African Industrial Federation held at the end of May, the chamber suggested a cut of 3s. (73 cents, par) a shift or 18s. (\$4.38,

par) a week from wages of men receiving the £2 8s. (\$11.68, par) per week increase granted in February, 1920, to begin July 1. At a conference of trade-union representatives held later a resolution was passed asserting that the proposed cut was not justified and this position was later indorsed by the joint executives of the trade-unions. The miners on the Rand have now practically what the English miners failed to get through a long strike—a national rate of wages applicable to all mines. They contended therefore that to allow sectional reductions would be a great mistake; it would be followed by cuts in one system after another with a probable second cut all around.

Democratization of Industry.

A NOTHER indication of prevailing dissatisfaction among workers is the movement for the democratization of industry. As unemployment increased, miners' organizations at Roodporte passed resolutions demanding that the Government force the mine owners to surrender their mining leases to the miners who would work the mines themselves. And the leader of the Labor Party introduced a bill which, however, was not passed, (a) to prohibit the closing of mines without three months' notice; (b) to provide for the forfeiture of mines and the State purchase of plants under certain conditions at the end of the three months' period; and (c) to establish a board to report on the possibility of continuing operations in such mines and on methods of providing employment for displaced workers.

In October, 1920, one mine workers' union formulated a scheme whereby each member should give one day's pay a month to create a fund for the purchase of a colliery, which should be under their own management, and should be run on a cooperative plan, all profits being devoted to the expansion of the industry, in order to absorb a greater number of unemployed workers. The Chamber of Mines

offered expert advice in this case.

The Benoni District Federation of Trades sent forward the following resolution to be proposed at a meeting of the general council of the South African Industrial Federation, June 6, 1920:

We consider it advisable to send a working deputation to Soviet Russia to work under the soviet system for 12 months for the purpose of obtaining practical experience of the system.

The International Socialist Society at Cape Town proposed on May Day, 1920, a resolution pledging the workers—

To prepare to be in a position to carry on production and distribution through the dictatorship of the working class in the time of capitalist dissolution.

This resolution, however, was resented by a number of the labor

leaders who refused to attend the demonstrations.

The idea of the "Manchester" building guild also took root in South Africa. At a conference of the executives of the building trades union, affiliated with the South African Industrial Federation, held July 18, 1920, a committee was appointed to prepare a plan for "taking over the building industry."

Native Labor.

BUT the Union of South Africa has a labor problem peculiarly its own in the numerical predominance of the native, Asiatic, and other colored workers over the white; and the native problem, embracing as it does not only the relation of the white man to the native but the social and moral condition of the natives themselves, is a serious question with which South African statesmen, politicians, labor leaders, and social workers are increasingly concerned. According to the census of 1918 there were in the Union 1,450,093 white persons. In 1911 the colored races constituted 78.63 per cent of the total population and while no census of them has been taken since that time it is estimated that the colored population in 1918 was approximately 5,500,000.

Between these races there exists an industrial partnership, but they have nothing in common in their traditions and standards of living; and these racial distinctions dominate the economics of South Africa, in most cases governing the consideration of labor and

industrial questions.

Cheap unskilled native labor has always been an important factor in the development of the industries of the country. It has constituted much of the necessary labor in the sugar industry, in railway construction, and in coal mining. Gold mining in the Transvaal has been and still is dependent upon the supply of native workers and the same condition exists in agriculture. This demand for cheap labor has tended to draw the natives from their homes and thus undermine to a large extent the old tribal system. Statistics showing the extent of this exodus into industry as a whole are not available, but it is known that in 1919 nearly one-fourth of the native workers were living on farms of Europeans while 537,151 were employed in urban and mining areas. The relative proportion of whites and colored in the mining industry for the same year, 377 mines reporting, was as follows: Out of a total of 297,165 employees, 38,851 were white; 3,239, Asiatic; and 255,075, natives and colored

persons other than Asiatics and natives. Removed from his tribal environment the native began to develop ideas of bettering his own condition, but restrictive measures, both political and social, have to a considerable extent closed the avenue of progress which the detribalized native saw opening before him. In labor circles a "color bar" and a division of labor have been fixed and are more or less strictly adhered to. Skilled work of all kinds, as well as the supervision of unskilled labor, is carried on by skilled white workers who, strongly intrenched in their well-organized tradeunions, insist that the maintenance of labor and living standards depends upon the maintenance of the color bar as regards skilled trades, and for this reason trade-unions maintain agreements with employers regarding all phases of the color question and fight large importations of native labor into their unions. Many employers, however, while recognizing the menace of the native population, feel that without the aid of native workers the labor problem would be wholly incapable of solution; others refuse to recognize any such menace, believing that it is a myth, an invention of white labor unions. They say that South Africa would not be able to spell the word "economic" without the native workmen. Only recently the trade-union position in this respect has been attacked. The 1920 report of the low-mines commission recommended the removal of the color bar, concession of higher wages to the more competent native workers, among whom piecework should be extended, and Government assistance to prevent the closing down of the mines. The South African Industrial Federation itself at its national convention on January 22, 1921, approved a motion providing that each labor body, whether local, provincial, or national, should decide for itself whether or not colored labor be included. This action was strongly opposed by the miners' organization in the Transvaal, which announced that it would fight "tooth and nail the inclusion of colored labor within their ranks." The idea was attributed by the leader of the mine workers union to the activities of the international socialist party, which he said was "not only educating these people but helping them oust the white workers from their jobs." The mine workers, he asserted, are out for a white Transvaal and are determined to keep it white.

A further complication in this phase of the labor situation appears in the existence, between the skilled whites on the one hand and the natives and Asiatics on the other, of a considerable number of unskilled white laborers, known as "poor whites," who drift back and forth between the rural areas and the cities, and who of necessity find themselves in competition with the cheap native labor. And the condition of this class, forced to maintain higher living standards though unable both through lack of training and through indifference to command an adequate rate of pay, is one which labor organizations, from economic as well as altruistic motives, are trying to improve. Apprenticeship is being encouraged by labor and the employers, and a bill has been introduced providing for juvenile training and employment boards to deal with occupations in which a period of apprentice-

ship is not required.

During the last few years a new race consciousness has developed among the native population similar to movements observable in China, India, and Japan. Continued contact with the Europeans on the farms, in the mines, and in white homes have led some portion of the natives at least to contrast their condition with that of white workers and to demand the same standards of treatment and government. There is a good deal of semiskilled work which the natives are capable of doing but from which they are debarred owing to lack of training and the opposition of white workers, heretofore mentioned

In the Cape Province, where the native African has greater rights than in the other Provinces, unskilled native workmen have qualified as semiskilled artisans. The difference in treatment accorded the native in the various Provinces is another factor in this already difficult problem. Moreover, the native, whom the high prices have affected as keenly as they have white workers, is beginning vaguely to feel that there is a conspiracy to keep his wages down, and he is already copying European forms of labor organization and European methods of seeking redress of grievances.

In the early part of 1920 a native strike on a considerable scale, at least 71,033 natives being involved, occurred on the Witwatersrand gold mines. The men demanded a 3d. (6.1 cents, par) per

shift increase in pay. The report of the Transvaal Chamber of Mines, 1920, in commenting upon the strike, says that it was a regular strike, not a riot, organized on the European model. The workers viewed with great impatience the increase of pay of European workers. The increase was denied because the native workers had had their wages increased 3d. (6.1 cents, par) per shift, and so far as they were concerned the increase in cost of living applied only to clothes, their food being furnished on a liberal scale in the

compounds.

An outbreak resulting from native unrest occurred in October, 1920. A few months before, the Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union, a recently formed union of native workers, demanded increases in wages and representatives on the joint wages board. Finally the union at Port Elizabeth (Cape Province) threatened to strike unless a daily wage of 10s. 6d. (\$2.56, par) for men and 7s. 6d. (\$1.83, par) for women were granted. There had been considerable agitation since the first demand was made, and Masabalala, the leader of the organization, was arrested for inciting the natives to violence. His arrest was immediately protested by a riot in which 23 persons were killed and 106 wounded. Telephone and telegraph lines were cut and property damaged.

On November 1 the strike was called off, and owing to the imprisonment of Masabalala a new leader was chosen to negotiate the workers' claims. This leader, Msimang, a Basuto, is reported to be a more formidable adversary. He proposed, as suggested before, to create one great labor union of natives embracing the whole of Southern Africa, with a view to taking concerted action at some future date, and Masabalala's followers supported him, as did also the international socialists and communists of South Africa.

While native outbreaks of this character have up to this time been infrequent and do not embrace a large number of workers, their significance is not lost upon the more thoughtful well-wishers of the future peace of the Union. The African World of November 27, 1920, commenting upon the Port Elizabeth riots, says:

Among the serious-minded students of South African affairs the riots at Port Elizabeth reveal a condition of deep-seated unrest, an undercurrent of gathering strength, which may be palliated by temporary measures but which it is feared will only acquire increased volume as time goes on. It is an unrest which springs from many sources and touches every aspect of life—economic, political, religious, and social. The European's preoccupation with the economic side of the social organism leads him to minimize the other elements entering into it; but in the black man's mind, newly awakened to the wonders of the European's commonplaces, these factors are operative with an extraordinary intensity and clearness. * *

are operative with an extraordinary intensity and clearness. * * *

The European attitude toward the native has not advanced with the times, which have opened up vast possibilities of economic progress to the South African native millions. The peril lies not so much in the existence of these possibilities as in the risk of their being converted to ill uses by ignorance, fanaticism, and lack of direction. The white man in South Africa would do well to recognize that danger in its true character and meet it with firmness, where necessary, with insight, sympathy,

and traditional justice wheresoever the circumstances admit.

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 September 15, 1920, and on August 15 and September 15, 1921, as well as the percentage changes in the year and in the month. For example, the price of sirloin steak was 46.8 cents per pound on September 15, 1920; 40 cents per pound on August 15, 1921; and 38.9 cents per pound on September 15, 1921. These figures show a decrease of 17 per cent in the year and a decrease of 3 per cent in the month.

The cost of the various articles of food,2 combined, showed a decrease of 25 per cent in September, 1921, as compared with September, 1920, and a decrease of 1.1 per cent in September, 1921, as

compared with August, 1921.

¹ 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 only in the June issue, but appears this year in the July and November issues. Dry goods appears regularly in the April, July, October, and December issues of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

¹ The following 22 articles, weighted according to the consumption of the average family, have been used from January, 1913, to December, 1920: Sirloin 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, SEPTEMBER 15, 1921, COMPARED WITH SEPTEMBER 15, 1920, AND AUGUST 15, 1921.

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

Article.	Unit.	Averag	ge retail pri	ice on—	(+) 01	of increase decrease Sept. 15 compared
		Sept. 15, 1920.	Aug. 15, 1921.	Sept. 15, 1921.	Sept. 15, 1920.	Aug. 15, 1921.
Crisco Eggs, strictly fresh Bread Flour Corn meal Rolled oats Corn flakes Corn flakes Corn flakes Rearoni Bacaroni Rice Beans, navy	do d	15.7 68.6 41.9 36.3 40.6 41.9 33.1 71.1 11.9 8.3 6.8 11.5 11.6 42.0 17.6 64.6 46.6 47.8 47.8	Cents. 40.0 55.6 29.1 20.8 13.55.6 38.0 43.7 52.9 34.3 38.9 34.4 14.3 13.5 51.2 29.8 27.8 32.6 18.1 21.1 47.6 9.7 4.5 10.0 12.2 20.8 8 20.7 8.8 7 9 4.2 21.6 11.1 21.1 11.1 21.1 11.1 21.1 21	Cents. 38.9 34.4 228.6 20.5 13.3 37.6 43.0 51.4 32.8 38.2 38.3 14.1 13.5 50.6 17.9 21.3 30.6 4.4 9.9 12.0 29.7 50.6 4.1 11.7 7 50.6 11.7 50.	-17 -20 -17 -24 -28 -25 -21 -15 -16 -16 -13 -18 -14 -26 -29 -23 -20 -36 -36 -36 -39 -19 -33 -35 -14 -17 -2 -6 -49 -30 -30 -4 -17 -2 -6 -49 -30 -30 -30 -4 -17 -2 -6 -40 -30 -30 -30 -30 -30 -30 -30 -30 -30 -3	$\begin{array}{c} -3 \\ -3 \\ -2 \\ -11 \\ -12 \\ -3 \\ -44 \\ -2 \\ -10 \\ -11 \\ +6 \\ -12 \\ -21 \\ -21 \\ -21 \\ -21 \\ -21 \\ -11 \\ +44 \\ -3 \\ -58 \\ +111 \\ -11 \\ +44 \\ -3 \\ -0.13 \\ -14 \\ -21 $
All articles combined 1					-25	- 1.1

¹ See note 2, p. 38.

Table 2 shows for the United States average retail prices of specified food articles on September 15, 1913 and 1914, and on September 15 of each year from 1917 to 1921, together with the percentage changes in September of each of these specified years compared with September, 1913. For example, the price of sirloin steak in September, 1913, was 26.3 cents; in September, 1914, 27.2 cents; in September, 1917, 33.3 cents; in September, 1918, 41.7 cents; in September, 1919, 40.9 cents; in September, 1920, 46.8 cents; and in September, 1921, 38.9 cents. As compared with the average price in September, 1913, these figures show the following percentage increases: Three per cent in 1914; 27 per cent in 1917; 59 per cent in

1918; 56 per cent in 1919; 78 per cent in 1920; and 48 per cent in 1921. The cost of the various articles of food, combined, showed an increase of 49 per cent in September, 1921, as compared with September, 1913.

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

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

					our pr	ice Sej	-	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) Sept. 15, of each specified year compared with Sept. 15, 1913.						
		1913	1914	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1914	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921
Sirloin steak Round steak Round steak Round steak Rib roast Plate beef Pork chops Bacon. Ham Lamb Hens Milk (evaporated unsweetened) Butter Dleomargarine Nut margarine Nut margarine Pheese Baread Crisco Eggs, strictly fresh Bread Crisco Begs, strictly fresh Bread Crisco Round Round Crisco Round Rou	do d	8. 9 37. 7 22. 1 16. 1 37. 7 5. 6 3. 3 3. 1 1 8. 7 1. 9	24. 6 20. 9 17. 3 13. 0 23. 7 29. 0 29. 1 19. 7 21. 8 8. 9 37. 7 22. 9 15. 6 36. 8 3. 7 3. 3 3. 7 3. 3 3. 7 3. 3 3. 7 3. 3 3. 3	29, 7 26, 0 21, 9 21, 9 24, 4 49, 9 31, 4 49, 5 27, 6 11, 8 29, 7 44, 8, 1 10, 8 8, 8 2, 9 4, 6 61, 0 30, 5 16, 3 3, 6 14, 8	39. 8 32. 7 22. 4 46. 1 56. 2 51. 9 30. 5 14. 3 30. 5 14. 3 36. 0 33. 6 9. 9 9. 9 50.	39. 5. 63. 2. 10. 17. 3. 6. 7. 9. 1. 14. 0. 25. 1. 19. 4. 16. 5. 12. 4. 3. 6. 5. 4. 9. 17. 1. 19. 2. 19. 2. 16. 0. 11. 0. 70. 7. 48. 8. 28. 0. 19. 4. 38. 4. 38. 4.	43, 1 34, 5 50, 0 54, 5 50, 0 54, 5 60, 4 5, 6 60, 4 1, 3 2, 6 6, 3 4 5, 6 6 1, 7 7 6 8, 6 8, 3 8, 0 1, 0 1, 0 1, 0 1, 0 1, 0 1, 0 1, 0 1	43.0 45.1 44.1 13.5 50.6 629.9 921.3 32.8 8.1 13.5 50.4 9.9 21.3 32.6 6.5 6.6 4.4 4.9 9.1 12.0 7.5 7.4 14.1 11.7 7.7 7.3 69.1 13.8 8.9 13.7 7.3 37.	+ 6 + 4 + 4 + 3 + 4 + 4 + 4 + 1	+ 28 + 31 + 32 + 429 + 34 + 41 + 33 + 452 + 41 + 412 + 4161 + 53 + 53 + 53 + 53 + 53 + 53 + 53 + 5	+ 59 + 72 + 63 + 73 + 74 + 102 + 102 + 102 + 103 + 103 + 103 + 57 + 105 + 105	+ 63 + 55 + 54 + 48 + 48 + 98 + 85 + 76 + 74 + 74 + 137 + 121 + 116 + 126 + 126 + 127 + 127 + 128 + 12	+ 86 + 50 + 102 +	+ 44 + 42 + 64 + 55 + 87 + 77 + 77 + 77 + 77 + 41 + 32 + 41 + 41 + 42 + 44 + 41 + 42 + 44 + 44 + 44 + 44 + 44 + 44 + 45 + 46 + 46 + 46 + 46 + 46 + 46 + 46 + 46

¹ See note 2, p. 38.

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 September, 1921.

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

	Sirloir	steak.	Round	l steak.	Rib	roast.	Chuel	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.
1943 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1920 1921: September	.257 .273 .315 .389 .417	Lbs. 3.9 3.9 3.9 3.7 3.2 2.6 2.4 2.3 2.6	Per lb. \$0, 223 . 236 . 230 . 245 . 290 . 369 . 389 . 395 . 344	Lbs. 4.5 4.2 4.3 4.1 3.4 2.7 2.6 2.5 2.9	Per lb. \$0. 198 . 204 . 201 . 212 . 249 . 307 . 325 . 332 . 286	Lbs. 5.1 4.9 5.0 4.7 4.0 3.3 3.1 3.0 3.5	Per lb. \$0.160 .167 .161 .171 .209 .266 .270 .262 .205	Lbs. 6.3 6.0 6.2 5.8 4.8 3.8 3.7 3.8 4.9	Per lb. \$0. 121 . 126 . 121 . 128 . 157 . 206 . 202 . 183 . 133	Lbs. 8.3 7.9 8.3 7.8 6.4 4.9 5.0 5.5 7.5	Per lb. \$0.210 .220 .203 .227 .319 .390 .423 .423 .376	Lbs. 4.8 4.5 4.9 4.4 3.1 2.6 2.4 2.7
	Bac	eon.	На	m.	La	rd.	He	ns.	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 .514	Lbs. 3.7 3.7 3.8 3.4 2.6 2.1 1.9 1.8 1.9	Per lb. \$0.158 .156 .148 .175 .276 .333 .369 .295 .179	Lbs. 6.3 6.4 6.8 5.7 3.6 3.0 2.7 3.4 5.6	Per lb. \$0,213 .218 .208 .236 .286 .377 .411 .447 .382	Lbs. 4.7 4.6 4.8 4.2 3.5 2.7 2.4 2.2 2.6	Perdoz. \$0. 345 .353 .341 .375 .481 .569 .628 .681 .504	Dozs. 2. 9 2. 8 2. 9 2. 7 2. 1 1. 8 1. 6 1. 5 2. 0	Per lb. \$0.383 .362 .358 .394 .487 .577 .678 .701 .506	Lbs. 2. 6 2. 8 2. 5 2. 1 1. 7 1. 5 1. 4 2. 0
	Che	ese.	Mi	lk.	Bre	ad.	Flo	ur.	Corn	meal.	Ri	ce.
1913. 1914. 1915. 1936. 1917. 1918. 1919. 1920. 1921: September	. 229 . 233 . 258 . 332 . 359 . 426	Lbs. 4.5 4.4 4.3 3.9 3.0 2.8 2.3 2.4 3.1	Per qt. \$0.089 .089 .088 .091 .112 .139 .155 .167 .141	Qts. 11.2 11.4 11.0 9.0 7.2 6.5 6.0 7.1	Per lb. \$0.056 .063 .070 .073 .092 .098 .100 .115 .096	Lbs. 17. 9 15. 9 14. 3 13. 7 10. 9 10. 2 10. 0 8. 7 10. 4	Per lb. \$0.033 .034 .042 .044 .070 .067 .072 .081 .056	Lbs. 30. 3 29. 4 23. 8 22. 7 14. 3 14. 9 13. 9 12. 3 17. 9	Per lb. \$0.030 .032 .033 .034 .058 .068 .064 .065 .044	Lbs. 33.3 31.3 30.3 29.4 17.2 14.7 15.6 15.4 22.7	Per lb. 80. 087 . 088 . 091 . 091 . 104 . 129 . 151 . 174 . 090	Lbs. 11. 5 11. 4 11. 0 11. 0 9. 6 7. 8 6. 6 5. 7 11. 1
	Pota	toes.	Sug	ar.	Cof	fee.	Te	a.				
1913. 1914. 1915. 1916. 1917. 1918. 1919. 1920. 1921: September	Per lb. \$0.017 .018 .015 .027 .043 .032 .038 .063 .040	Lbs. 58. 8 55. 6 66. 7 37. 0 23. 3 31. 3 26. 3 15. 9 25. 0	Per lb. \$0.055 .059 .066 .080 .093 .097 .113 .194 .073	Lbs. 18.2 16.9 15.2 12.5 10.8 10.3 8.8 5.2 13.7	Per lb. \$0.298 .297 .300* .299 .302 .305 .433 .470 .355	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 .691	Lbs. 1.8 1.8 1.8 1.8 1.7 1.5 1.4 1.4				

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.

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 1921.5 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 each year by the average price of that commodity for 1913. 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. January, 1913, to December, 1920, 22 articles have been included in the index, and beginning with January, 1921, 43 articles have been used.4 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).

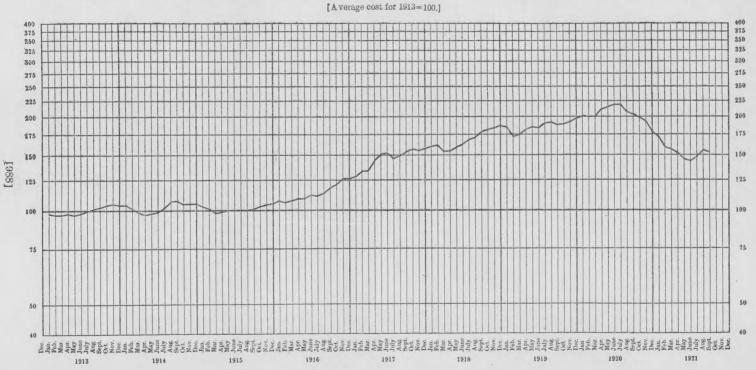
The curve shown in the chart on page 44 pictures more readily to the eye the changes in the cost of the family market basket and the trend in the cost of the food budget than do the index numbers given in the table. The retail cost of the food articles included in the index has decreased since July, 1920, until the curve is brought down in September, 1921, to approximately where is was in September, 1917. The chart has been drawn on the logarithmic scale,6 because the percentages of increase or decrease are more accurately shown than on the arithmetic scale.

⁴ See note 2, p. 38.
⁵ For index numbers of each month, January, 1913, to December, 1920, see Monthly Labor Review for February, 1921, pp. 19-21.
⁶ 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.

TAIL	
PRICES	
HO.	
FOOI	

									[Avera	ge for	year 19	013=10	0.]										
Year and	d month.	Sirloin steak.	Round steak.		Chuck roast.	Pork chops.	Ba- con.	Ham.	Lard.	Hens.	Eggs.	But- ter.	Cheese.	Milk.	Bread.	Flour.	Corn meal.	Rice.	Pota- toes.	Su- gar.	Cof- fee.	Tea.	All articl com bine
Jani Feb Mar App May July Aug Sep Oct Nov Dec 1921: Jani Feb Mar Apr May Jun		80 81 91 100 102 101 108 124 153 164 172 159 160 161 170 171 182 192 185 177 171 156	688 711 744 788 79 89 100 106 103 110 130 165 174 177 166 167 168 179 191 202 196 193 188 178 160 160 160 160 160 161	76 78 81 85 85 94 100 103 101 107 126 155 164 168 159 159 161 169 176 175 168 165 175 168 155 152 157 148 152 154 153 151 148	100 104 101 107 131 166 169 164 158 157 166 174 179 172 170 162 148 148 148 141 140 168 135 149	 744 766 83 922 85 91 100 105 96 108 152 2186 201 178 180 202 194 208 219 238 210 157 171 156 168 177 167 162 163 181	74 777 83 95 91 91 100 102 100 106 152 205 194 186 186 186 186 186 186 186 186 186 186	766 788 822 911 100 102 97 109 142 206 187 188 190 206 215 222 223 222 212 212 186 180 179 181 183 181 182 190	81 80 90 104 88 94 100 99 33 111 175 211 234 192 219 191 185 183 183 162 141 131 124 161 160 160 160 160 175 175 175 175 175 175 175 175 175 175	81 83 89 94 91 93 100 102 97 111 134 177 193 210 215 224 221 211 212 221 214 207 201 201 201 201 201 201 201 201 201 201	84 86 93 98 99 99 100 102 139 165 182 24 199 161 153 155 166 234 250 268 229 97 71 101 122 138	85 86 90 94 48 88 98 98 103 127 151 177 178 194 199 187 175 177 175 177 175 177 175 177 175 171 180 181 162 159 148 151 162 177 178 178 178 178 178 178 178 178 178	100 104 105 117 150 162 193 188 187 194 194 194 189 186 183 184 184 180 176 175 174 176 169 143 133 133	87 90 91 95 96 97 100 99 102 125 156 174 188 182 182 182 182 183 194 194 189 183 173 171 167 162 166 167	100 113 125 130 164 175 196 198 200 200 201 211 213 213 213 211 207 193 189 188 184 177 175 175	95 102 109 108 102 105 100 104 126 211 203 218 245 245 245 245 245 225 226 236 221 200 203 197 194 173 173 179	888 922 944 955 944 1022 1000 105 108 113 192 227 213 227 220 217 217 223 233 233 227 183 173 167 160 153 150 150	100 101 104 105 119 148 210 208 210 2215 214 2210 202 185 163 152 176 101 101 101 101 100 100 100 100 100 10	105 111 112 101 130 135 100 135 159 253 38 224 371 318 353 353 318 355 565 560 606 606 606 124 129 147 1135 147 1135 1147 1159 1159 1159 1159 1159 1159 1159 115	105 108 107 109 117 115 100 108 120 146 169 205 353 324 485 482 243 241 485 485 171 176 176 176 176 176 176 176 176 176	100 101 101 101 101 102 145 165 165 165 165 165 165 165 163 146 123 133 129 126 125 121 121 120		1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

TREND IN THE RETAIL COST OF ALL ARTICLES OF FOOD, COMBINED, FOR THE UNITED STATES, BY MONTHS, JANUARY, 1913, TO SEPTEMBER, 1921.



Retail Prices of Food in 51 Cities on Specified Pates.

AVERAGE retail food prices are shown in Table 5 for 39 cities for September 15, 1913, for September 15, 1920, and for August 15 and September 15, 1921. For 12 other cities prices are shown for the same dates with the exception of September, 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 this table are computed from reports sent monthly to the bureau by retail dealers.

		I	Atlant	a, Ga		Ва	ltim	ore, M	d.	Birr	ningl	nam,	Ala.
Article.	Unit.	Sept.	15—	Aug.		Sept.	15—	Aug.		Sept.	15—	Aug.	Sept
		1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	1921
Sirloin steak Round steak Rib roast Duck roast Plate beef	do do	21. 5 19. 6 16. 0	Cts. 41. 1 38. 9 31. 3 24. 6 17. 7	27.3	33. 1 27. 4 20. 7	23. 0 19. 0 16. 0	Cts. 46, 1 44, 5 35, 0 28, 0 18, 3	39, 8 36, 2 29, 6 21, 1	34.3	28. 1 22. 5 20. 6 16. 3	33. 5 28. 0	35. 0 28. 5	34. 27.
Pork chops Bacon Ham Amb Aens	do	24. 0 33. 1 31. 0 20. 0 20. 5	59. 7 38. 9	42. 8 54. 1	43. 6 52. 1 32. 1	26. 5 32. 0	47. 7 64. 0 39. 8	37. 4 57. 7 35. 5	54. 2 33. 7	35, 0 32, 5 23, 3	62. 4 63. 1 45. 5	48. 4 53. 0 39. 6	46. 53. 38.
Salmon, canned	Quart. 15-16 oz. can. Pound. do	10.0	17.4	17. 5 15. 1 52. 4	14. 8 49. 3	8. 7 38. 6	14.8	12.8 12.8 55.7	12. 0 13. 0 54. 1	38.8	16.7	20. 0 15. 0 52. 4	20. 15. 50.
Nut margarine	do	25. 0 15. 8	28. 8	31. 8 19. 9 19. 7	31. 3 19. 5	22. 5 15. 3		33. 0 18. 0 19. 8	32. 9 17. 5 19. 6	23. 0 15. 3	34. 4	30. 1 18. 5	31 18 24
Bread. Flour Forn meal Corn flakes.	do	3. 4 2. 7	8.3 6.0 12.7	5.7 3.5 11.5	5.6 3.3 11.2	3. 2 2. 5	8.2	3.5	5. 6 3. 6 9. 9	3. 5 2. 5	8.7	6. 2 3. 2 11. 4	6 3 11
ream of Wheat	do	8.6	16. 7 13. 5	21. 8 7. 7 9. 9	21. 5 8. 3 9. 8		29, 2 21, 3 16, 7 10, 9 3, 6	21. 2 8. 8 7. 6	20.6 9.2 7.8		33. 6 23. 5 16. 7 13. 8 5. 0	20. 9 8. 4 9. 1	20
Onions Labbage Beans, baked Corn, canned Peas, canned	No. 2 candodo		7. 5 5. 1 15. 8 20. 1 20. 1	6. 2 14. 0 15. 7	13. 9 15. 9		4. 8 2. 2 14. 9 18. 6 18. 7	5. 5 12. 8 15. 9	4.7 12.8 16.1		5. 6 5. 4 18. 4 19. 9 21. 3	7. 3 16. 3 17. 0	6 16 17
Comatoes, canned Sugar, granulated Cea Coffee	Pounddo	5. 9 60. 0	14. 5 19. 4 95. 4	7.7 89.8	7.5 89.8	5. 2 56. 0	18. 0 70. 4	65. 9	6.6	5. 8 61. 3 28. 8	88.7	7. 6	84
Prunes. Raisins Bananas Oranges.	Dozen		43.8	33. 1 27. 5	30.9		26. 4 31. 7 38. 1 68. 6	28.6	27.5 26.6		30. 0 30. 7 46. 2 66. 1	32. 8 36. 6	32

¹ The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of the cities included in this report; but in this city it is called "sirloin" steak.

OF FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES.

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

1	Boston	, Mass			idgep Conn		В	uffalo	, N. T	Y.	Bu	tte, Mo	ont.	Ch	arlest	on, S	. C.
Sept.	. 15—	Aug.		Sept.			Sept.	. 15—		Sept.	Sept.	Aug.	Sept.	Sept.	15—		Sept.
1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	15, 1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	15, 1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.
Cts. 1 35. 8 35. 6 25. 6 18. 7		35. 8	53. 3 33. 9 24. 0	53. 3 40. 7 30. 9	42. 4 35. 2	34. 3 23. 1	19.8 17.0 15.5	40.0 33.3 26.6	34. 0 28. 3 20. 4	32. 4 27. 7 20. 1	Cts. 38, 4 34, 0 28, 4 22, 7 15, 7	Cts. 32. 7 27. 6 23. 9 17. 1 11. 5	Cts. 30. 2 25. 9 23. 5 16. 8 11. 6	20. 4 20. 4 15. 0	41.3 32.7	36. 8 30. 2 24. 6	33. 6 28. 6 22. 1
25. 0 25. 8 32. 0 20. 5 26. 2	56. 0 50. 1 70. 4 43. 4 52. 2	41. 7 39. 0 60. 2 38. 8 47. 2	59. 6	60. 4 73. 4 40. 8	48. 7 64. 8 35. 7	47. 6 61. 5 32. 5	23, 3 28, 0	31.9	34. 2 50. 9 28. 7	33. 8	49. 1 64. 0 65. 0 33. 4 43. 3	35. 5 52. 7 58. 5 30. 7 37. 1	35. 7 52. 3 55. 8 29. 7 37. 8	28. 8 22. 5	54.0	42. 0 48. 3 38. 2	39. 9 48. 8 38. 2
8. 9 37. 4	37. 2 18. 5 15. 8 68. 8 44. 1		34. 4 15. 5 13. 9 51. 9 30. 1	18. 0 15. 4 66. 7	15. 0 13. 4 51. 5	15. 0 13. 4 50. 1	8, 0 35, 8	14.7	14. 0 12. 6 51. 6	14. 0 12. 4 50. 2	44. 4 15. 8 16. 7 70. 1 40. 0	41. 1 14. 3 13. 5 47. 8 32. 5	13. 5 49. 3	12.0	37. 1 23. 7 15. 5 67. 5 44. 2	49.2	12.9 48.1
22. 4 15. 8	36, 5 41, 1 28, 2 32, 3 95, 3	32. 4 18. 5 21. 4	21.7	41. 1 26. 0 31. 4	32. 4 17. 8	33. 2 16. 9 19. 9	19.5	30. 5	30. 8 17. 6 19. 6	31. 4 17. 0	39. 7 42. 8 32. 6 42. 8 76. 1	31. 6 36. 3 21. 0 25. 9 52. 5	32. 3 37. 0 21. 6 25. 9 52. 9	20. 5	33. 3	29. 2 19. 3 20. 3	29. 6 19. 8 20. 1
5. 9 3. 7 3. 5	11. 4 8. 9 7. 7 10. 3 14. 4		9. 9 6. 6 5. 4 9. 0 11. 5	8. 3 8. 8 11. 2	9.7	7. 6 9. 8	3.0 2.6	11. 4 7. 7 6. 7 9. 8 13. 1	9. 0 5. 6 4. 2 8. 7 10. 7	8. 7 5. 3 4. 1 8. 4 10. 6	14. 3 8. 9 7. 8 10. 2 15. 3	8.6		6. 4 3. 8 2. 6	13. 6 9. 0 5. 6 11. 3 14. 9	6. 2 3. 0 10. 9	6. 2 3. 0 10. 9
9.4	30. 3 26. 0 19. 0 10. 8 3. 3	24. 6 9. 9 7. 8	10.0	25. 2 17. 7 11. 9	29. 0 25. 0 9. 2 8. 4 3. 9	24. 6 9. 1 8. 7	9.3	28. 1 23. 0 17. 5 11. 3 2. 9	22. 5 8. 8 7. 7	22. 2 8. 8 7. 9	33. 5 22. 4 18. 6 11. 9 2. 9	33.9 21.7 9.3 9.0 3.2	33, 8 22, 6 9, 4 9, 0 2, 5	5.5	30. 3 23. 0 13. 9 14. 5 4. 1	21.0 5.9	21. 2 6. 0 9. 6
	5. 2 4. 7 18. 4 21. 4 22. 1	6. 2 15. 9 19. 2	5. 8 15. 6 19. 2	3. 8 15. 3 21. 7	5. 7 12. 4 19. 2	19.2		4. 6 2. 0 14. 3 17. 9 17. 7	4.6 11.4 15.9	4. 2 11. 4 16. 0	4. 8 22. 2 18. 6	6. 0 20. 0 17. 4	5. 1 20. 0 17. 6		5. 3 5. 0 14. 8 19. 1 21. 8	8, 2 11, 9 14, 7	11.7 14.6
5. 6 58. 6 33. 0	69.9	7. 2 66. 0	12. 9 6. 9 66. 5 41. 3	17. 8 65. 6		7.0 60.1	5. 6 45. 0	67.6	7. 0 63. 0	6. 9 62. 6	77.5	76. 2	9.5	5. 4 50. 0	14. 7 20. 5 79. 4 45. 8	10. 3 7. 0 74. 7 32. 4	6.6
	29. 0 29. 7 56. 9 75. 6	29.3 47.3	28.4	29. 0 48. 5	37. 2	29.7		27. 2 29. 2 49. 8 73. 1	29. 6 46. 8	27. 9 43. 9	31.4	32.3 2 14.2	32. 0 3 12. 8		29. 9 29. 9 48. 6 68. 0	31. 1 38. 9	28. 5 38. 6

² Per pound.

TABLE 5.-AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES

		(Chica	go, Ill		Cin	cinna	ti, Ol	nio.	Cle	velan	d, Ol	nio.
Article.	Unit.	Sept.	15—	Aug.	Sept.	Sept.	15—		Sept.	Sept	15—		Sept.
		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	do do	21. 4 20. 3 15. 9		38. 7 31. 9 30. 5 20. 7	38. 6 31. 6 30. 1 20. 4		Cts. 40. 3 37. 7 32. 2 23. 3 19. 0	34. 7 32. 0 28. 8 18. 7	33.9 31.0 27.9	25. 4 22. 9 18. 9 16. 9	47. 8 42. 5 32. 3	32. 0 25. 6 19. 8	35. 5 29. 9 25. 5 19. 4
Pork chops	do	32.6 32.2 19.9	60. 1 62. 3 40. 4	52.3 53.6 33.7	50. 8 51. 1 33. 5	26.0 29.8	49.0 62.3 32.9	36. 0 53. 8 31. 1	35. 1 52. 6 30. 4	29.6 37.3	56. 2 63. 8 38. 2	44, 3 55, 0 32, 9	44. 2 53. 1 31. 0
Salmon, canned Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated Britter Oleomargarine	do	8, 0	39, 3 16, 0 15, 0 63, 4 37, 3	14. 0 12. 6 48. 8	12.3	8.0	36. 8 15. 0 15. 1 67. 1 38. 3	13.0	12.9 49.8	8.0	16. 6 68. 4	13.6	13. 0 12. 8 52. 6
Nut margarine Cheese Lard Crisco Eggs, strictly fresh	do	25. 7	97 (36.1	17. 2	21.0	25. 5 32, €	35, 6 15, 9 20, 3	34. 7 15. 8 20. 6	24. 0 16. 4	29.6 33.8	30. 7 18. 5 20. 7	31.6 18.5 21.1
Bread. Flour. Corn meal. Rolled oats. Corn flakes.	do	2.9	7.6 7.1 10.9	5.4 6.1 9.6	5.1 6.3 9.2	3.3	8. 8 5. 8 11. 4	5.8	5.7 3.4 9.9	3.2	8.3 6.6 12.3	5. 9 4. 1	5.7
Cream of Wheat Macaroni Rice Beans, navy Potatoes	do	9.0	16.8	18.7 9.0 7.0	18.6 9.2 7.5	8.8	19. 1 17. 1 10. 6	6.6	19.6 9.6 7.1		23. 2 19. 1 11. 3	21. 3 8. 4 6. 9	3 21.6 4 8.9 7.3
Onions	No. 2 can		3.4 16.6 17.	6. 6. 6 6 13. 9 7 15.	5. 3 9 13. 4 1 14. 8		3.6 15.6 18.6	7. 2 6 12. 9 15. 2	6. 6 12. 6 14. 9		3. 9 16. 2 20. 4	5. 9	9 5. 0 13. 3 17.
Tomatoes, canned Sugar, granulated Tea Coffee	do	55. 0	73.	1 64.	6.7	5.6		7.8	6.8	5. 6	76. 9	7.	64.
Prunes	dod		29. 29. 44. 69.	2 19. 7 30. 0 37. 0 49.	5 19.7 2 29.5 9 38.4 5 49.1		31. 8 33. 8 50. 8 66. 8	3 29.8	38.6		31. 7		0 27. 2 42.

 $^{^1}$ The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of the cities included in this report, but in this city it is called "rump" steak.

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

Colur	nbus,	Ohio.	I	allas	, Tex.		I	enve	r, Col	0.	D	etroit	, Mie	h.	F	all Riv	ver, M	lass.
	Aug.		Sept.	15—	Aug.		Sept.	15—		Sept.	Sept.	. 15—	Aug.		Sept	. 15—	Aug.	Sept
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. 42. 2 38. 9 32. 2 27. 9 19. 7	31.6 27.3 22.3	30. 8 28. 6 22. 1	21.3	Cts. 39. 6 37. 5 32. 5 27. 3 22. 4	33.8 28.8 22.8	33.2 27.8 23.2	21.4	Cts. 40. 0 35. 6 29. 5 23. 8 15. 3	29.7 23.7 17.7	27.9 23.7 17.6	21.0 20.0 15.0	40. 4 35. 2 26. 5	Cts. 38. 1 32. 1 28. 7 19. 8 12. 0	Cts. 37. 1 30. 1 27. 7 19. 9 11. 9		58. 6 38. 5	44. 8 29. 5	45. 29. 21.
45. 1 51. 7 60. 3 29. 3 38. 0	54. 2 36. 3	51.3 35.0	38.3 32.5 23.3		48. 8 55. 8 37. 0	48.6 54.2 36.0	29.0 33.3 16.0	65.4	48.7 58.5 32.0	48.0 57.2 31.8	24.7 27.0 16.0	54.7 65.2 39.4	34.0	54. 9 32. 2	25.7 33.0 19.2	52. 9 63. 6 39. 9	54. 4 36. 3	41, 53. 35.
36.7 15.0 15.0 67.2 40.3	13. 0 14. 4 50. 2	12.0 14.2 49.9	38.3	16.4	15.0 14.8 46.8	15.0 14.8	38.6	40.6 12.8 14.8 64.4 43.1	10.8 12.9	10.8 13.0 46.4	8. 0 35. 9	15.8		13.0 13.0		16.6	13.0 14.9	13. 15. 49.
34. 9 40. 0 25. 6 32. 3 61. 2	30. 4 15. 8 20. 9	30.6 15.5 20.9	20.0 16.5	37. 4 49. 2 29. 0 30. 6 62. 0	33.3 21.7 19.8	33.4 21.7 19.9	26. 1 16. 5	35.8 43.5 29.9 34.1 67.0	35. 1 18. 9 22. 4	19.1 22.4	20.7 16.9	31.2	17.9 20.3	33.3 18.0	23. 2 15. 3	26.8 34.4	17.5 21.7	32. 17. 21.
12. 1 8. 1 6. 5 12. 1 14. 7	3.6	5.4 3.7 11.0	3, 2	8.0	5. 1 4. 0 11. 7	11.6	2.6	6.7	3.9	4. 0 3. 4 10. 0	3.1	8.2	4.9 10.8	5.0	3.4	8.8	6. 1 7. 6 11. 0	5. 7. 10.
29. 8 21. 6 17. 6 10. 4 4. 6	9.7 6.8	21.2 10.1 7.2	9.3	11.8	21.8 8.9 9.1	9.0 9.2	8.6	13.1	21. 1 9. 0 8. 8	21.5 9.2 8.9	8.4	10.5	19.0 7.7 6.3	19.4 7.8 6.7	10.0	11.5	24.9 9.4 7.8	25. 9. 7.
5. 6 2. 8 16. 3 15. 9 16. 8	7. 6 3 14. 3 13. 6	7.7 14.0 13.8		6. 8 6. 3 19. 0 20. 9 24. 0	6. 8 16. 4 18. 0	6. 1 16. 4 17. 9		4. 9 2. 2 17. 9 18. 6 19. 5	3. 9 16. 4 15. 2	2.9		5. 0 2. 7 15. 8 20. 0 19. 0	7.0 12.2 15.3	4.8 12.0 15.4		5. 6 2. 9 16. 8 19. 5 20. 0	5.3 14.3 16.3	6. 13. 15.
14. 6 17. 4 87. 6 44. 8	7.3	7.3	5.9	88.0	86.9	7.7 87.6	5.9	74.5	8. 8	7.9	5.7	68.4	63. 3	6. 9	5.7	60.0	7.4 57.8	57.
30. 9 30. 3 52. 7 65. 4	3 28.9 7 37.3	27.4 37.5		27. 8 28. 4 46. 7 63. 2	32.9	28.3		29. 9 29. 6 55. 6 65. 7	31.1	29.8		29. 1 28. 9 42. 2 . 65. 5	29.3 33.0	28. 2 33. 3		26. 7 26. 4 47. 4 70. 6	29.4	29.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES

		Hou	ston,	Γex.	Ind	ianar	olis I	nd.	Jac	ksonv	ville, I	Fla.
Article.	Unit.		Aug.	Sept.	Sept.	15—	Aug.	Sept.	Sept.	15—	Aug.	Sept.
		15, 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.	do do	Cts. 36. 7 35. 3 30. 4 26. 8 20. 9	25. 5 21. 8	24. 8 21. 5	25. 2 17. 8 16. 3	27.0	26. 1 21. 0	35.2 25.7	21. 5 22. 5 15. 0	38. 1 30. 2 24. 2	30. 8 25. 4 18. 8	35. 4 30. 7 26. 0 18. 5
Pork chops	do do	45. 4 63. 0 57. 5 40. 8 42. 5	52. 2 52. 7 34. 0	51. 6 52. 7 33. 0	30. 8 31. 7 20. 7	54. 6 63. 0 36. 6	42.6 56.2 30.6	41. 2 53. 9 33. 8	30.3	53. 1 58. 9 36. 7	38.0	39. 8 52. 1 36. 9
Salmon, canned Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated Butter Oleomargarine.	Pound	10. 2	16. 2 13. 9 46. 0	15. 8 13. 9 47. 2	8.0	32. 5 14. 0 16. 3 66. 5 41. 2	12. 0 13. 4 50. 6	12.0 13.4 47.7	39.8	33.7 25.0 15.2 70.2 42.9	13. 7 51. 2	20.0 13.1 50.
Nut margarine Cheese. Lard Crisco Eggs, strictly fresh.	do	38. 3 27. 8 32. 1	30. 4 20. 3 19. 7	29. 8 19. 8 21. 3	21.3	26.3 31.7	34. 2 15. 3 21. 1	33. 2 15. 0 20. 9	22. 5 15. 5		31. 3 19. 9 20. 8	30. 9 20. 8 21.
Bread Flour Corn meal Rolled oats Corn flakes	do	8. 5 5. 9 12. 9	5. 6 3. 8 10. 6	5. 5 3. 9 10. 6	3.2	8.0	5.3 3.2 9.3	5. 2 3. 4 9. 4	3.8	8.9	6. 5 3. 4 11. 0	6. 3. 11.
Cream of Wheat	do	14.4	20.4 6.9 8.5	20. 2 7. 8 8. 8		10.5	20.0 9.1 7.1	20.1 9.4 7.5	6.6	13.3	21. 0 7. 6 9. 0	20. 8. 9.
Onions Cabbage. Beans, baked Corn, canned Peas, canned	No. 2 can	5. 1	7. 1 13. 1 12. 9	6. 1 13. 5 13. 3		5. 9 3. 9 16. 5 17. 0 16. 8	7.7 13.3 14.3	6. 4 14. 0 14. 6		6. 7 5. 8 16. 8 19. 9 22. 2	7. 8 13. 8 17. 0	6. 8 13. 15.
Tomatoes, canned	Pounddo	18.6	7.4	7.1	6.0	88.1	7.6 82.2	7.5	5. 9	89.7	7.6	7. 2 86.
Prunes . Raisins . Bananas . Oranges .	Dozen	28.6	32. 5	28. 8		30. 0 33. 5 38. 8 72. 3	32.6	31.9		27. 6 31. 2 55. 0 55. 0	31.	31. 7 28.

 $^{^1}$ The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of the cities included in this report, but in this city it is called "sirloin" steak.

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

Ka	nsas (City,	Mo.	Lit	tle R	ock, A	Ark.	Los	s Ang	eles, C	alif.	L	ouisv	ille, Is	Cy.	Mar	chest	er, N	. н.
Sept	. 15—	Aug.		Sept	. 15—		Sept.	Sept	. 15—	Aug.	Sept.	Sept	. 15—	Aug.		Sept.	15—		Sept.
1913	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. 24. 7 22. 3 17. 7 15. 4 12. 1	Cts. 43. 0 38. 1 29. 4 22. 4 16. 3	33. 8 27. 4 18. 5	32. 6 26. 0 18. 3	Cts. 25. 0 20. 0 20. 0 17. 5 13. 0	Cts. 38. 9 37. 3 32. 5 26. 0 20. 1	Cts. 35. 3: 32. 2 28. 1 20. 2 14. 4	33. 3 30. 6 26. 6	Cts. 24. 0 21. 0 19. 6 15. 8 12. 1	Cts. 38. 2 32. 9 31. 6 22. 1 16. 9	29.7 28.6 16.9	28.6 28.3 17.2	23. 0 20. 0 18. 2 15. 9	Cts. 37. 0 35. 1 28. 2 23. 9 20. 3	31. 1 24. 5 19. 9	29.9 24.5	21.0	60.1	157. 2 49. 7 27. 4	48.1 28.1 22.9
22. 8 31. 3 30. 3 18. 3 16. 8		49.8 54.2 31.7	47. 6 52. 6 30. 2	21, 5 36, 7 30, 0 20, 0 20, 0	47. 1 58. 3 62. 6 41. 0 37. 3	35. 0 48. 5 55. 0 35. 6 30. 0	48. 1 52. 3 35. 0	25. 4 33. 1 35. 8 18. 8 26. 2	35.0	55.6 64.4 29.3	54.3 61.3 28.6	21. 6 29. 5 29. 0 17. 8 21. 8	48. 3 52. 8 59. 6 32. 5 42. 2	40. 5 50. 4 31. 0	40.6 49.1	24. 0 29. 5 21. S	49. 8 64. 4 39. 3	37. 6 52. 2 36. 9	36.7 51.2 33.0
9.3	37.3 16.0 15.9 66.5 41.3	14. 7 14. 4 49. 6	14.4	42.5	37.3 20.0 16.5 67.7 43.0	14.5 49.6	13.0 14.3 49.1	10.0	18.0 14.1	54.6	14.3 11.9 56.1	39.6	16. 0 16. 3	53.0	11. 0 13. 9 51. 2	8.0	17.4	15. 0 14. 6 58. 1	15. 0 14. 3 56.
21. 8 16. 4 28. 8	35. 0 41. 8 30. 2 36. 1 60. 9	34. 8 18. 8 22. 9	34. 3 18. 9 23. 1	23. 3 16. 5	31.9	18.8 21.5	32.9 20.5 21.9	19.5 17.9	29. 9 31. 8	37.6 17.9 21.7	37.7 17.9 21.9	22. 5 16. 3	26. 4 33. 9	30.6 16.3 21.9	29.7 16.3 21.7	21. 5	27. 5 34. 9	31. 8 18. 7 21. 4	33.3 17.4 21.
6.0 3.0 2.8		5. 2 5. 0 10. 7	5. 2 5. 2 5. 2 7 10. 2	3.6		9. 5 5. 5 3. 1 11. 3 12. 9	5.6 2.9 11.2	3.5	8.1	5. 6 5. 2 10. 6	5. 7 5. 2 10. 5	3.5	10. 4 7. 8 5. 3 11. 5 14. 3	5. 5 2. 7 10. 0	5. 4 2. 6 9. 7	3. 4 3. 5	8.8	6. 3 5. 6 10. 6	6. 5. 10.
8.7	30.7 23.5 18.3 12.5 4.2	22. 9 8. 8 8. 4	22.6 8.6 8.6	8.3	31. 2 22. 1 16. 9 12. 0 4. 7	21. 7 7. 6	21. 7. 9 8. 3	7.7	9.9	9.5 8.0	18.4 9.5 8.2	8.3	11.3	20. 2 8. 5 6. 5	19.7 8.7 6.7	8.8	11.6	25. 8. 8. 7. 9	25. 5 8. 7.
	5. 6 4. 2 17. 2 15. 7 17. 1	6. 1 14. 1 13. 6	5.0 7 14.3 6 14.0	8	5. 9 5. 0 15. 8 17. 6 18. 5	7. 2 13. 9 15. 3	5. 9 14. 1 15. 9		4. 4 4. 6 18. 5 18. 7 19. 7	3.9 16.1 17.9	4. 0 15. 8 17. 6		3. 8 3. 8 15. 6 17. 8 17. 8	8. 2 12. 8 16. 0	7. 1 3 13. 0 15. 6		20. 5	6.6	5. 3 16. 2 19.
5. 9 54. 0 27. 8	84.6	7.0	5 78.	8 5.7 1 50. 0 5 30. 8	17.6 93.3	89.7	8.0	5. 7 5. 7 54. 5 1 36. 3	17.0	69.4	7. 8 65. 9	5. 7 9 65. 0 2 27. 5	86.6	7. 5	7. 2	5.6	20. 1	7. 59.	4 58.
	29. 34. 6 53. 6 73. 3	31.	6 30. 5 46.	7	27. 5 27. 5 413. 7 67. 2	34.1	33.	5			27.0)	43.	37.	28.1 7 36.8	8		30.	

fer pound.

² No. 2½ can.

⁸ No. 3 can.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES

		Me	mphi	s, Te	nn.	Mil	wauk	ee, W	is.	Min	neap	olis, N	linn
Article.	Unit.	Sept.	. 15—		Sept.	Sept.	15—		Sept.	Sept.	15—	Aug.	Sept
		1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 192
Sirloin steak Round steak Rib roast Duch roast Plate beef	do		37. 4 31. 8 25. 1	31. 7 28. 8 24. 3 17. 1	30. 5 27. 9 25. 0 17. 2	21.6 19.2 16.4	28.5	28. 0 23. 3	38. 7 34. 5 28. 1 23. 4	21.3 19.3 17.0	30. 1 24. 1	29. 6 25. 2 19. 2	28. 25. 18.
Pork chopsBaconHam LambHens	do do	22. 5 31. 0 30. 0 20. 6 19. 5	58.6 61.1 44.5	42.7 50.3 32.9	42. 9 49. 3 32. 8	28.6 29.0 20.5	57. 8 58. 5 39. 8	46. 0 51. 9 36. 8	45. 7 50. 9 34. 7	27.7 32.7 14.8	57. 9 62. 1 32. 6	47. 5 55. 3	46. 53. 28.
Salmon, canned	Quart 15–16 oz. can. Pound	30.8	40. 1 20. 0 16. 6 66. 5 42. 0	17.3 14.6 48.1	17.3 14.8 47.3		44. 0 13. 0 16. 3 64. 4 38. 5	10.0 13.5 49.2	9.0 13.5 47.6	7.7	47. 6 14. 0 16. 6 61. 6 41. 4	11. 0 14. 6 45. 1	11. 14. 44.
Nut margarine	do	20.8	26.6	28.3 16.7 19.0	28. 9 16. 9 19. 7	21.3 15.8	28. 1 33. 1	30. 0 18. 5 20. 4	29. 7 18. 5 21. 4	20. 8 15. 7	27.5 32.9	29. 9 17. 3 21. 8	30. 16. 22.
Bread	do	3. 5 2. 2	8. 4 5. 3	5. 7 2. 9 10. 6	5.7 2.7 10.8	3.1	8.1	5.6 4.6 7.4	4.9	3.0	7.7	9.6 5.6 4.7 8.8 12.3	5. 4. 8.
Cream of Wheat	do	7.5	29. 7 21. 7 15. 4 12. 8 4. 3	17.1 6.6 7.3	7. 2 7. 8		20. 5 18. 5 10. 8	18. 5 9. 6 7. 0	18. 2 9. 3 7. 5	8.6	31. 2 18. 7 19. 1 11. 7 3. 1	17.7	8.
Onions	do		4.7 3.8 17.3 18.6 19.3	5. 8 14. 9 14. 5	5. 2 14. 5 14. 6			7.3 12.5 15.2	4.7 12.0 15.4		6. 2 3. 3 18. 1 17. 4 18. 2	4. 3 16. 0 13. 5	15. 14.
Comatoes, canned	Pounddo.	5. 9 63. 8 27. 5	14.6 18.6 96.3 46.4	7. 4 86. 8	7. 3 87. 1	5. 5	72. 2	7.1 67.4	7. 0 66. 9	5. 8 45. 0 . 30. 8	69.3	7.7 64.3	7. 64.
Prunes	Dozen		46. 4	20. 2 34. 3 34. 4 51. 9	33. 9		28. 6 31. 2 314. 8 70. 7	30.2	18. 5 30. 6 310. 1 52. 9		316.1	30.6	29. 311.

1 Whole.

No. 3 can.

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

Mo	bile, A	Ala.	N	ewar	k, N.	J.	New	Hav	en, C	onn.	Nev	v Orle	eans,	La.	Ne	w Yo	rk, N.	Y.
	Aug.	Sept.	Sept.	. 15—		Sept.	Sept.	15—		Sept.	Sept.	15—	Aug.		Sept.	. 15—	Aug.	Sept
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. 35. 8 36. 1 30. 3 26. 7 21. 2	33. 0 27. 8 22. 0	32. 2 26. 6 21. 7	28.0	Cts. 54. 4 54. 2 42. 1 29. 7 18. 5	33. 9 22. 3	41, 4 33, 3 22, 9	29.6 24.2 20.0	55. 5 44. 7	Cts. 48, 5 41, 2 34, 5 25, 4 16, 3	48. 1 40. 6 34. 2 25. 2	17.5 14.3	30.8	Cts. 30.9 28.3 27.7 19.1 15.6	Cts. 30. 8 28. 1 27. 0 18. 7 15. 0	25. 7. 21. 5. 16. 1	51. 2 42. 4 30. 5		41. 36.
55. 0 60. 5 60. 3 36. 7 46. 4	46. 9 50. 0 33. 9	44.6 49.1 32.8	26. 2 122. 0 20. 8	47. 7 142. 4 40. 5	38. 1 135. 4 36. 0	38. 1 133. 1	24. 0 29. 3 32. 8 20. 5 24. 2	57. 0 70. 0 44. 7	36. 0	44. 3 57. 0 33. 6	32.1 28.8	56. 9 57. 5 43. 7	39. 2 47. 2 52. 9 36. 7 37. 9	38. 9 46. 7 52. 5 36. 5 38. 0	26. 2 30. 0 15. 3	52. 5 64. 4 33. 0	57. 1 33. 7	40. 56. 32.
39, 4 23, 5 18, 1 71, 5 42, 8	16. 5 13. 8 52. 9	16. 5 13. 8 52. 3	9.0	39. 2 18. 8 15. 0 68. 6 41. 1	16. 5 11. 8	16. 5 11. 9 52. 3	35. 2	41. 7 17. 0 15. 5 66. 8 42. 6	12.9 49.9	15. 0 13. 2 49. 8	9. 5	15. 4	16. 5 13. 0 50. 2	16. 5	9.0	15.1	15. 0 12. 2 53. 3	15. 11. 51.
40, 6 40, 9 28, 5 35, 6 68, 3	31. 3 18. 3 20. 4	19. 0 21. 4	24. 8 16. 6	31.0	17. 4 19. 3	34. 9 17. 3 19. 6	22. 0 15. 6		32. 4 17. 5 19. 2	32.0	21. 4 15. 1	36. 0 39. 2 26. 0 33. 3 63. 9	18. 0 20. 5	17.7 20.4	19. 6 16. 3	28. 1 31. 0	33. 8 18. 8 20. 2	33. 18. 20.
11. 0 9. 0 6. 0 13. 8 14. 9	5. 4 3. 3 10. 5	3.1	3. 6	8.8	5. 8 6. 4 8. 6	5. 7 6. 4 8. 6	3. 2	8.5	5. 9 6. 3 10. 3	5. 6 6. 5 10. 2	3.8	10. 5 8. 7 5. 5 11. 7 14. 4	8. 2 6. 2 3. 2 9. 5 11. 1	8. 1 6. 0 3. 2 9. 6 11. 1	3. 2	9.0	6.3 8.4	5. 6. 8.
30. 8 21. 3 14. 5 13. 6 5. 5	19. 4 7. 8 8. 0	19. 4	9. 0	11.7	21. 8 8. 1 7. 7	21. 8 8. 6 7. 9	9, 3	11.5	21. 4 8. 9 7. 5	21.7 9.2 7.6	7. 4	29. 9 11. 6 13. 4 10. 4 4. 9	29. 4 9. 9 7. 6 7. 2 5. 3	7.8	8.0	12.2	22. 2 8. 5 8. 6	22. 8. 8.
5. 6 4. 4 16. 7 19. 1 19. 7		5. 0 14. 0 15. 9		5. 5 3. 6 14. 4 18. 5 19. 1	5. 7 11. 6 15. 8	6. 1 11. 9 15. 8		5. 8 3. 5 16. 9 21. 7 22. 8	5. 7 14. 4 19. 2	5. 9 13. 6 19. 1		4. 9 3. 3 16. 9 16. 1 17. 3	14. 0 13. 3	4.7 13.8 13.4		5, 3 2, 7 15, 1 18, 2 18, 5	5. 4 12. 9 15. 0	5. 13. 14.
15. 0 19. 7 81. 3 43. 6	7. 9 75. 3	7. 6 75. 6	5. 4 53. 8	54.6	6. 9 48. 8	6.7 49.1	5. 5 55. 0	18.8 63.7	7. 2 53. 5	54.7	5. 4 62. 1	74.0	7.0	6.8	5. 1 43. 3	58. 4	6. 9 52. 9	6. 51.
29. 4 29. 7 32. 2 71. 7	30.7 27.0	30. 5		27. 6 29. 5 52. 9 78. 6	29.4	28. 5 39. 2		27. 7 28. 9 44. 0 70. 3	28. 2 37. 1	28.1		27. 7 28. 5 25. 0 48.3	20.0	29. 5 20. 0		27. 2 29. 9 46. 3 77. 6	29. 0 41. 7	27.

³ Per pound,

TABLE 5 .- AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES

		No	rfolk,	Va.	(maha	, Nebr		Ре	eoria, I	11.
Article.	Unit.	Sept.	Aug.	Sept.	Sept.	. 15—	Aug. 15,	Sept.	Sept.	Aug. 15,	Septa
		1920.	1921.	1921.	1913	1920	1921.	1921.	1920.	1921.	1921.
Sirloin steak Round steak Rib roast Chuck roast Plate beef	do do	Cts. 51. 6 46. 6 40. 3 29. 7 19. 0	Cts. 42.6 36.5 34.4 20.6 13.8	35.5 33.2 20.8	Cts. 25.6 22.8 19.1 16.7 11.4	Cts. 45.6 43.1 30.9 25.7 16.4	Cts. 36.6 33.6 26.4 20.5 10.8	Cts. 37. 0 32. 8 26. 5 20. 7 11. 1	38, 3	Cts. 33. 2 33. 1 24. 7 20. 8 13. 7	24. 1 19. 6
Pork chopsBacon. Ham Lamb. Hens.	dododododododo	47. 4 54. 1 53. 3 45. 0 47. 5	34. 4 41. 6 49. 7 38. 2 38. 8	40. 9 48. 0 38. 3	17.5	59.7 65.0 39.5	32.7	36. 8 52. 1 56. 3 31. 1 32. 2	55.9 60.3 36.0		34.4
Salmon, canned Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated Butter Oleomargarine	Quart. 15–16 oz. can. Pounddo	34.6 21.3 15.4 72.4 43.8	.28. 0 21. 0 13. 3 53. 9 30. 3	21. 0 13. 0 53. 2	8. 2 36. 6	17.1	12.0 14.2	14. 2 46. 2	16.3 62.7	47.7	11.7 14.4 46.3
Nut margarine	do	35.5		29. 4 18. 4 20. 1	17.8	31.1 36.5	27. 7 31. 8 19. 8 21. 5 35. 9	19.9 22.2	39. 1 28. 6 33. 6	32.7 18.0 22.3	32.8 18.2 22.3
Bread Flour Corn meal. Rolled oats. Corn flakes.	do	11. 5 8. 4 5. 9 11. 6 14. 6	3.4 10.0	5.7 3.4 9.6	2.8 2.5	7.8	4.4 10.8	4.8 4.2 10.6	8.6 6.5 12.7	5. 8 4. 1 10. 9	5. 4. 11. 11. 1
Cream of Wheat	dodo	19.6	19.7 10.2 8.3	19.7 9.9 8.7		12.2	8.1 7.6	20. 9 8. 5 8. 0	20.9 19.1 11.1	20. 2 8. 7 7. 3	20.
Onions. Cabbage. Beans, baked Corn, canned. Peas, canned.	dododododododododo	5.7 4.6 14.0 21.4 22.5	6.0 10.7 15.8	5.3 10.8 15.4		2.5	5.4 16.9 14.5	5. 2 17. 0 14. 6	4.6 17.2 17.2	5.8 13.7 14.7	5. 14. 14.
Tomatoes, canned Sugar, granulated Tea Coffee	Pound	14.4	7.1 80.0	6.8	6.1	81.8	7.8	7.3	18.0	7.7 63.8	7. 63.
Prunes Raisins Bananas Oranges	Dozen	27. (30.7	28.7		31.7	32.6	31.6	29.4	32.6	32.

 $^{^{\}rm 1}$ The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of the cities included in this report, but in this city it is called "sirloin" steak.

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

Ph	iladel	phia,	Pa.	Pi	ttsbu	rgh, I	Pa.	Port	land,	Me.	Po	ortlan	d, Or	eg.	Pi	ovide	nce, R	. I.
Sept	. 15—	Aug. 15,	Sept.	Sept	. 15—		Sept.				Sept	. 15—		Sept.	Sept	. 15—	Aug.	Sept.
1913	1920	1921.	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. 131.7 27.1 22.3 18.2 12.5	42. 2 32. 0	149.7 41.7 34.5 20.9	39.6 33.7 20.5	24.7 22.2 17.5	Cts. 53. 5 48. 2 39. 4 30. 3 18. 0	37.5 31.9 22.0	35.8 31.8 21.5	57.6 35.4 27.9	48.4 29.3	158.8 46.1 28.7 19.1	21. 4 19. 5 16. 9	32.9 31.2 29.9 22.0	24.8	26. 1 24. 7 16. 9	31. 6 24. 2 18. 8	47.1	Cts. 1 66. 1 50. 3 37. 1 29. 3 19. 8	49. 6 36. 4 27. 9
23. 2 28. 2 32. 6 19. 7 22, 9	50.3 67.6 45.1	39.6 58.9 38.6	57. 8 35. 8	30. 4 31. 6 20. 0		37.0	46. 2 55. 9 36. 0	50. 9 65. 8 41. 1	41. 2 55. 1 37. 9	40. 1 54. 7 33. 6	31. 5 32. 5 16. 4	60.8 61.3 34.6	27.5	48. 2 51. 4 27. 8	22. 2 34. 3 18. 0	50. 5 70. 9 45. 8	43. 0 37. 9 60. 3 40. 1 47. 9	37. 3 59. 6 35. 4
8. 0 42. 5	15.8	11.0 13.6 57.4	13. 5 57. 4	8.6	39. 9 16. 0 15. 5 69. 3 39. 4	14.0 12.7 53.4	12.6	17.0 16.5 73.4	14.3 56.8	15. 0 14. 3 55. 4	42.0	15.0	42.3 13.0 12.4 48.7 28.0	12.9 12.7 53.2	38. 2	16.1	38.6 15.6 14.1 53.7 31.8	37. 3 15. 6 14. 6 51. 9 30. 4
25. 0 15. 9 39. 7	36. 8 41. 9 26. 9 30. 8 72. 2	35.6 17.3 19.7	27. 8 35. 4 16. 5 19. 8 52. 6	15.7	35. 5 42. 0 27. 3 31. 7 67. 6	33.9 16.5 20.0	34, 2 16, 6 19, 9	42.3 26.4	33.8 17.6 22.2	34. 7 17. 4			29.8 33.7 21.0 25.0 41.9	20.1 24.0	22.0 15.7	27. 2 33. 0	27.7 31.9 17.5 22.0 64.0	17.3 21.7
4.8 3.2 2.7	10.6 8.4 6.1 10.4 12.8	8.8 6.1 4.4 9.1 11.0	8.8 5.9 4.5 8.9 10.8	5. 5 3. 2 2. 8	11.8 8.2 7.9 11.6 14.0		9. 4 5. 6 4. 3 10. 2 11. 4	12. 0 8. 5 7. 3 9. 6 15. 2	5.9 4.7 8.0				9.5 4.9 4.7 9.6 13.4	9. 5 4. 8 4. 7 9. 5 13. 2	3.5		10.6 6.5 4.4 10.6 11.7	6. 3
9.8	28.7 22.3 18.0 11.1 3.9		28.3 21.4 9.6 8.3 4.0	9, 2	29.6 22.7 18.8 11.4 3.6	29. 4 21. 9 9. 9 7. 3 4. 3	29.3 21.7 9.8 7.5 4.0	24.7	24.3	29. 2 23. 7 10. 3 8. 0 3. 2	8.6	9.7	31.7 17.7 9.5 6.9 2.3	31. 7 17. 6 9. 8 7. 7 2. 6	9.3	11.1	29.8 22.7 9.7 7.8 4.2	29. 8 22. 7 9. 8 8. 1 3. 8
	4.7 3.1 15.1 17.9 18.0				5.6 4.3 16.7 18.2 18.5	5. 4 4. 9 14. 0 15. 7 16. 7	6. 0 5. 2 13. 8 15. 5 16. 1	2.3 19.1 19.6	5. 5 4. 3 16. 6 16. 8 19. 3	3.7 16.9 17.2		4. 4 3. 6 21. 0 22. 2 21. 0	18.5	4.9 5.3 17.8 18.8 18.1		5. 0 3. 5 16. 5 20. 6 21. 5	5. 5 5. 0 13. 5 18. 5 19. 6	4. 9 13. 3 18. 6
5. 0 54. 0 24. 5	14.4 17.1 61.9 39.6	6.8	11. 4 6. 7 62. 4 30. 1	5. 8 58. 0 30. 0	14. 4 19. 9 80. 0 48. 0	7.5 76.3	7.3	19.8 63.7	7.4 57.3	56.9	6. 3 55. 0	817.5 19.1 68.9 47.6	8.0 64.4	7.6 64.1	48.3	60.1	13. 5 7. 3 59. 9 39. 6	
	26. 4 28. 5 41. 8 71. 3	36.9	17. 4 26. 0 35. 8 51. 8		30. 2 32. 2 51. 6 69. 0	27.9 43.0	21. 5 27. 4 42. 8 53. 2	29. 2 414. 4	29.7 411.6			24. 8 29. 2 416. 4 79. 7	414.2	28.1		28. 2 28. 4 48. 6 79. 6	19. 2 29. 7 35. 3 64. 9	

¹ No. 2½ can.

² No. 3 can.

³ Per pound.

TABLE 5 .- AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES

		Ri	chme	and, V	a.	Roch	ester,	N.Y.	Si	. Lou	is, M	0.
Artiole.	Unit.	Sept.	15—			Sept.			Sept.	15		Sept
		1913	1920	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	Cts. 22. 6 20. 0 18. 9 15. 5 12. 5	42. 8 34. 5	42. 1 37. 4 30. 2 24. 4	36. 1 30. 9 23. 8	Cts. 45. 2 41. 5 33. 8 29. 8 19. 5	35. 4 29. 3 23. 5	33.2 27.3 23.0	26. 0 24. 3 19. 5 15. 6	42. 0 41. 8 32. 9	35. 3 29. 8 18. 7	36. 34. 39. 18.
Pork chops Bacon Ham Lamb Hens	do	27. 0	49.3 55.5 45.0	38.7 49.0 40.0	38. 3 47. 8 40. 6	48. 5 46. 9 58. 9 37. 1 48. 2	35. 7 53. 9 36. 4	35.9 52.8 34.2	21. 0 27. 5 27. 3 18. 3 17. 1	51. 5 60. 7 36. 1	41.2	39. 50. 29.
Salmon, canned Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated Butter Oleomargarine	Quart 15-16 oz. can.	10.0	16.4	14. 0 14. 7 58. 8	14. 0 14. 8 56. 4	15. 5 16. 5 67. 8	13. 0 14. 1 51. 8	13. 0 13. 8 51. 1	9. 0	16.0 14.6	12.7 51.4	13. 12. 50.
Nut margarine Cheese Lard Zrisco Eggs, strictly fresh	00	15.4	28. 4	32. 3 18. 7 21. 5	32. 2 18. 6 22. 3	40. 4 26. 8 31. 7	32. 1 17. 6 19. 2	32. 9 17. 7 19. 2	19.3 14.3	23.4	31. 1 14. 7 20. 5	30. 14. 5 20.
Bread Fløur Corn meal Rolled oats Corn flakes	do	3.3	8. 5	6. 0 4. 0 10. 9	6. 0 4. 2 11. 1	8.4	5. 8 5. 3 7. 9	5. 8 5. 2 7. 9	2.9	7.6	9. 9	4. 3. 9.
Cream of Wheat Macaroni Rice Beans, navy Potatoes	do	10.0	19. 9	22. 8 10. 3 -8. 9	22. 1 11. 0 8. 7	22. 5 18. 2 11. 8	20. 9 9. 2 8. 0	20. 7 9. 3 8. 1	8.4	10.6	21. 0 8. 0 7. 2	20. 8. 2 7.
Onions Cabbage Beans, baked Corn, canned Peas, canned	No. 2 can do		6. 2 4. 3 14. 4 20. 1 21. 4	4. 7 6. 9 12. 0 15. 3 20. 0	6. 1 12. 1 15. 5	3. 4 14. 4 19. 5	5. 2 12. 0	4.7 11.8 16.0		5. 0 3. 7 15. 2 16. 3 16. 0	6. 6 12. 0	5. 11. 15.
Tomatoes, canned	Pounddododododododododo	5. 4 56. 0 27. 4	14. 7 18. 4 89. 2 48. 0	11. 8 7. 5 83. 4 35. 7	7. 4 85. 5	18.2	7. 1 58. 4	6. 9 59. 1	5. 5 55. 0	74.9	7. 1 69. 0	7.
Prunes Raisins Bananas Oranges	Dozen		28. 0 28. 3 54. 1 68. 0	31.1	28. 1 38. 8	29.8	29.8 43.1	28. 1 42. 5		39.7	30.8	30.

¹ No. 2½ can.

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

St	. Pau	l, Mir	m.	Salt	Lake	City,	Utah.	San	Franc	eisco,	Calif.	Sava	nnah	, Ga.	15	Scram	ton, P	3.
Sept	. 15—		Sept.	Sept.	. 15—	Aug.	Sept.	Sept	. 15—		Sept.	Sept.	Aug.		Sept.	. 15—	Aug.	Sept
1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921,	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	15, 1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.
Cts. 27, 2 23, 6 20, 4 16, 8 10, 6	35. 4 33. 6	28.6 21.6	27. 4 21. 4	Cts. 22, 6 20, 0 19, 4 15, 0 12, 5	31. 7 27. 4 23. 0	27. 1 23. 4 18. 5	Cts. 28. 5 25. 1 22. 4 16. 8 11. 7	19.7 21.1 15.0		26.8 27.6 17.0	29. 0 26. 3 28. 2 17. 5	36. 8 30. 9 24. 5	28. 9 26. 4 18. 6	28. 1 25. 7 18. 3		47. 1 40. 8 33. 5	Cts. 49. 9 40. 2 35. 7 26. 7 12. 1	
21. 4 26. 3 28. 8 16. 7 19. 6	60.8 34.7	31.4	44. 0 50. 0 28. 7	23. 8 30. 0 30. 0 17. 5 23. 3	56. 2	45. 4 50. 4 27. 8	44.3	34. 4 33. 0	64.3 62.3 35.7	56. 8 29. 8	56. 6 57. 5 30. 1	54. 2 57. 3 43. 3	40.7	39. 9 43. 0 37. 5	27. 5 31. 7 19. 0	57. 2 66. 9	40. 3 43. 2 60. 8 44. 9 48. 8	44. 59. 41.
7. 8	41.7 14.0 15.8 62.2 42.6	14.3 45.0	13.9	8. 7 39. 0	40. 0 12. 5 14. 9 70. 0 41. 0	12.5 12.6 49.9	12. 5 12. 4	10.0	16.8 14.2	11.8 52.7	14. 0 12. 4 54. 9	24.7 15.0		20.0 12.7	8. 8	42. 5 16. 0 15. 4 66. 7 43. 3	39. 6 12. 8 13. 5 50. 7 29. 3	12. 13. 50.
21. 0 15. 4 28. 1		26. 8 31. 2 18. 3 23. 6 39. 5	26. 6 31. 1 18. 2 23. 8 40. 4	24. 2 19. 8	37. 6 38. 9 29. 6 38. 3 69. 9	28. 5 19. 7 24. 4	19. 4 25. 1	19.5 18.7	31. 2 33. 2	33. 5	33. 1 19. 4 22. 4	40.3 30.0 33.9			18. 3 16. 5	33. 4	28. 0 30. 7 19. 1 21. 7 51. 3	28. 31. 19. 21. 58.
6. 0 3. 0 2. 3	11. 4 8. 1 7. 5 10. 6 15. 6	9. 5 5. 8 4. 4 9. 4 13. 4	8.6 5.5 4.3 9.6 13.6	5.9 2.5 3.4	12. 6 6. 3 7. 4 10. 8 15. 6	9.8 3.3 4.0 10.4 14.4	9.8 3.3 4.0 10.3 13.7	5. 9 3. 4 3. 5	10. 9 8. 3 7. 5 11. 3 15. 0	9. 6 5. 7 4. 8 10. 6 12. 6		8.7 5.2 11.9	10. 6 5. 8 2. 8 11. 0 11. 4	10. 5 5. 9 2. 8 10. 9 11. 2	5. 6 3. 5	13. 9 9. 1 8. 4 11. 9 14. 5	10. 4 6. 8 7. 9 11. 1 12. 4	10. 6. 7. 11. 12.
i0. 0	31. 5 21. 1 19. 2 11. 8 3. 2	29.7 18.9 8.7 8.8 3.5	29. 9 19. 1 8. 6 8. 8 3. 1	8.2	33.6 22.5 17.3 11.9 2.8	32. 2 22. 8 8. 4 8. 3 2. 2	32. 1 22. 7 8. 0 8. 4 2. 5	8.5	29. 8 14. 4 16. 3 9. 2 4. 2	28. 7 14. 4 9. 0 6. 7 3. 1	28. 8 14. 3 8. 7 6. 7 3. 3	31. 7 24. 1 14. 5 13. 7 4. 7	29.6 19.7 7.8 9.4 4.5	29. 6 19. 8 8. 1 9. 6 4. 0	8.4	29. 7 25. 6 18. 2 13. 5 3. 4	29.7 23.4 9.5 9.9 4.3	29. 23. 9. 9. 3.
	5. 2 3. 4 19. 7 18. 4 18. 1	5. 3 5. 5 16. 8 16. 1 16. 4	3.8		4. 4 3. 9 20. 0 18. 5 17. 5	15.7	3. 7		3.3 18.3 19.0 18.9	17.5	3. 5 16. 7 17. 3 18. 5	7. 1 5. 1 18. 0 18. 7 18. 7	5. 6 6. 6 13. 4 15. 0 18. 0	5. 5 12. 8 15. 3		5. 7 2. 7 15. 6 18. 6 18. 7	5. 3 5. 8 13. 5 17. 3 17. 2	5. 6 5. 1 13. 4 17. 4 17. 7
5. 7 15. 0 30. 0	14. 8 18. 9 72. 8 50. 0	13.8 7.8 69.3 39.0	14. 3 7. 7 67. 7 38. 7	6. 2 65. 7 35. 8	16.5 19.0 82.3 57.5	12. 1 8. 3 85. 2 45. 6	13. 4 8. 1 82. 5 45. 0	5. 6 50. 0	17. 9 59. 3		7. 4 56. 7	14. 8 18. 7 81. 6 43. 6	11.3 7.3 69.4 31.9	12. 1 7. 2 69. 1 32. 4	5. 8 52. 5 31. 3	15. 5 19. 3 70. 5 49. 3	13, 1 7, 5 62, 0 38, 6	12. 8 7. 8 62. 8 38. 8
	30. 5 31. 3 2 16.2 71. 8	31. 1 2 11.6			28.6 30.3 16.7 72.3	27. 6 2 16.6	16.6 25.5 216.7 51.0		23, 2 30, 2 44, 2 60, 3	40.7	16. 3 27. 1 36. 4 48. 8	33. 6 28. 9 55. 6 87. 5	17. 3 30. 7 38. 5 73. 3	19. 4 29. 5 38. 0 69. 4		26. 6 30. 5 38. 7 68. 9	17. 5 29. 6 36. 7 55. 7	17. 29. 8 35. 8 54.

² Per pound.

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

		Se	attle	, Was	h.	Spri	ngfiel	d, Ill.	Wa	shing	ton, I). C.
Article.	Unit.	Sept.	15—				Aug.		Sept	. 15—	Aug.	Sept
		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. 24. 0 20. 7 19. 3 16. 0 13. 0	34. 1 30. 1 21. 0	31. 1 28. 2 25. 5 16. 7	27. 4 24. 9	43. 2 42. 1 27. 9 24. 9	35. 1 24. 4 20. 0	35. 2 34. 1 23. 5 19. 0	24. 1 21. 3 17. 3	55. 3 51. 0 42. 6 31. 8	40. 5 35. 6 23. 7	39. 35.
Pork chops. Bacon. Ham Lamb. Hens.	do do	32. 5 30. 0 19. 3	34. 2	53. 0 55. 2 27. 7	53. 3 55. 3 27. 3	49. 7 59. 0 39. 2	40. 0 53. 4 31. 9	40. 2 52. 3 31. 3	28. 5 30. 0 19. 4	62. 4 46. 7	42. 4 59. 2 39. 4	59. 38.
Salmon, canned. Milk, fresh. Milk, evaporated. Butter. Dleomargarine	Quart 15–16 oz. can. Pound do	8.6	38. 9 14. 6 14. 6 72. 9 41. 7	33. 0 12. 0 12. 3 47. 6 27. 0	12. 0 12. 3 52. 5	16. 7	12. 5 14. 5 52. 2	12.5 14.7 49.8	8.2	15.3	14. 0 14. 1 55. 3	14. 14. 53.
Nut margarine Cheese Lard Crisco Eggs, strictly fresh	do	21 7	36. 8 40. 7 29. 2 36. 3 73. 3	31 9	32. 4 18. 7 23. 2	41. 8 28. 3 35. 0	35. 8 17. 9 21. 3	35. 4 17. 3 21. 1	23. 5 15. 3	28. 3 32. 6	35. 3 18. 2 21. 3	35. 18. 21.
Gread. Flour Corn meal. Colled oats. Corn flakes.	8-oz. pkg		10.6	4.8 4.5 9.0 13.5	4. 4 9. 1	8. 5 7. 7 13. 5	5. 9 4. 5 11. 1	5.7 4.5 11.1	3.8	8.8 5.9 12.1	6.4	6. 4. 11.
Cream of Wheat. Macaroni Rice Beans, navy Potatoes	28-oz. pkg Pounddodododo.	7.7	32. 0 19. 0 19. 3 9. 9 3. 2	30. 7 18. 4 9. 8 7. 4 2. 7	18. 2	22. 3 19. 5 12. 3	22. 1 9. 4 7. 4	22. 2 9. 7 7. 8	9.4	11.9	10. 4 7. 9	23. 90 8.
Onions. abbage. Beans, baked Orn, canned. Peas, canned.	No. 2 candodododo			5. 8 17. 6 17. 2 17. 9	5. 0 17. 6 17. 6 18. 3	4. 6 18. 4 17. 0 17. 8	14. 9 14. 3	6. 6 14. 8 15. 4		5. 3 3. 4 15. 0 17. 3 17. 9		6. 12. 14.
Comatoes, canned Sugar, granulated Cea Coffee	Pounddododododododo	6. 6 50. 0 28. 0	1 16.3 18. 9 70. 3 47. 3	1 13.8 8. 5 64. 3 . 37. 3	1 14.4 8. 1 63. 8 36. 9	15. 7 17. 8 88. 5 49. 0	7.9	7. 9 75. 7	5. 3 57. 5 28. 8	77.5	7.3 74.0	74.
Prunes	Dozen		216.6	215.5	215 1	31. 1 33. 7 214. 3 75. 9	200	34.1			19. 4 29. 5 42. 5 57. 0	28. 41.

¹ No. 2½ can.

² Per pound.

Comparison of Retail Food Costs in 51 Cities.

ABLE 6 shows for 39 cities the percentage of increase or decrease in the retail cost of food 7 in September, 1921, compared with the average cost in the year 1913, in September, 1920, and in August, 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.8

Effort has been made by the bureau each month to have perfect reporting cities. For the month of September, 99 per cent of all the firms reporting in the 51 cities sent in a report promptly. The following were perfect reporting cities; that is, every merchant in the following-named 38 cities who is cooperating with the bureau sent in his report in time for his prices to be included in the city averages: Atlanta, Baltimore, Birmingham, Boston, Bridgeport, Butte, Chicago, Charleston, S. C., Cincinnati, Columbus, Dallas, Denver, Detroit, Houston, Jacksonville, Kansas City, Little Rock, Los Angeles, Louisville, Manchester, Memphis, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, Newark, New Haven, New York, Norfolk, Omaha, Peoria, Philadelphia, Portland, Me., Portland, Oreg., Providence, Richmond, St. Louis, Salt Lake City, Scranton, and Washington, D. C.

The following summary shows the promptness with which the merchants responded in September.

RETAIL PRICE REPORTS RECEIVED DURING SEPTEMBER.

	TT-24-3		Geogr	aphical di	vision.	
Item.	United States.	North Atlantic.	South Atlantic.	North Central.	South Central.	Western.
Percentage of reports received	99	99	99	99	99	99
which every report was received	38	10	7	10	- 6	

⁷ For list of articles, see note 2, p. 38.

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 Morah 1921, 26 REVIEW for March, 1921, p. 26.

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

City.	increase Sept., 1921, compared	Percentage decrease Sept., 1921, compared with Sept., 1920.	compared	City.	increase		decrease Sept., 1921, compared
Atlanta Baltimore Birmingham Boston Bridgeport Buffalo Butte Charleston, S. C. Chicaso Cincinnati Cleveland Columbus Denver Detroit. Fall River Houston Indianapolis Jacksonville Kansas City Little Rock Los Angeles Louisville Manchester Manchester Memphis	49 54 55 59 55 54 55 54 51 48 40 59 56 50 49 42 41 58 45 46 47 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48 48	27 26 27 24 23 26 26 27 25 25 25 27 23 24 27 26 25 25 25 25 27 24 27 26 25 25 26 27 28 29 20 20 21 21 22 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25	1 3 1 3 1 1 3 1 1 2 2 3 1 1 2 2 1 0 1 1 1 2 2 1 0 1 1 1 2 1 2 1	Minneapolis. Mobile. Newark, N. J. New Haven. New Orleans. New York. Norfolk. Omaha. Peoria. Philadelphia. Pittsburgh. Portland, Me. Portland, Oreg. Providence. Richmond. Rochester. St. Louis. St. Paul. Salt Lake City. San Francisco. Savannah. Scranton Seattle. Springfield.	48 50 53 51 57 49 51 53 37 63 67 55 33 47 62 40	27 29 24 26 24 23 25 29 25 25 25 26 23 22 25 26 23 22 25 26 23 22 25 26 26 27 28 28 27 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28 28	2 1 1 0.2 0.1 1 1 1 1 1 2 2 0.4 1 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 4 1 1 1 2 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2 1 1 1 2 1 2

¹ Increase.

Retail Prices of Coal in the United States.1

THE following table shows the average retail prices of coal on September 15, 1920, and on August 15, and September 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.

¹ 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.

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

	Sept. 15,	192	21
City, and kind of coal.	1920.	Aug. 15.	Sept. 15.
United States:			
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove	\$15.765	\$14,962	\$15,031
Chestnut	15.848	15. 019	15. 064
Bituminous	12.120	10.468	10.470
Atlanta, Ga.: Bituminous	14. 938	0 771	0 500
Baltimore, Md.:	14, 395	8.771	8, 792
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	1 15.500	1 14. 750	1 14.750
Bituminous	1 15, 500 1 10, 469	1 14. 750 8. 094	1 14. 750 8. 06
Birmingham, Ala.:	10, 100	0.001	0.000
Bituminous	10.020	8.724	8.618
Boston, Mass.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			,
Stove	16.000	15,000	15.000
Chestnut	16.000	15.000	15.000
Bridgeport, Conn.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—	17. 200	14.500	44.400
Stove Chestnut.	17. 200	14.400	14.400 14.300
Buffalo, N. Y.:		27.200	22.000
Pennsylvania anthracite—	10.000	10.010	40 400
Stove Chestnut	13. 250 13. 250	13.010 13.010	13. 120 13. 120
Butte, Mont.:	10.200	10.010	10.120
Bituminous	12.548	12.094	11.960
Charleston, S. C.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	1 17,000	1 17.000	1 17.000
Chestnut	1 16. 850	1 17. 100	1 17. 100
Bituminous	12.750	12.000	12.000
Chicago, Ill.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	16.878	15.320	15, 490
Chestnut	17.033	15.320	15. 490
Bituminous	10.780	8.566	8. 862
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove		15.500	15.500
Chestnut	15.000	15.750	15. 750
Cleveland, Ohio:	8.893	6.786	6. 917
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	\$16.455	\$14.250	\$14.288
Chestnut	16.428 12.243	14.263 8.810	14.263 8.850
Columbus, Ohio:	12.210	0.010	0.000
Pennsylvania anthracite—	40.000	44 404	
Chestnut Bituminous	16.300 10.693	15. 083 7. 522	14.833
Dallas, Tex:	10.095	1.044	7.705
Dallas, Tex: Arkansas anthracite—	-20-202	40.000	
EggBituminous.	20.000 15.583	18.000	18,000
Denver, Colo.:	13.000	14. 545	15. 154
Colorado anthracite—		200	
Stove, 3 and 5 mixed. Furnace, 1 and 2 mixed.	16, 995	16.083	16, 083
Bituminous.	16. 995 11. 371	16. 083 10. 900	16. 083 10. 950
Detroit, Mich.:	22,012	20,000	10.000
Pennsylvania anthracite—	4 F 00H	44 800	4.4 ***
Stove	15.667 16.417	14. 563 14. 563	14, 563 14, 563
Bituminous	14.300	9. 969	9. 594
Fall River, Mass.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove	16,000	15. 167	15 950
Chestnut.	15, 500	15, 000	15, 250 15, 000
Bituminous	13.000	11.000	11.000
Houston, Tex.: Bituminous	14 770	19 900	10 417
Indianapolis, Ind.:	14.778	12, 800	12, 417
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	17. 055	15. 500	15.375
Chestnut	17. 070 10. 875	15, 583 8, 488	15. 583 8. 488
	10,010	0. 200 1	0, 488

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

	Sept. 15,	1921			
City, and kind of coal.	1920.	Aug. 15.	Sept. 15.		
Jacksonville, Fla.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—	800 000	610 500	010 50		
Stove. Chestnut.	\$22,000 22,000	\$16,500 16,500	\$16.50 16.50		
Bituminous	18.000	12, 250	12, 50		
Kansas City, Mo.:					
Arkansas anthracite—	19, 500	17, 143	17.14		
Furnace. Stove, or No. 4.	20, 000	17. 688	17. 68		
Bituminous	11. 496	9,683	9.63		
Bituminous. Little Rock, Ark,: Arkansas anthracite—					
Egg	16.500	15,000	14.50		
Bituminous	14.875	13. 107	13. 28		
Los Angeles, Calif.:	10.000	10.000	40.00		
Bituminous	19.000	18.000	19.00		
Louisville, Ky.: Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove. Chestnut.		16.875	16.87		
Chestnut	17.000	16.875	16.87		
Bituminous	10.797	8, 105	8. 07		
Manchester, N. H.: Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	16.000	16.500	16.50		
Chestnut	16.000 14.333	16, 500 11, 333	16.50		
Memphis, Tenn.:	14, 555	11, 500	11.33		
Panneylvania anthracita_	20.000	10.000			
Stove. Chestnut Bituminous	18.000	18,000	18.00		
Rituminous	18, 000 11, 550	18. 000 8. 393	18.00 8.39		
Milwaukee, Wis.: Pennsylvania anthracite—	21,000	0.000	0.00		
Pennsylvania anthracite—	47.010	40.000			
Stove. Chestnut.	15. 210 15. 290	16. 060 16. 060	16. 31 16. 31		
Bituminous	13. 719	10.663	10. 59		
Minneapolis, Minn.:	7.55				
Pennsylvania anthracite—	17, 240	17.850	17 0		
Stove. Chestnut.	17. 300	17. 850	17. 95 17. 95		
Bituminous	14, 365	12, 271	12. 43		
Mobile, Ala.:	13, 328	10.625	10.04		
Bituminous Newark, N. J.:	10.040	10.020	10.94		
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	13,000	12,850	12, 90		
Chestnut. New Haven, Conn.:	13, 000	12. 850	12.90		
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	17. 262	14.000	14.00		
Chestnut. New Orleans, La.:	17. 262	14.000	14.00		
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	22, 500	17.500	17.50		
Chesinut. Bituminous. New York, N. Y.:	22.500	17. 500	17.50		
New York N V	14. 400	10. 528	10.75		
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove. Chestnut.	14. 200	13.358	13.34		
Chestnut Norfolk, Va.:	14, 200	13. 358	13. 34		
Pennsylvania anthrácite—					
Stove	15. 500	14.500	14. 50		
Chestnut. Bituminous.	15.500	14. 500	14. 50		
Omaha, Nebr.:	13. 000	11.833	11, 64		
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove. Chestnut.	23. 900	22,000	22.00		
Chestnut. Bituminous.	24. 000 14. 477	22. 000 12. 313	22. 00 12. 31		
Peoria, Ill.:	14.477	12. 515	12. 31		
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	16. 215	15. 375	15. 50		
Chestnut. Bituminous	16. 500 9. 186	15. 500 6. 406	15. 50 6. 37		

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

	Sept. 15,	1921		
City, and kind of coal.	1920.	Aug. 15.	Sept. 15.	
Philadelphia, Pa.:				
Pennsylvania anthracite—		2000.000		
Stove	1 \$14. 838 1 14. 838	1 \$14. 156 1 14. 125	1 \$14. 219 1 14. 219	
Chestnut	1 14, 838	14, 120	1 14, 218	
Pittsburgh, Pa.: Pennsylvania anthracite—				
Stove		1 15. 750	1 15. 750	
Chestnut. Bituminous	8, 414	1 15, 900 6, 857	1 15. 817 6. 857	
Portland, Me.:	0. 111	0, 001	0,001	
Pennsylvania anthracite—				
Stove	16. 800	15. 120	15. 120	
Chestnut. Bituminous	16. 800 14. 700	15, 120 8, 820	15. 120 8. 493	
Portland, Oreg.:	14. 100	0, 040	0. 400	
Bituminous	13. 363	12.506	12, 493	
Providence, R. I.: Pennsylvania anthracite—				
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove.	2 16, 000	2 15, 000	2 15. 000	
Chestnut	2 16. 000	2 15. 000	2 15. 000	
Bituminous	2 14, 125	2 9. 500	2 8. 750	
Richmond, Va.: Pennsylvania anthracite—				
Pennsylvania anthracite—	15 000	14.050	14, 250	
Stove	15. 000 15. 000	14. 250 14. 250	14. 250	
Chestnut. Bituminous	11. 903	10. 846	10. 846	
Rochester, N. Y.: Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove. Chestnut.		100		
Pennsylvania anthracite—	13. 375	13, 450	13, 550	
Chestnut	13. 475	13, 450	13, 550	
St. Louis, Mo.:	20.110	20. 100	20,000	
Pennsylvania anthracite—				
Stove	16. 250 15. 775	16. 000 16. 188	15. 938 16. 125	
Chestnut. Bituminous	8, 213	6, 763	6. 788	
St. Paul, Minn.:	0.200	0.,00	0.,00	
Pennsylvania anthracite—	40.040	48 050	48 050	
Stove. Chestnut.	17. 217 17. 267	17. 850 17. 850	17. 950 17. 950	
Rituminous	15. 746	12. 868	13, 014	
Salt Lake City, Utah: Colorado anthracite—				
Colorado anthracite—	10 400	10.000	10 105	
Furnace, 1 and 2 mixed. Stove, 3 and 5 mixed.	18, 400 18, 500	19, 200 19, 900	19. 125 20. 000	
Bituminous	9. 750	9. 675	9. 445	
San Francisco, Calif.:				
New Mexico anthracite—	97 500	90 075	00 075	
Cerillos egg. Colorado anthracite—	27, 500	26. 875	26, 875	
Egg	26. 250	26. 250	26, 250	
Bituminous	18.786	19. 273	19, 273	
Savannah, Ga.: Pennsylvania anthracite—				
Stove	3 19, 100	8 17. 100	* 17. 100	
Chestnut	3 19. 100	3 17. 100	* 17. 100	
Bituminous	3 17, 300	3 12. 267	8 12. 433	
Scranton, Pa.: Pennsylvania anthracite—				
Stove.	9. 833	9, 583	9, 650	
Stove. Chestnut.	9, 833	9. 583	9. 650	
Seattle, Wash.:	410 000	.11 420	4 11, 513	
BituminousSpringfield, Ill.:	4 10. 800	11, 439	7 11, 516	
Bituminous Washington, D. C.:	4.800	4. 475	4, 450	
Washington, D. C.:				
Pennsylvania anthracite—	1 15, 514	1 14, 614	1 15, 007	
Stove	1 15. 471	1 14. 471	1 14, 621	
Bituminous	1 11. 370	1 9. 917	1 9. 917	

¹ Per ton of 2,240 pounds.
² Fifty cents per ton additional is charged for "binning." Most customers require binning or basketing the coal into the cellar.
⁸ 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.
⁴ Prices in Zone A. The cartage charges in Zone A were as follows: September, 1920, \$1.85; August and September, 1921, \$1.75. These charges have been included in the averages. The cartage charges in Seattle during these months have ranged from \$1.55 to \$3.05, according to distance.

Retail Prices of Gas in the United States.a

HE following table shows for 51 cities the net price per month for the first 1,000 cubic feet of gas used for household purposes. Prices are, in most cases, for manufactured gas, but prices for natural gas have also been quoted for those cities where it is in general use. For Los Angeles prices are given for natural and manufactured gas, mixed. The prices shown do not include any extra charge for service.

NET PRICE PER MONTH FOR THE FIRST 1,000 CUBIC FEET OF GAS FOR HOUSEHOLD USE ON APR. 15 OF EACH YEAR, 1913 TO 1920, AND ON MAY 15 AND SEPT. 15, 1921, BY CITIES. Manufactured gas.

City.	Apr. 15,	Apr. 15,	Apr. 15,	Apr. 15,	May 15,	Sept.				
	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.	1918.	1919.	1920.	1921.	1921.
Atlanta, Ga. Baltimore, Md. Birmingham, Ala Boston, Mass Bridgeport, Conn	\$1.00	\$1,00	\$1.00	\$1.00	\$1,00	\$1.00	\$1. 15	\$1.15	\$1.90	\$1.66
	.90	.80	.80	.75	.75	.75	. 75	.75	.75	.99
	1.00	.95	.95	.95	.95	.95	. 95	.95	.88	.80
	.82	.82	.80	.80	.80	.85	1. 02	1.07	1.42	1.30
	1.00	1,00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1. 10	1.10	11,30	1.60
Buffalo, N. Y Butte, Mont. Charleston, S. C. Chicago, Ill. Cleveland, Ohio.	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1. 45	1. 45	1. 45	1. 4:
	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.50	1.50	1. 50	1. 50	2. 10	2. 1:
	1.10	1.10	1.10	1.10	1.00	1.10	1. 10	1. 25	1. 55	1. 5:
	.80	.80	.80	.80	.80	.755	. 94	. 90	1. 29	1. 2:
	.80	.80	.80	.80	.80	.80	. 80	. 80	. 80	. 8:
Denver, Colo	.85 .75 .80 1.00 .60	.80 .75 .80 1.00 .55	.80 .75 .80 1.00 .55	.80 .75 .80 1.00 .55	. 80 . 75 . 80 1, 00 . 55	.85 .75 .95 1.00 .55	.95 .79 .95 1.00 .60	. 95 . 79 1. 05 1. 09 . 60	. 95 . 85 1. 25 1. 09 . 90	.9. .8. 1.1. 1.0.
Jacksonville, Fla	1. 20	1, 20	1. 15	1. 15	1. 15	1. 25	1. 25	1.50	1.75	1. 7.
Manchester, N. H.	1. 10	1, 10	1. 00	1. 00	1. 00	1. 00	1. 10	1.10	2 1.50	2 1. 50
Memphis, Tenn	1. 00	1, 00	1. 00	1. 00	1. 00	1. 00	1. 00	11.10	1.35	1. 3.
Milwaukee, Wis.	. 75	. 75	. 75	. 75	. 75	. 75	. 75	.75	.90	. 90
Minneapolis, Minn	. 85	. 80	. 80	. 77	. 77	. 77	. 95	.95	1.28	1. 1
Mobile, Ala	1. 10	1.10	1.10	1. 10	1. 10	1.10	1. 35	1.35	1.80	1. 8
Newark, N. J.	1. 00	.90	.90	. 90	. 90	.97	. 97	1.15	1.40	1. 4
New Haven, Conn	. 90	.90	.90	. 90	. 90	1.00	1. 10	1.10	11.10	1 1. 1
New Orleans, La.	1. 10	1.00	1.00	1. 00	1. 00	1.00	1. 30	1.30	1.30	1. 4
New York, N. Y	. 84	.84	.83	. 83	. 83	.83	. 85	.87	1.35	1, 2
Norfolk, Va	1.00	1.00	1.00	1,00	1.00	1. 20	1. 20	1.60	1. 40	1. 3.
Omaha, Nebr	1.15	1.15	1.15	1,00	1.00	1. 15	1. 15	1.15	1. 53	1. 4.
Peoria, Ill.	.90	.90	.90	.90	.85	. 85	. 85	.85	1. 20	1. 2.
Philadelphia, Pa	1.00	1.00	1.00	1,00	1.00	1. 00	1. 00	1.00	1. 00	1. 0.
Pittsburgh, Pa.	1.00	1.00	1.00	1,00	1.00	1. 00	1. 00	(3)	(8)	(3)
Portland, Me Portland, Oreg Providence, R. I. Richmond, Va Rochester, N. Y.	1.10 .95 .85 .90 .95	1.00 .95 .85 .90 .95	1.00 .95 .85 .90 .95	1.00 .95 .85 .80 .95	1.00 .95 .85 .80	1.00 .95 1.00 .80 .95	1. 40 95 1. 30 1. 00 . 95	1. 40 . 95 1. 30 1. 00 . 95	1. 85 1. 67 1 1. 25 1. 30 4 1. 05	1. 88 1. 50 1 1. 28 1. 30 4 1. 08
St. Louis, Mo. St. Paul, Minn, Salt Lake City, Utah. San Francisco, Calif. Savannah, Ga	. 80 . 95 . 90 . 75	. 80 . 90 . 90 . 85	.80 .90 .90 .85	.80 .85 .90 .85	.75 .85 .90 .85	.75 .85 .90 .85	.75 .85 1.10 .90	. 85 . 85 1. 30 . 95 1. 25	1. 05 1. 00 2 1. 52 1. 05 1. 60	1. 0 1. 0 2 1. 5 1. 0 1. 6
Scranton, Pa	1. 08	1. 08	1. 08	1. 08	1.08	1. 15	1.30	1.30	1. 70	1. 70
Seattle, Wash.	1. 00	1. 00	1. 00	1. 00	1.00	1. 25	1.25	1.55	1. 55	1. 50
Springfield, Ill	1. 00	1. 00	1. 00	1. 00	1.00	1. 00	1.10	1.10	1. 40	1. 40
Washington, D. C	. 93	. 93	. 93	. 93	.80	. 90	.95	.95	1. 25	1. 20

¹ Plus 50 cents per month service charge.

² Plus 25 cents per month service charge.

³ Sale of manufactured gas discontinued.

⁴ Plus 40 cents per month service charge.

^a Retail prices of gas have heretofore been secured in April of each year and published in the June issues of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW. For 1921, prices on gas have been secured in May and September and are published in the July and November issues of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

NET PRICE PER MONTH FOR THE FIRST 1,000 CUBIC FEET OF GAS FOR HOUSEHOLD USE ON APR. 15 OF EACH YEAR, 1913 TO 1920, AND ON MAY 15 AND SEPT. 15, 1921, BY CITIES—Concluded.

Natural gas.

City,	Apr. 15, 1913.	Apr. 15, 1914.	Apr. 15, 1915.	Apr. 15, 1916.	Apr. 15, 1917.	Apr. 15, 1918.	Apr. 15, 1919.	Apr. 15, 1920.	May 15, 1921.	Sept. 15, 1921.
Buffalo, N. Y Cincinnati, Ohio Cleveland, Ohio. Columbus, Ohio.	\$0.30 .30 .30	\$0.30 .30 .30	\$0.30 .30 .30	\$0.30 .30 .30	\$0.30 .30 .30 .30	\$0.30 .35 .30 .30	\$0.35 .35 .35 .30	\$0.35 .35 .35 .30	\$0.35 .35 .35 .30	\$0.40 .35 .35 .45
Dallas, Tex	. 45	. 45	. 45	. 45	. 45	. 45	. 45	.45	. 671	. 67
Kansas City, MoLittle Rock, Ark	. 27 . 40	. 27	. 27	. 27	.30	.60	.80	. 80	1.80	1.80
Louisville, Ky Pittsburgh, Pa		.62	. 65	.65	.65	. 65	.65	.65	. 65	. 65

Manufactured and natural gas, mixed.

	00.00	00.00	22.00	20.00	50 FF		00 77	00.70
Los Angeles, Calif	\$0.68	\$0.68	\$0.68	\$0.68	\$0.75	\$0.75	\$0.75	\$0.76

¹ Plus 50 cents per month service charge.

From the prices quoted on manufactured gas in 43 cities average prices have been computed for the 43 cities combined and are shown in the next table for April 15 of each year from 1913 to 1920 and for May 15 and September 15, 1921. Relative prices have been computed by dividing the price of each year by the price in April, 1913.

As may be seen in the table, the price of manufactured gas changed but little until in 1921. The price in September, 1921, was 38 per cent higher than in April, 1913, and 20 per cent higher than in April,

1920.

AVERAGE 1 AND RELATIVE PRICES OF MANUFACTURED GAS FOR HOUSEHOLD USE PER 1,000 CUBIC FEET, ON APR. 15 OF EACH YEAR, 1913 TO 1920, AND ON MAY 15 AND SEPT. 15, 1921, FOR 43 CITIES COMBINED.

[Average price in April, 1913=100.]

Year.	Average price.	Relative price.	Year.	Average price.	Relative price.
April, 1913. April, 1914. April, 1915. April, 1916.	\$0.95 .94 .94 .93 .92	100 99 99 98 98	April, 1918 April, 1919 April, 1920 May, 1921 September, 1921	\$0.95 1.04 1.09 1.32 1.31	100 109 115 139 138

¹ Net price.

Wholesale Prices in September.

ITTLE change in the general level of wholesale prices in September, as compared with the preceding month, is indicated by information gathered by the Department of Labor through the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The bureau's weighted index number, computed from 327 price series, works out at 152 for September, showing no variation from the figure of the month before.

Owing largely to the sharp advance in raw cotton, farm products increased over 3 per cent in average price, while articles in the cloths

and clothing group increased $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Chemicals and drugs also showed a small increase.

In all other groups of commodities, except that of metals and metal products, prices in September averaged lower than in August. The decrease was most pronounced in the case of foodstuffs, where prices were 4 per cent below those of the previous month, due mainly to decreases in meats, sugar, and potatoes. Fuel and lighting materials were 2 per cent cheaper, building materials were 2½ per cent cheaper, and house furnishing goods were 3 per cent cheaper than in August. In the group of miscellaneous commodities, including such important articles as cottonseed meal and oil, mill feed, jute, rubber, newsprint and wrapping paper, and wood pulp, a slight decrease took place, while no change in the general price level was shown for metals and metal products.

Of 327 commodities, or series of quotations, for which comparable data for August and September were obtained, decreases were found to have occurred for 88 commodities and increases for 122 commodities. In 117 cases no change in price took place in the two months.

Some of the more important changes occurring between August and September, as measured by average prices in each month, are as follows:

IMPORTANT ARTICLES INCREASING OR DECREASING IN AVERAGE PRICE IN SEPTEMBER AS COMPARED WITH AUGUST, 1921, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES.

Increases.

Commodity.	Per cent.	Commodity,	Per cent.	Commodity.	Per cent.
Farm products.		Food, etc.—Concluded.		Cloths and clothing-Con.	
Cotton, middling:		Flour, wheat:		Cotton yarns, Boston:	
New Orleans	52. 2	Patent, Kansas City	4.4	Carded, 10/1	33.
New York Dats, cash, Chicago	47. 2 6. 9	Standard patent, Min- neapolis	2.4	Twisted, 20/2 Leather, glazed kid,	30.
Wheat:	0. 9	Lemons, Cal., Chicago	29. 0	black, Boston	7.
No. 1 northern spring,		Oranges, Cal., Chicago	4.7	Silk, Japan, Kansai, No.	
Chicago	5.4	Prunes, New York	4.2	1, New York	10.
No. 2 hard winter, Kan-	4.3	Oleo oil, extra, Chicago Rice, Blue Rose, New	15.3	Fuel and lighting.	
No. 2 red winter, Chi-	4. 0	Orleans	21.0	L'act and tighting.	
cago	3.2	Vinegar, cider, New York.	14.3	Alcohol, denatured, New	
No. 1 northern spring,		07.17		York	3.
Minneapolis	6.2	Cloths and clothing.		Coal, anthracite, New York Tidewater:	
Hops, prime to choice: New York State	21.9	Blankets, cotton, New		Chestnut	1.
Pacifics, Portland, Oreg.	53. 7	York	7.1	Stove	1.
Live stock, sheep, ewes,		Denims, New York	3.9	Coke, Connellsville, fur-	10
Chicago	2, 6	Drilling, brown, New	10 0	nace, ovens	13.
Food, etc.		York Cotton flannel, un-	16.3	Petroleum, crude, Penn- sylvania, at wells	2.
1.000, 000.		bleached, New York	9.4	bytvania, at wells	
Beans, medium, New		Ginghams, New York	25.0	Metals and metal	1
York	7.0	Hosiery, men's, combed	2.1	products.	
Butter, creamery, extra:	1.5	yarn, New York Print cloths, 27 inch, Bos-	3.1	Copper, ingot, New York.	2.
New York.	2.2	ton	23. 1	Lead, pig, New York	4.
San Francisco	2.0	Sheeting, bleached, 10/4,		Nails, wire, Pittsburgh	3.
Canned corn, New York.	9.3	New York.	4.4	Pig iron:	5.
Coffee, Rio, New York Eggs, fresh:	12. 2	Sheeting, brown, 4/4, New York	29.0	Basic, valley furnace Foundry No. 2 northern,	5.
Firsts, Chicago	10.3	Muslin, bleached, 4/4, New York.		Pittsburgh	5.
Firsts, New York	11.3	New York	7.3	Silver, bar, fine, New	
San Francisco	6. 2	Tickings, New York	51.3	York	6.
Flour, rye, white, Minne-	48	Underwear, women's union suits, New York.	.10, 3	Zinc, pig (spelter) New York	1.

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

Increases—Concluded.

Commodity.	Per cent.	Commodity.	Per cent.	Commodity.	Per cent.
Building material. Brick, common red building, New York. Turpentine, New York. Pine, yellow, siding, Norfolk, Va. Shingles, red cedar, f. o. b. mill. Chemicals and drugs. Acid, muriatic, New York.	3. 4 13. 3 4. 7 22. 4	Chemicals and drugs—Con. Ammonia, anhydrous, New York: Soda, New York: Caustic Nitrate of. Ash, light. House-furnishing goods. Pails, galvanized iron, factory.	2. 5 11. 3 5. 5 3. 2	Miscellaneous. Cottonseed oil, New York. Jute, raw, New York. Rubber, Para, island, New York. Hemp, Manila, New York. Tankage, 9 and 20 per cent, Chicago.	12. § 5. § 5. § 2. § 18. 2

Decreases.

Farm products.		Food, etc.—Concluded.		Building materials—Con.	
Barley, malting, Chicago. Corn, cash, No. 2 mixed, Chicago. Hay, alfalfa, Kansas City. Hides, calfskins, Chicago.	3. 4 5. 4 9. 4 1. 2	Potatoes, white, good to choice, Chicago	17. 8 34. 9	Oak, white, quartered, New York Pine, white, No. 2 barn, New York	3. 3
Live stock, Chicago: Cattle, steers, good to choice	4.6 18.0 9.5 2.5	Coal, bituminous, Chicago: Prepared sizes. Screenings. Coal, semibituminous, Cincinnati Petroleum, crude, Cali-	3. 4 1. 5 4. 6	Chemicals and drugs. Alcohol, wood, refined, New York. Borax, crystals, New York Copper sulphate, 99 per cent, New York.	5. 1
Food, etc. Canned Salmon, red, New York Raisins, New York	2, 9	fornia, at wells Petroleum, refined, 110° New York. Coal, semibituminous, Pecohontas, Norfolk,	5, 1 3, 8	Opium, natural, New York House-furnishing goods.	2.2
Lard, prime contract, New York. Meal, corn, white, Deca- tur, Illinois.	3, 3	Va	13.7	Plates, white, granite, factory	16.
Bacon, short clear sides, Chicago Beef, fresh native sides, New York. Hams, smoked, Chicago.	7. 2 6. 6 15. 1	Bar iron, best refined, Philadelphia. Copper wire, bare, f. o. b. mill. Steel billets, Bessemer,	11.1	Miscellaneous. Bran, Minneapolis Cottonseed meal, New York	6. 3
Lamb, dressed round, Chicago. Mutton, dressed, New York	13. 9 2. 8	Pittsburgh. Steel plates, tank, Pittsburgh. Steel, structural, Chicago.	2. 0 7. 9 5. 4	Paper, newsprint, f. o. b. mills	5. 8 2. 3 4. 3
New York Chicago Jugar, New York: Raw Granulated	11.7 4.9 7.7 4.1	Building materials. Cement, Portland, domestic, f. o. b. plant	6.3	neapolis Sisal, Mexican, New Yo k. Vegetable oil, crude: Coconut, Pacific coast Soya bean, New York	2. 28. 3 28. 3 4. 3

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN SPECIFIED YEARS AND MONTHS, 1913
TO SEPTEMBER, 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- rails.	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	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	103 103	102 103	100	100	99 87	98 97	100	100	100 99	101 100
January	101	102	98	99	92	98	100	99	99	100
JanuaryAprilJulyOctober	103	95	99	98	91	99	100	99	101	98
Júly	104	104	99	95	85	97	99	99	97	100
October	103	107	97	93	83	96	105	99	96	99
January	105	104	100	93	97	94	114	99	99	101
January	102 107	106	96	93	83	94	103	99 99	100 99	99 100
Inly	108	105 104	99	89 90	91	94 93	102	99	98	101
October	105	103	103	96	100	93	124	99	99	101
October	122	126	128	119	148	101	159	115	120	124
January	108	113	110	105	126	99	150	105	107	110
January April	114	117	119	108	147	101	172	108	110	117
July October	118	121	126	108	145	99	156	121	120	119
October	136 189	140 176	138	133	151	101 124	150 198	124 144	132 155	134 176
January	148	150	181 161	175 176	208 183	106	159	132	138	151
April	181	182	169	184	208	114	170	139	149	172
July	199	181	187	192	257	132	198	152	153	186
July October	208	183	193	146	182	134	252	152	163	181
918	220	189	239	163	181	151	221	196	193	196
JanuaryFebruaryMarchApril	207	187	211	157	174	136	232	161	178	185
Merch	208 212	186 177	216 223	157 158	176 176	138 144	232 232	161 165	181 184	187
April	217	178	232	157	177	146	229	172	191	190
May	214	177	237	160	178	148	223	173	194	190
June	217	179	245	159	178	150	219	198	196	193
July	224	184	249	166	184	154	216	199	190	198
August	230	191	252	166	185	157	222	221	191	202
October	237 224	199 201	255 257	167 167	184 187	159 158	220 218	226 226	194 196	207 204
October November	221	206	256	171	188	164	215	226	203	206
December	222	210	250	171	184	164	195	227	204	206
1919	234	210	261	173	161	192	179	236	217	212
January	222	207	234	170	172	161	191	218	212	203
January February March.	218 228	196	223 216	169	168	163	185	218 218	208 217	197
March April May June July	235	203 211	217	168 167	162 152	165 162	183 178	217	216	201
May	240	214	228	167	152	164	179	217	213	207
June	231	204	258	170	154	175	174	233	212	207
	246	216	282	171	158	186	171	245	221	218
August September	243	227	304	175	165	208	172	259	225	226
September	226 230	211	306	181	160	227	173	262	217 220	220 223
October November	240	211 219	313 325	181 179	161 164	231 236	174 176	264 299	220	230
December	244	234	335	181	169	253	179	303	220	238
1920	218	236	302	238	186	308	210	337	236	243
January February	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	25
March. April. May. June. July.	246 244	270 287	353 347	213 235	195 193	341 341	212 215	331 339	238 246	26. 27.
June	243	279	335	246	190	337	218	362	247	269
July	236	268	317	252	191	333	217	362	243	262
August	444	235	299	268	193	328	216	363	240	250
September	210	223	278	284	192	318	222	371	239	242
October November	182	204	257	282	184	313	216	371	229 220	225 207
December	165 144	195 172	234 220	258 236	170 157	274 266	207 188	369 346	205	189
1921:	144	112	220	250	197	200	100	940	200	100
January	136	162	208	228	152	239	182	283	190	177
February	129	150	198	218	146	221	178	277	180	167
March	125	150	192	207	139	208	171	275	167	162
April	115	141	186	199	138	203	168	274	154	154
March	117	133	181	194	138	202	166	262	151	151
June	113	132	180	187	132	202	166	250	150	148
JIIIV	115 118	134 152	179 179	184 182	125 120	200 198	163 161	235 230	149 147	148 152
August September ¹	122	146	187	178	120	198	162	223	146	152
The second	2.6/64	110	101	110	120	1 200	102	200		

¹ Preliminary.

[1012]

Comparing prices in September with those of a year ago, it is seen from the foregoing table that farm products have declined nearly 42 per cent, food 34½ per cent, and cloths and clothing 32¾ per cent. Measured in the same manner, fuel and lighting materials and metals and metal products have declined over 37 per cent, building materials over 39 per cent, and chemicals and drugs over 27 per cent in average price. House furnishing goods were nearly 40 per cent cheaper, and miscellaneous commodities were nearly 39 per cent cheaper in September than in the corresponding month of last year. All commodities, considered in the aggregate, decreased 37 per cent in the 12 months.

Trend of Wholesale Prices of Important Commodities.

FTER more than a year of falling prices the general downward movement was definitely arrested and an upward trend became manifest in the three months from July to September of the present year. While some articles, as corn, wool, pig iron, steel billets, and copper, continued at relatively low levels as compared with preceding months, a pronounced reaction took place in the case

of many other articles of great commercial importance.

Among commodities increasing materially in price during the quarter were butter, milk, eggs, potatoes, rice, cotton and cotton goods. southern yellow pine lumber, red cedar shingles, and turpentine. On the other hand, sheep, mutton, oats, rye, sugar, bituminous coal, coke, pig tin, tin plate, spelter, crude petroleum, brick, Portland cement, Douglas fir lumber, nails, cast-iron pipe, and structural steel averaged less than in the preceding three months.

In the following table the average and relative prices of a number of important commodities are shown for certain months since 1913.

WHOLESALE PRICES IN JULY, 1917 TO 1919, AND IN CERTAIN MONTHS OF 1920 AND 1921, AS COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICES IN 1913.1

Average money prices.

	:			July-			19	920						1921				
Article.	Unit.	1913	1917	1918	1919	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Oct.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.
FOODSTUFFS.																		
(a) Animal.																		
Cattle, good to choice	100 lbs	\$8.507	\$12.560	\$17,625	\$16.869	\$15,938	\$13.906	\$15.381	\$14,688	\$9.840	\$9.313	\$9, 563	\$8.719	\$8.425	\$8.094	\$8.406	\$8.775	\$8.37
steers. Beef, fresh, good native	Lb	. 130	. 164	. 240	. 208	. 232	. 209	. 255	. 252	.174	.160	. 163	. 165	. 165	1.60	.149	. 160	. 160
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.	100 lbs Lb Lb Bbl 100 lbs Lb Doz	18. 923 8. 365 127 166 110 22. 471 4. 687 103 310 226 .035	30. 500 15. 460 248 240 201 42. 250 8. 600 .145 .376 .318 .050	34, 875 17, 720 276 303 , 264 48, 500 10, 975 , 206 , 432 , 374 , 054	34, 300 22, 225 .337 .384 .351 58, 900 8, 125 .159 .512 .416 .071	18, 625 15, 094 221 294 241 44, 875 10, 875 158 631 652 085	17. 000 14. 806 219 331 200 42. 813 14. 250 251 639 413 061	18, 125 14, 856 207 377 191 36, 250 6, 594 170 553 423 070	19. 500 14, 775 .217 .358 .206 30. 500 5. 219 .114 .568 .570 .084	17. 000 9. 305 .143 .249 .136 29. 750 3. 450 .113 .483 .598 .075	17. 000 9. 156 .144 .260 .125 31. 500 3. 688 .094 .476 .352 .062	17. 000 9. 463 154 273 122 30. 100 4. 031 116 460 271 052	17. 000 8. 225 139 276 105 28. 063 4. 406 134 450 238 052	17. 000 8. 195 .134 .273 .097 25. 350 4. 125 .136 .292 .218 .056	13.750 8.125 .138 .282 .102 24.250 2.688 .093 .319 .239 .049	13.000 9.725 .142 .320 .121 24.500 2.906 .104 .386 .285 .054	13. 000 9. 690 .149 .325 .119 25. 350 3. 075 .090 .404 .302 .069	13. 000 7. 950 138 276 111 25. 623 3. 156 .088 .414 .333 .069
(b) Vegetable.																		
Wheat, No. 1, northern. Wheat flour, standard,	Bu Bbl		2. 582 12. 750	2. 170 2 10. 702	2. 680 12. 155	2.931 14.444	3.006 14.281	2.831 13.669	2. 106 11. 206	1.788 9.625	1.671 9.181	1.614 8,730	1.406 7.950	1.492 8.745	1.499 9.006	1. 438 8. 900	1.395 8.120	1. 483 8. 319
patent. Corn, No. 2, mixed Corn meal. Oats, standard, in store. Rye, No. 2. Rye flour Barley, fair to good, malting.	Bu 100 lbs Bu Bu Bbl	.625 1.601 .376 .636 3.123 .625	2. 044 4. 880 . 764 2. 226 11. 620 1. 391	1. 665 4. 825 . 765 1. 705 10. 440 1. 125	1. 920 4. 488 . 764 1. 555 8. 050 1. 268	1, 503 3, 080 , 836 1, 766 9, 538 1, 494	1. 706 3. 775 1. 003 2. 007 11. 138 1. 656	1. 549 3. 590 . 935 2. 232 11. 650 1. 214	. 888 2. 150 . 530 1. 696 9. 813 . 923	.682 1.350 .454 1.648 9.756 .750	.665 1.425 .431 1.488 8.794 .689	.649 1.375 .432 1.447 8.150 .714	.578 1.200 .378 1.339 7.331 .636	.616 1, 250 .392 1, 467 7, 760 .657	.614 1.488 .377 1.284 7.300 .639	.614 1.350 .371 1.223 7.094 .645	.570 1.100 .360 1.066 6.545 .629	. 53 1, 07 . 38 1, 06 6, 86 . 60
Rice, Honduras, head Potatoes, white Sugar, granulated	Lb Bu Lb	.051 .614 .043	. 071 2. 375 . 075	. 094 1. 035 . 074	. 117 1. 683 . 088	. 127 2. 621 . 154	. 123 4. 249 3. 192	3. 570 3. 191	. 079 1. 069 . 108	. 046 . 780 . 076	.048 .683 .071	.045 .732 .078	.040 .596 .073	.035 .841 .063	.039 .983 .057	.033 1.485 .055	. 044 1. 866 . 058	1, 53 1, 53
TEXTILES AND LEATHER GOODS.																		
Cotton, upland, mid-	Lb	. 128	. 261	.312	.351	. 393	. 424	.410	. 226	. 167	. 139	.118	. 121	.129	.120	.124	. 139	. 20

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	Cotton yarn, carded, 10/1. Print cloth, 27-inch Sheeting, brown, Pep-	Lb Yd Yd	. 221 . 035 . 073	.450 .073 .140	.641 .113 (4)	.591 .116 .219	.727 .149 .285	.778 .165 (4)	.701 .142 (4)	. 434 . 082 . 201	. 288 . 058 . 121	. 278 . 053 . 118	. 245 . 045 . 113	. 239 . 043 . 100	. 249 . 043 . 100	. 255 . 043 . 100	. 241 . 043 . 100	.259 .047 .100	.345 .058 .126
	perell. Bleached muslin, Lonsdale.	Yd	.081	. 157	. 245	. 274	.323	.333	. 333	. 239	. 154	. 152	. 152	.152	. 149	. 137	. 137	. 137	.139
	Wool, 4 and 3 grades, scoured.	Lb	. 471	1.200	1.437	1. 236	1. 236	1. 200	. 909	.727	. 546	. 546	. 527	. 527	. 509	. 491	. 491	. 473	. 473
	Worsted yarn, 2-32s Clay worsted suitings,	Lb Yd	.777 1.382	1.600 3.250	2.150 4.450	1.600 (4)	2.250 (4)	2. 200 5. 423	1.750 5.423	1. 150 4. 163	1.500 3.363	1.150 2.858	1.200 2.575	1.200 2.565	1.250 2.565	1.200 2.565	1.150 2.565	1.150 2.565	1.150 2.565
	16-ounce. Storm serge, all-wool, 50-inch.	Yd	. 563	1.176	1.470	1.223	1.421	1.421	1,421	1.150	1.047	. 885	. 885	. 885	. 885	. 885	. 885	. 885	. 885
	Hides, packers' heavy native steers Leather, chrome calf Leather, sole, oak	Lb Sq.ft Lb	.184 .270 .449	.330 .540 .815	.324 .640 .830	. 486 1. 100 . 950	.400 1.275 .915	.361 1.250 .915	. 294 . 875 . 900	.255 .750 .800	.168 .525 .600	.136 .525 .550	.115 .525 .575	.101 .525 .575	.119 .525 .550	.140 .525 .550	. 139 . 525 . 550	.141 .525 .525	.141 .525 .525
	Shoes, men's, Goodyear welt, vici calf, blucher. Shoes, women's, Good- year welt, kid, 9-inch	Pair	3, 113	4.750	5.645	7.476	9.282	9.600	9.100	7.944	7. 250	7. 250	7. 250	7.000	7.000	7.000	7.000	7.000	7.000
	lace 5	Pair	2,175	3. 500	5.000	7. 250	8,000	8. 250	7.750	7.000	7,000	7.000	6.871	6.000	5.884	5,600	5.600	5.600	5, 600
=	MINERAL AND METAL PRODUCTS.																		
0151	Coal, anthraeite, chest- nut	2,240 lbs.	5, 313	5. 933	6, 693	8.304	8.518	8. 522	9. 551	10.536	10.637	10.637	10,642	10.141	10. 241	10.360	10.502	10. 540	10.658
	mine	2,000 lbs.	2, 200	5,000	4.100	4.000	4.100	5. 500	6.000	7.100	5.600	5.100	4.850	4, 850	4.850	4.600	4.600	4.100	4.100
	shipment	2,000 lbs. Lb	2.538 .157 .167	15,000 .318 .338	6.000 .255 .285	4.172 .215 .244	6.000 .193 .228	10.500 .192 .230	17. 250 . 190 . 230	15.125 .168 .206	5.063 .129 .159	4.500 .129 .157	4.350 .122 .151	3.500 .125 .148	3.250 .128 .152	2.938 .128 .155	2.813 .125 .149	2.800 .117 .141	3.188 .120 .139
	Pig iron, Bessemer Steel billets Tinplate, domestic, coke.	2,240 lbs. 2,240 lbs.	17. 133 25. 789 3. 558	57. 450 100. 000 12. 000	36.600 47.500 7.750	29. 350 38. 500 7. 000	40, 400 48, 000 7, 000	43.650 60.000 7.000	47. 150 62. 500 7. 500	49. 210 55. 000 8. 625	33, 960 43, 500 7, 000	31. 460 42. 250 7. 000	28. 160 38. 400 7. 000	26. 160 37. 500 6. 438	26. 160 37. 000 6. 250	24.710 37.000 6.250	22, 835 32, 250 5, 688	21. 960 29. 600 5. 250	21. 960 29. 000 5. 250
	Pig tin. Pig lead Spelter.	Lb	. 449 . 044 . 058	.620 .114 .093	. 932 . 680 . 087	.702 .056 .079	.637 .087 .097	.623 .090 .086	. 491 . 086 . 082	. 406 . 073 . 075	.355 .050 .059	.326 .047 .054	. 288 . 041 . 052	.304 .043 .052	. 322 . 050 . 054	. 290 . 045 . 049	. 278 . 044 . 048	. 267 . 044 . 047	. 268 . 046 . 047
	Petroleum, crude, Penn- sylvania Petroleum, crude, Kan-	Bbl	2, 450	3. 100	4,000	4. 000	5. 063	6, 100	6, 100	6.100	5.775	4, 188	3.000	3.188	3.350	2.625	2.250	2. 250	2.313
	sas-Oklahoma Petroleum, refined, wa-	Bbl	.934	1.700	2. 250	2.250	2.900	3, 500	3, 500	3, 500	3. 400	1,938	1.750	1.750	1,500	1.188	1.000	1.000	1.000
	ter-white	Gal	.123	.120	.171	.205	. 224	. 260 . 285	.260	.290	.290	. 275	. 263	. 254	.240	.220	.220	.220	.220 .240

This table is published quarterly, in the February, May, August, and November issues of the Monthly Labor Review.
 Standard war flour.
 Estimated price. No market quotation.
 No quotation.
 Prior to January, 1918, prices are for gun metal, button.

WHOLESALE PRICES IN JULY, 1917 TO 1919, AND IN CERTAIN MONTHS OF 1920 AND 1921, AS COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICES IN 1913—Continued.

Average money prices—Concluded.

				July—			19	920						1921				
Article.	Unit.	1913	19 1 7	1918	1919	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Oct.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.
BUILDING MATERIALS.																		
Brick, red, domestic, building	1,000	\$6.200				\$16.643	\$18.617	\$19.845	\$19.723	\$18.464	\$18, 295	\$17.719	\$16.869	\$16.049	\$15.640	\$15, 177	\$14, 838	\$14.09
Cement, Portland, do- mestic Lime, common, lump	Bbl Net ton.	. 971 4. 430	\$1.650	\$1.700	\$1.650	1.650 9.775	1,650 10,621	1.800 11.087	1.950 11.854	1, 931 11, 156	1.718 10.889	1.700 10.789	1.700 10.694	1.700 10.549	1.700 9.915	1,700 9,869	1.700 9.228	1. 593 9. 163
Glass, plate, polished, 5 to 10 square feet			3. 420 5. 625	. 460 5. 700 5. 125	. 580 6. 200 5. 750	.750 6.555 17,000	. 820 6, 555 17, 000	. 820 6, 555 16, 000	. 820 6. 555 10. 500	. 820 6. 555 8. 750	. 820 6. 555 8. 250	. 820 6. 555 8. 750	. 820 6. 555 8. 750	.700 5.130 8.750	.700 5.130 8.500	.700 5.130 8.750	.700 5.130 8.750	5. 130 9. 250
Douglas fir, No. 1 Hemlock Oak, white, plain	1,000 ft 1,000 ft 1,000 ft	9. 208 624. 227 760. 591	18.500 628.000 769.000	19.500 634.500 775.500	28, 500 39, 150 70, 000	37, 500 50, 150 127, 500	37, 500 55, 350 155, 000	29, 500 51, 750 142, 500	24, 500 46, 900 108, 750	15, 500 40, 750 75, 000	12, 500 35, 000 67, 500	12, 500 36, 500 61, 000	12.500 33.500 57.500	11.500 33.300 53.500	11, 500 32, 000 55, 000	11. 500 30. 125 55. 250	10.500 29.000 52.500	10, 500 29, 000 52, 500
Pine, yellow, flooring Shingles, red cedar Nails, wire, 8-penny	1,000 100 lbs	1.967 1.819	33, 420 3, 000 4, 100	34. 030 3. 080 3. 600	61, 630 4, 820 3, 350	94. 410 6. 570 4. 600	97. 090 5. 720 4. 100	65. 320 4. 570 4. 100	52, 990 3, 220 4, 350	36, 890 2, 490 3, 350	33. 990 2. 560 3. 313	31. 920 2. 400 3. 120	30, 710 2, 420 3, 225	31. 780 2. 570 3. 150	32. 390 2. 520 3. 100	32, 270 2, 430 2, 913	32, 520 2, 500 2, 850	35, 790 3, 060 2, 963
Pipe, cast-fron, 6-inch Steel, structural Lead, carbonate of		23.371	65. 525	61.750	50. 920 . 027	67.300	74, 300	76.300 .032	77. 220 . 032	63.300	63.300	63, 300	63.300	61.300	53.300	52.300 .023	45.300	47.30
(white)	Lb Gal	.068 .462 .428	.128 1.120 .420	.136 1.770 .700	.130 2.115 1.176	. 146 1. 770 1. 885	. 155 1. 828 2. 575	.155 1.520 1.599	.155 1.076 1.230	.132 .782 .724	.130 .655 .609	.130 .658 .584	.130 .604 .591	.130 .700 .717	.130 .750 .604	.129 .744 .613	.123 .743 .633	.12 .74 .71

A of the	1010		July-			19	20						1921				
Article.	1913	1917	1918	1919	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Oct.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.
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. (b) Vegetable.	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. 3 217. 3 182. 5 240. 0 215. 8 234. 2 200. 0 139. 4 165. 6 154. 3	198. 3 160. 0 181. 3 265. 7 265. 4 231. 3 319. 1 262. 1 173. 4 154. 4 165. 2 184. 1 202. 9	187. 4 178. 5 98. 4 180. 4 177. 1 219. 1 199. 7 232. 0 153. 4 203. 5 242. 9	163. 5 160. 8 89. 8 177. 0 172. 4 181. 8 190. 5 304. 0 243. 7 206. 1 182. 7 174. 3	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	172. 7 193. 8 103. 0 176. 6 170. 9 215. 7 187. 3 135. 7 111. 4 110. 7 183. 2 252. 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. 5 113. 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. 7 97. 1 108. 7 169. 9 92. 7 107. 9 57. 4 90. 3 102. 9 105. 8 140. 0	98.8 114.6 68.7 116.3 111.8 192.8 110.0 109.0 62.0 101.0 124.5 126.1 154.3	103. 2 123. 1 68. 7 115. 8 117. 3 195. 8 108. 2 112. 8 65. 6 87. 4 130. 3 133. 6 197. 1	98. 4 123. 1 68. 7 95. 0 108. 7 166. 3 104. 5 114. 0 67. 3 85. 4 132. 3 147. 3
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 ² 233. 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	335. 4 315. 1 240. 5 192. 4 222. 3 277. 7 305. 4 239. 0 249. 0 426. 9 358. 1	343. 9 311. 5 273. 0 236. 1 266. 8 315. 6 321. 2 265. 0 241. 2 692. 0 3 446. 5	323. 9 298. 2 247. 8 224. 5 248. 5 248. 7 350. 9 335. 9 194. 2 245. 1 581. 4 444. 2	241. 0 244. 5 142. 1 134. 3 141. 0 266. 7 314. 2 147. 7 154. 9 174. 1 251. 2	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. 6 137. 0 146. 5	171. 5 196. 5 98. 2 92. 9 100. 3 201. 9 233. 7 102. 2 76. 5 160. 1 132. 6	164. 5 194. 2 98. 2 84. 3 98. 7 192. 3 227. 1 103. 2 64. 7 241. 9 127. 9	159.6 177.1 91.2 68.7 95.7 167.6 209.6 100.6 86.3 303.9 134.9	169.7 181.5 86.2 67.1 102.1 166.7 219.8 97.3 94.1 249.8 130.2

² Standard war flour, ³ Estimated prices. No market quotation.

⁶ Price at New York; prices in subsequent months are at Chicago.
⁷ 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—Concluded.**

	1010		July—			19	20						1921				
Article.	1913	1917	1918	1919	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Oct.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.
TEXTILES AND LEATHER GOODS.																	
Cotton, upland, middling Cotton yarn, carded, 10/1. Printcloth, 27-inch Sheeting, brown, Pepperell. Bleached muslin, Lonsdale. Wool, ‡ and § grades, scoured. Worsted yarn, 2-32s. Clay worsted suitings, 16-ounce. Storm serge, all wool, 50-inch. Hides, packers' heavy native steers. Leather, chrome calf. Leather, sole, oak. Shoes, men's, Goodyear welt, vici calf, blucher. Shoes, women's, Goodyear welt, kid, 8-inch lace 5.	100 100 100 100	203. 9 203. 6 208. 6 191. 8 193. 8 254. 8 205. 9 235. 2 200. 0 181. 5 152. 6	243. 8 289. 6 322. 9 (4) 302. 5 305. 1 276. 7 322. 0 261. 1 176. 1 237. 0 184. 9 181. 3	274. 2 267. 4 331. 4 300. 0 338. 3 262. 4 205. 9 (1) 217. 2 264. 1 407. 4 211. 6 240. 2	307. 0 329. 0 425. 7 390. 4 398. 8 262. 4 289. 6 (4) 472. 2 203. 8 298. 2	331. 3 352. 0 471. 4 (4) 406. 1 254. 8 283. 1 392. 4 252. 4 196. 2 463. 0 203. 8 308. 4	320, 3 317, 2 405, 7 (4) 406, 1 193, 0 225, 2 392, 4 159, 8 324, 1 200, 4 292, 3 293, 3	176. 6 196. 4 234. 3 275. 3 295. 1 154. 3 193. 1 301. 2 204. 3 138. 6 277. 8 178. 2 255. 2	130. 5 130. 3 165. 7 165. 8 190. 1 115. 9 148. 0 243. 3 194. 4 133. 6 232. 9 265. 0	108.6 125.8 151.4 161.6 187.7 115.9 148.0 206.8 157.2 73.9 194.4 122.5 232.9	92. 2 110. 9 128. 6 154. 8 187. 7 111. 9 154. 4 186. 3 157. 2 62. 5 194. 4 128. 1 232. 9 260. 2	94.5 108.1 122.9 137.0 187.7 111.9 154.4 185.6 157.2 54.9 194.4 128.1 224.9	100. 8 112. 7 122. 9 137. 0 184. 0 108. 1 160. 9 185. 6 157. 2 64. 7 194. 4 122. 5 224. 9	93.8 115.4 122.9 137.0 169.1 104.2 154.4 185.6 157.2 76.1 194.4 122.5 224.9	96. 9 109. 1 122. 9 137. 0 169. 1 104. 2 148. 0 185. 6 157. 2 75. 5 194. 4 122. 5 224. 9	108. 6 117. 2 134. 3 137. 0 169. 1 100. 4 148. 0 185. 6 157. 2 76. 6 194. 4 116. 9 224. 9	159. 156. 165. 172. 171. 100. 148. 185. 157. 76. 194. 116. 224.
MINERAL AND METAL PRODUCTS. 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 fin Pig lead. Spelter. Petroleum, crude, Pennsylvania Petroleum, rende, Kansas-Oklahoma. Petroleum, rende, Kansas-Oklahoma. Petroleum, rende, water-white. Gasoline, motor.	100 100 100 100	111. 7 227. 3 591. 0 282. 5 202. 4 335. 3 387. 8 337. 3 138. 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. 3 196. 7 156. 3 124. 7 136. 2 163. 3 240. 9 166. 8	160. 3 186. 4 236. 4 122. 9 136. 5 235. 8 186. 1 196. 7 141. 9 197. 7 167. 2 206. 7 310. 5 182. 1 153. 0	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	179. 8 272. 7 679. 7 121. 0 137. 7 275. 2 242. 4 210. 8 109. 4 195. 5 141. 4 249. 0 374. 7 211. 4 178. 6	198. 3 322. 7 595. 9 107. 0 123. 4 287. 2 213. 3 242. 4 90. 4 165. 9 129. 3 249. 0 374. 7 235. 8 184. 5	200. 2 254. 5 199. 5 82. 2 95. 2 198. 2 168. 7 79. 1 113. 6 101. 7 235. 7 364. 0 235. 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. 4 180. 9 67. 7 97. 7 89. 7 130. 1 187. 4 206. 5	192. 8 220. 5 128. 1 81. 5 91. 0 152. 7 71. 7 113. 6 93. 1 136. 7 160. 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	197. 7 209. 1 110. 8 79. 6 89. 2 133. 3 125. 1 159. 9 61. 9 100. 0 82. 8 91. 8 107. 1 178. 9	198. 4 186. 4 110. 3 74. 5 84. 4 128. 2 114. 8 147. 6 59. 5 100. 0 91. 8 107. 1 178. 9	200. 186. 125. 76. 83. 128. 112. 147. 59. 104. 81. 94. 107. 178.

72156~—21——6	Lath, 14-inch slab Douglas fir, No. 1. Hemlock Oak, white, plain Pine, vellow, flooring Shingles, red cedar. Nails, wire, 8-penny. Pipe, cast-iron, 6-inch Steel, structural Lead, carbonate of (white).	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	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	144. 7 256. 6 119. 6 211. 8 6 142. 4 7 124. 6 147. 7 156. 6 197. 9 264. 2 206. 3 200. 0	182. 4 279. 2 134. 2 309. 5 6 169. 2 7 160. 9 267. 5 245. 0 184. 2 217. 9 168. 8 191. 2	245. 1 169. 9 235. 6 235. 9 295. 1 396. 8 407. 3 319. 5 221. 5 409. 8 334. 0 252. 9 288. 0 168. 8 214. 7	274. 0 169. 9 256. 2 257. 9 295. 1 396. 8 407. 3 244. 5 388. 4 421. 5 290. 8 225. 4 317. 9 218. 8 227. 9	292. 1 185. 4 267. 3 257. 9 295. 1 373. 5 320. 4 228. 6 357. 1 283. 6 320. 3 225. 4 326. 5 200. 0 227. 9	290. 3 200. 8 285. 8 257. 9 295. 1 245. 1 266. 1 272. 5 207. 1 230. 0 163. 7 239. 1 330. 4 200. 0 227. 9	271. 9 198. 8 269. 1 257. 9 295. 1 204. 3 168. 3 180. 0 187. 9 160. 1 126. 6 184. 2 270. 8 175. 0 194. 1	269. 2 176. 9 262. 5 257. 9 295. 1 192. 6 135. 8 159. 0 169. 2 147. 6 130. 1 182. 1 270. 8 175. 0	260. 8 175. 0 260. 1 257. 9 295. 1 204. 3 135. 8 156. 7 152. 8 138. 6 123. 0 171. 5 270. 8 162. 5 191. 2	248. 4 175. 0 257. 8 257. 9 295. 1 204. 3 135. 8 148. 0 144. 1 133. 3 270. 8 162. 5 191. 2	236. 2 175. 0 254. 3 220. 1 231. 0 204. 3 124. 9 147. 0 134. 1 138. 0 7 173. 2 262. 3 162. 5 191. 2	230. 2 175. 0 239. 1 220. 1 231. 0 198. 4 124. 9 141. 3 137. 8 140. 6 128. 1 170. 4 228. 1 156. 3 191. 2	223. 4 175. 0 238. 0 220. 1 231. 0 204. 3 124. 9 133. 1 138. 5 140. 1 123. 8 143. 8 143. 8 143. 8	218. 5 175. 0 222. 6 220. 1 231. 0 204. 3 114. 0 128. 2 131. 6 141. 2 127. 1 156. 7 193. 8 137. 5 180. 9	207. 5 164. 0 220. 8 220. 1 231. 0 215. 9 114. 0 128. 2 131. 6 155. 4 155. 6 162. 9 202. 4 131. 3 180. 9
	Steel, structural																	

[1019]

⁴ No quotation. ⁵ Prior to January, 1918, prices are for gun metal, button.

⁶ Price at New York; prices in subsequent months are at Chicago.
⁷ Price at New York; prices in subsequent months are at Cincinnati.

Changes in Cost of Living in the United States.

for September, 1921, the results of which are shown in the following tables. The information is based on actual prices secured from merchants and dealers for each of the periods named. The prices of food and fuel and light are furnished the Bureau of Labor Statistics in each city in accordance with arrangements made with establishments through personal visits of the bureau's agents. In each city food prices are secured from 15 to 25 merchants and dealers, and fuel and light prices from 10 to 15 firms, including public utilities. All other data are secured by special agents of the bureau who visit the various merchants, dealers, and agents, and secure the figures directly from their records. Four quotations are secured in each city (except in Greater New York where five are obtained), on each of a large number of articles of clothing, furniture, and miscellaneous items. Rental figures are secured for from 250 to 950 houses and apartments in each city, according to its population.

Table 1 shows the decreases in the total cost of living from June, 1920, and May, 1921, to September, 1921, in 32 cities and the United States, as determined by a consolidation of the figures for the 32 cities.

TABLE 1.—DECREASE IN TOTAL COST OF LIVING FROM JUNE, 1920, AND MAY, 1921, TO SEPTEMBER, 1921.

		of decrease m—			of decrease m—
City.	June, 1920, to Septem- ber, 1921.	May, 1921, to Septem- ber, 1921.	City.	June, 1920, to Septem- ber, 1921.	May, 1921, to Septem- ber, 1921.
Atlanta, Ga Baltimore, Md Birmingham, Ala Boston, Mass. Buffalo, N. Y Chicago, Ill Cincinnati, Ohio Cleveland, Ohio Denver, Colo Detroit, Mich Houston, Tex Indianapolis, Ind. Jacksonville, Fla Kansas City, Mo Los Angeles, Calif Memphis, Tenn Minneapolis, Minn	17. 6 15. 7 18. 0 19. 5 18. 3 19. 6 17. 0 16. 1 20. 3 17. 5 18. 4 17. 5 17. 9 12. 3	3.6 .5 2.0 .9 1.1 1.7 2.8 2.6 .6 2.7 2.6 1.0 3.8 2.7 1.1 1.3	New Orleans, La. New York, N. Y. Norfolk, Va. Philadelphia, Pa. Pritsburgh, Pa. Portland, Me. Portland, Oreg. Richmond, Va. St. Louis, Mo. San Francisco and Oakland, Calif Savannah, Ga Scranton, Pa. Seattle, Wash Washington, D. C. United States.	16.6	(1) 1, 1 2, 2 2, 1 2, 6 1, 1 1, 0 . 6 9 1, 3 3, 5 1, 5 2, 6 . 6

¹ No change.

Table 2 shows the changes from December, 1914, to September, 1921, by specified periods in 19 cities, while Table 3 shows the changes from December, 1917, to September, 1921, for 13 cities. Table 4 shows the changes for the United States. The figures in this table are a summarization of the figures in the 32 cities shown in Tables 2 and 3, computed on a 1913 base.

In studying the following table it should be borne in mind that the figures of the 19 cities in Table 2 are based on the prices prevailing

in December, 1914, the figures for the 13 cities in Table 3 are based on the prices prevailing in December, 1917, while the figures for the United States, shown in Table 4, are a summarization of the figures

in Tables 2 and 3, computed on a 1913 base.

It will be noted that from the beginning of the studies to June, 1920, there was, with an occasional exception, a steady increase in prices, becoming much more decided during the latter part of that period. From June to December, 1920, however, there was an appreciable drop in the figures representing the combined expenditures. While rents and fuel and light continued to advance considerably and miscellaneous items to a less extent, the large decrease in food and clothing and the somewhat smaller decrease in furniture and house furnishings had the effect of reducing the totals for December by from 2.5 to 10 per cent in the several cities below the price for June. figures for the period from December, 1920, to May, 1921, show a larger decrease than the previous six-month period, ranging from 7.2 to 11.9 per cent. The small decrease in furniture and furnishings and the increase in fuel and light shown in the period from June to December, 1920, were changed to decided decreases in the period from December, 1920, to May, 1921, while the rapid decrease in food and clothing shown in the former period continued. However, housing made an appreciable advance while miscellaneous items increased only slightly.

In the period from May, 1921, to September, 1921, the downward movement from the peak of June, 1920, did not nearly reach the figures of the two previous periods, the decreases ranging from 0.1 to only 3.8 per cent, while one city showed no change for combined

expenditures.

This was due mainly to the increase in food, the entire 32 cities showing an advance in this item. On the other hand, each of the 32 cities showed substantial decreases in both clothing and furniture and furnishings. Twenty-two of the cities showed a slight decrease in miscellaneous, while in 18 fuel and light showed a similar tendency. Housing has continued to increase from period to period even since June, 1920. However, this report shows that in eight of the cities there was a decrease in rents and three cities showed no change in this item.

Table 2.—CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN 19 CITIES FROM DECEMBER, 1914, TO SEPTEMBER, 1921.

Bal	timore.	M	d
-		-	

		1	Per cent	of incr	ease fro	m Dece	mber, 1	914, to-	-			
Item of expenditure.	Dec.,	Dec.,	Dec.,	Dec.,	June,	Dec.,	June,	Dec.,	May,	Sept.,		
	1915.	1916.	1917.	1918.	1919.	1919.	1920.	1920.	1921.	1921.		
Food	1 4.1	20. 9	64.4	96. 4	91.1	92. 5	110. 9	75. 6	43. 4	48.		
Clothing	2.7	24. 0	52.1	107. 7	128.9	177. 4	191. 3	159. 5	123. 2	101.		
Housing	1.2	. 9	3.0	13. 8	16.8	25. 8	41. 6	49. 5	63. 0	64.		
Fuel and light.	.5	9. 1	25.5	46. 0	37.1	48. 1	57. 6	79. 0	70. 9	84.		
Furniture and furnishings.	5.6	26. 4	60.8	122. 3	134.6	167. 0	191. 8	181. 9	147. 5	128.		
Miscellaneous	1 1.4	18. 5	51.3	78. 7	82.8	99. 4	111. 4	112. 9	111. 8	112.		
Total	11.4	18.5	51.3	84.7	84.0	98.4	114.3	96.8	77.4	78.		

¹ Decrease.

Table 2.—CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN 19 CITIES FROM DECEMBER, 1914, TO SEPTEMBER, 1921—Continued.

Boston, Mass.

		I	Per cent	of iner	ease fro	m Dece	mber, 1	1914, to-	-	
Item of expenditure.	Dec., 1915.	Dec., 1916.	Dec., 1917.	Dec., 1918.	June, 1919.	Dec., 1919.	June, 1920.	Dec., 1920.	May 1921.	Sept., 1921.
Food Clothing Housing Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings Miscellaneous	1 0.3 6.6 1.1 1.1 8.4 1.6	18.0 21.9 .1 10.5 26.3 15.7	45.8 47.5 1.1 29.2 58.4 38.1	74. 9 117. 5 2. 8 56. 6 137. 6 62. 0	67. 9 137. 9 5. 1 55. 0 153. 7 64. 8	80.8 192.4 12.2 63.2 198.7 81.1	105.0 211.1 16.2 83.6 233.7 91.8	74. 4 192. 7 25. 8 106. 0 226. 4 96. 6	41. 9 150. 3 29. 8 97. 8 171. 2 96. 2	52.1 118.8 31.6 94.4 139.5 94.6
Total	1.6	15.7	38.1	70.6	72.8	92.3	110.7	97.4	74.4	72.8
		В	uffalo,	N. Y						
Food. Clothing. Housing. Fuel and light. Furniture and furnishings. Miscellaneous	2.4 8.9 1.2 1.3 7.1 3.5	30.1 29.6 4.7 9.3 24.1 24.4	64.1 58.5 9.4 23.5 50.2 51.1	87.8 123.1 20.7 49.3 106.3 76.0	82.9 140.7 28.0 51.9 118.1 78.7	94.7 190.8 29.0 55.7 165.4 90.3	115.7 210.6 46.6 69.8 199.7 101.9	78. 5 168. 7 48. 5 74. 9 189. 2 107. 4	37. 7 131. 6 61. 1 73. 9 151. 3 107. 8	49. 9 102. 4 61. 7 79. 5 130. 9 105. 7
	-		Chicag			1				
Food Clothing Housing Fuel and light. Furniture and furnishings Miscellaneous	2.7 7.5 1.1 1.9 5.9 3.0	25. 2 24. 2 .7 6. 6 20. 0 19. 5	53. 4 50. 6 1. 4 19. 3 47. 5 41. 8	78.7 138.9 2.6 37.1 108.9 58.7	73.3 157.1 8.0 35.7 126.9 61.7	93.1 224.0 14.0 40.1 176.0 84.3	120. 0 205. 3 35. 1 62. 4 215. 9 87. 5	70. 5 158. 6 48. 9 83. 5 205. 8 96. 5	41. 9 122. 7 78. 2 65. 3 162. 4 98. 5	51. 3 86. 0 79. 8 67. 1 138. 0 97. 5
Total	3.0	19.5	41.8	72.2	74.5	100.6	114.6	93.3	78.4	75. 3
		Cl	levelan	d, Ohi	0.					
Food. Clothing. Housing. Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings. Miscellaneous.	1.4 2.0 .1 .3 4.7 1.4	26. 4 18. 0 . 9 10. 0 19. 7 19. 1	54. 3 43. 7 11. 3 26. 8 47. 8 42. 9	79. 4 102. 6 16. 5 51. 9 102. 4 67. 1	79. 7 125. 2 21. 8 47. 9 117. 0 74. 7	92. 9 171. 2 39. 9 62. 9 112. 3 85. 9	118.7 185.1 47.3 90.3 129.1 117.9	71. 7 156. 0 80. 0 94. 5 121. 3 134. 0	37. 4 124. 0 88. 1 89. 6 86. 8 129. 6	47. 7 90. 8 82. 8 91. 9 67. 9 123. 4
Total	1.4	19.1	42.9	71.4	77.2	95.1	116.8	104.0	84.7	79.9
		1	Detroit,	Mich						
Food Clothing Housing. Fuel and light. Furniture and furnishings Miscellaneous	4.1 2.3 2.1 1.6 8.7 3.5	26. 5 18. 9 17. 5 9. 9 24. 5 22. 3	59. 7 46. 7 32. 6 30. 2 50. 4 49. 9	82. 5 113. 8 39. 0 47. 6 107. 3 72. 6	86. 4 125. 2 45. 2 47. 6 129. 3 80. 3	99. 5 181. 8 60. 2 57. 9 172. 6 100. 1	132.0 208.8 68.8 74.9 206.7 141.3	75. 6 176. 1 108. 1 104. 5 184. 0 144. 0	41.1 134.1 101.4 83.6 134.0 140.1	54. 3 99. 9 96. 6 81. 9 102. 9 131. 9
Total	3.5	22.3	49.9	78.0	84.4	107.9	136.0	118.6	93, 3	88.0
		I	Touston	n, Tex						
Food Clothing Housing. Fuel and light. Furniture and furnishings Miscellaneous	1 1.0 2.7 1 2.3 1.9 6.1 1.3	19.9 25.0 17.3 8.3 29.6 16.4	57.3 51.5 17.7 22.7 62.3 44.9	86.1 117.3 11.7 47.5 119.9 67.3	85.7 134.8 1.9 37.6 141.5 72.3	97.5 192.0 13.4 60.0 181.8 88.2	107. 5 211. 3 25. 3 55. 1 213. 9 90. 4	83.2 187.0 35.1 74.2 208.2 103.9	45. 6 143. 4 39. 4 46. 0 173. 7 100. 8	49. 7 111. 8 39. 4 39. 0 156. 7 100. 0
Total	1.3	16.4	44.9	75. 7	80.2	101.7	112.2	104.0	79.7	75.0

¹ Decrease.

Table 2.—CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN 19 CITIES FROM DECEMBER, 1914, TO SEPTEMBER, 1921—Continued.

Jacksonville, Fla.

_										
			Per cen	t of inci	rease fro	om Dec	ember,	1914, to	_	
Item of expenditure.	Dec., 1915.	Dec., 1916.	Dec., 1917.	Dec., 1918.	June, 1919.	Dec., 1919.	June, 1920.	Dec., 1920.	May, 1921.	Sept. 1921.
Food. Clothing. Housing Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings. Miscellaneous	10.5	17.6 33.7 118.2 2.3 43.4 14.7	50.8 71.9 1 18.7 15.1 73.7 41.6	76. 2 130. 5 5. 9 55. 2 126. 5 60. 5	74. 2 139. 8 9. 7 49. 2 140. 0 65. 9	80.9 217.2 22.0 64.1 186.2 80.9	90.1 234.0 28.9 72.6 224.2 102.8	65. 6 209. 3 34. 1 92. 6 222. 3 105. 6	32. 6 167. 5 36. 5 80. 7 182. 7 107. 5	43. 1 131. 1 37. 7 68. 1 140. 9 100. 9
Total	1.3	14.7	41.6	71.5	77.5	101.5	116.5	106.2	85.8	78.7
		Los	Angel	es, Cai	lif.	1	1	1	1	
Food Clothing Housing Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings Miscellaneous Total	1 4.1 2.8 1 2.7 .4 6.3 1 1.9	0. 4 14. 3 1 2. 5 2. 3 23. 1 7. 7	33. 4 45. 0 1. 6 10. 4 56. 4 28. 9	61. 8 109. 1 4. 4 18. 3 118. 5 52. 0	60. 7 123. 3 8. 7 18. 6 134. 2 59. 1	71. 0 167. 6 26. 8 35. 3 175. 5 76. 9	90. 8 184. 5 42. 6 53. 5 202. 2 86. 6	62. 7 166. 6 71. 4 53. 5 202. 2 100. 6	33. 2 127. 4 85. 3 52. 7 156. 6 96. 8	39. 3 98. 3 86. 0 52. 7 148. 4 98. 8
			Mobile		1 33.2	1 0000	1	1 00.7	10.1	70.0
Clothing Housing Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings Miscellaneous	1 1. 0 2. 0 1 1. 9 (2) 4. 1 1. 4	19.9 9.0 14.3 8.8 15.3 13.8	57. 3 38. 8 1 3. 6 27. 1 42. 8 43. 2	80. 6 86. 0 11. 2 57. 1 108. 3 72. 4	83. 6 94. 0 11. 9 66. 6 113. 9 75. 3	98. 4 123. 7 29. 6 75. 6 163. 3 87. 0	110. 5 137. 4 34. 6 86. 3 177. 9 100. 3	73. 5 122. 2 53. 6 122. 3 175. 4 100. 7	39.1 90.6 53.3 102.1 140.7 96.9	43. 7 68. 1 53. 1 97. 2 124. 3 96. 1
Total	1.4	13.8	43.2	71.4	76.6	94.5	107.0	93.3	70.8	67. 2
		Net	w Yor	k, N.	Y.					
Food Clothing Housing Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings Miscellaneous	1.3 4.8 1.1 1.1 8.4 2.0	16. 3 22. 3 1. 1 11. 0 27. 6 14. 9	55. 3 54. 2 2. 6 19. 9 56. 5 44. 7	82. 6 131. 3 6. 5 45. 5 126. 5 70. 0	75. 3 151. 6 13. 4 45. 4 136. 6 75. 1	91.0 219.7 23.4 50.6 172.9 95.8	105.3 241.4 32.4 60.1 205.1 111.9	73. 5 201. 8 38. 1 87. 5 185. 9 116. 3	42. 5 159. 5 42. 2 95. 9 156. 5 117. 6	50. 3 131. 5 44. 0 92. 4 136. 7 117. 8
Total	2.0	14.9	44.7	77.3	79.2	103.8	119.2	101.4	81.7	79.7
			Norfoli	k, Va.						
Food. Clothing Housing. Fuel and light. Furniture and furnishings. Miscellaneous.	0.8 .8 .1 (2) .6	22. 4 6. 0 1 1. 7 17. 0 8. 7 14. 7	63. 9 31. 6 1 1. 7 33. 3 39. 0 45. 2	86. 2 94. 6 39. 0 74. 6 105. 5 76. 8	89. 8 104. 8 46. 5 69. 7 110. 7 83. 7	91. 5 158. 4 63. 3 89. 9 143. 6 97. 5	107. 6 176. 5 70. 8 110. 6 165. 0 108. 4	76. 3 153. 6 90. 8 128. 9 160. 5 106. 3	45. 4 121. 6 94. 6 97. 3 129. 0 106. 3	50. 2 93. 9 94. 6 98. 1 110. 5 112. 5
Total	. 6	14.7	45. 2	80.7	87.1	107.0	122. 2	109.0	88.1	83. 9
		Ph	iladelp	hia, P	a.					
Food Clothing Housing Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings Miscellaneous	0.3 3.6 1.3 1.8 6.9 1.2	18. 9 16. 0 1. 7 5. 4 19. 9 14. 7	54. 4 51. 3 2. 6 21. 5 49. 8 43. 8	80. 7 111. 2 8. 0 47. 9 107. 7 67. 5	75. 5 135. 9 11. 3 43. 3 117. 8 71. 2	87. 2 190. 3 16. 7 51. 3 162. 8 88. 6	101. 7 219. 6 28. 6 66. 8 187. 4 102. 8	68. 1 183. 5 38. 0 96. 0 183. 4 122. 3	37. 8 144. 7 44. 2 85. 6 135. 5 119. 2	44. 6 112. 2 47. 1 89. 3 109. 1 116. 4
Total	1.2	14.7	43.8	73.9	76. 2	96.5	113.5	100.7	79.8	76.0
1 Decres	asa.				2 N	o chang	P.			

¹ Decrease.

[1023]

² No change.

Table 2.—CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN 19 CITIES FROM DECEMBER, 1914, TO SEPTEMBER, 1924—Concluded.

Portland, Me.

1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1919 1920 1920 1921 192 1920 1920 1921 1920 1920 1920 1921 1920 1]	Per cen	t of iner	ease fro	m Dece	mber, 1	1914, to-		
1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1919 1920 1920 1921 1920 1920 1920 1921 1920	Item of expenditure.	Dec.,								1	Sept.,
Clothing		1915.	1916.	1917.	1918.	1919. a	1919.6	1920.		1921.	1921.
Housing	Food	1 2. 0	18.6	49.8	86.8		91.9	114.5	78.7	46.7	56. 8
Fursiture and furnishings	Housing	9	9.7	2.4	2.5	5. 7	10.7	14.5	20.0	23.1	96. 6 23. 3
Formulation and infinishings	Fuel and light	. 4	11.4	28.9	67.7	58.4	69.8	83.9	113.5	96.8	90.9
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Furniture and furnishings Miscellaneous	6.2	20.9	43.5 38.0		126. 4 72. 1	163.7	190.3	94.3		139.1 94.1
Total	Total	1.4	13.8	38.0	72.2	74.3	91.6	107.6	93.1	72.1	72.0
Clothing			P	ortlan	d, Oreg	7.					
Clothing	Food	13.8	9.8			67.1	81.6	107.1			35.9
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Clothing	3.0	15.8	44.4	96.6	115.5	142.1	158.5	122.1	91.2	70.4
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Fuel and light	11.0	3.4	20. 2	30. 9	31.3	42.3	46. 9	65. 9	67.1	43.3 58.9
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Furniture and furnishings	2.9	18.0	54.5	109.0	122.1	145.1	183.9	179.9	148.0	126.9
$San\ Francisco\ and\ Oakland,\ Calif.$ $Food. $	MISCENARIEOUS	, 9. 1		-				_			80, 9
Food. 14.3 9.6 35.9 66.2 63.3 74.2 93.9 64.9 33.3 74.0 74.0 74.0 74.0 74.0 74.0 74.0 74.0	Total	13.1	6.1	31.2	64, 2	69. 2	83, 7	100.4	80.3	62, 2	60.5
Clothing. 2.5 14.5 43.6 109.0 134.6 170.4 191.0 175.9 140.9 1 Housing. 1.7 12.5 14.0 13.9 13.5 41.3 47.2 66.3 63.3 Furniture and light. 1.1 4.6 14.4 30.1 28.9 41.3 47.2 66.3 63.3 Furniture and furnishings 6.0 21.7 48.2 103.4 116.6 143.8 180.1 175.6 143.9 1 Miscellaneous 11.7 8.3 28.6 50.5 61.0 74.7 79.6 84.8 83.4 Total 11.7 8.3 28.6 57.8 65.6 87.8 96.0 85.1 66.7 Savannah, Ga. Food. 10.3 17.6 50.8 76.2 74.2 80.9 91.7 63.5 28.7 70.6 84.8 84.4 70.0 70		San .	Franci	sco an	d Oakl	land, (Calif.				
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Food.	14.3				63.3	74.2				40.6
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Housing	1.7	12.5	14.0	13.9	134.0		9.4		21. 7	110.1 23.6
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Fuel and light	1.1	4.6	14.4	30.1	28. 9	41.3	47.2	66.3	63.3	65.3
Savannah, Ga. Food	Miscellaneous	11.7	8.3	48. 2 28. 6	103.4	61.0	143.8	79.6	175.6 84.8	143. 9 84. 4	121.7 87.4
Food	Total	11.7	8.3	28.6	57.8	65. 6	87.8	96.0	85.1	66.7	64.6
Clothing			S	avann	ah, Ga	l.					
Clothing	Food	10.3	17.6	50.8	76. 2	74.2	80.9	91.7	63.5	28.7	36.8
Fuel and fight 1.3 11.7 1 21.1 37.5 35.5 52.2 65.3 94.4 74.2 Furniture and furnishings 1.8 12.8 50.7 128.6 136.5 182.1 207.2 206.6 175.9 1 Miscellaneous 1.2 14.5 42.5 67.3 71.2 82.0 83.8 91.5 93.0 Total 1.2 14.6 42.5 75.0 79.8 98.7 109.4 98.7 77.6 Seattle, Wash.	Clothing	8	24.1				195.9		171.5	133.2	101.3
Furniture and furnishings 1.8 12.8 50.7 128.6 136.5 182.1 207.2 206.6 175.9 1 Miscellaneous 1.2 14.5 42.5 67.3 71.2 82.0 83.8 91.5 93.0 Total 1.2 14.6 42.5 75.0 79.8 98.7 109.4 98.7 77.6 Seattle, Wash.	Finel and light	11.3	11.7	1 21.1	37.5	35.5		65.3			60.6
Total	Furniture and lurnishings	1.8	12.8	50.7	128.6	136.5	182.1	207.2	206.6	175.9	150.2
Seattle, Wash.						-			-	_	88.0
	Total	1.2	14.6	42.5	75.0	79.8	98.7	109.4	98.7	77.6	71.3
			S	Seattle,	Wash	•					
Food		12.8	8.5	38.7	72.5	69.3	80.9	102.3		27.1	34.9
Clothing 1.2 11.3 36.4 88.0 110.2 154.5 173.9 160.5 128.7 Housing 12.4 15.4 1.6 44.3 51.5 71.5 74.8 76.7 74.8	Housing	12.4	15.4	1.6	44.3			74.8		74.8	93. 5 71. 3
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Flief and light	1, 2	2.9	23.9	51.8	51.8	65.8	65.8	78.7	78.7	77.3 151.7
Furniture and furnishings 8.5 27.4 52.3 141.5 154.4 201.0 221.2 216.4 177.2 1 Miscellaneous	Miscellaneous	11.0	7.4			154.4				177. 2 105. 5	151. 7 105. 5
Total	Total	11.0	7.4	31.1	69. 9	76.9	97.7	110.5	94.1	80.2	75. 5
Washington, D. C.			Wa	shingto	on, D.	C.					
Food	Food	0.6	15.7	61.1	90. 9	2 84. 6	3 93.3	108.4		47.4	59.1
Clothing 3.7 23.2 60.1 112.6 109.5 165.9 184.0 151.1 115.9 Housing 11.5 13.7 13.4 11.5 11.4 5.4 15.6 24.7 28.8	Housing	11.5	13.7				5 4	15.6		115.9	89. 8 29. 1
Fuel and light	Fuel and light	(2)	7.3	24. 9	40.9	41.8	42.8	53.7	68.0	57.1	57.6
Furniture and furnishings 6.3 30.5 72.1 127.4 126.0 159.3 196.4 194.0 149.0 1. Miscellaneous	Furniture and furnishings Miscellaneous	6.3	30.5	72.1	127. 4 55. 9	126.0	159.3 62.7	196.4	194.0	149.0	132.1 70.5
		_	14.6	47.3	73.8	71.2		101.3	87.8	67.1	66.2

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 $[\]alpha$ Figures in this column for Washington, D. C., are for April, 1919. b Figures in this column for Washington, D. C., are for November, 1919.

¹ Decrease. ² No change.

Table 3 shows the changes in the cost of living from December, 1917, to September, 1921, for 13 cities. The table is constructed in the same manner as the preceding one and differs from it only in the base period, and in the length of time covered.

Table 3.—CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN 13 CITIES FROM DECEMBER, 1917, TO SEPTEMBER, 1921.

Atlanta, Ga.

	1	Per cent o	of increas	e from D	ecember	, 1917, to	_
Item of expenditure.	Dec., 1918.	June, 1919.	Dec., 1919.	June, 1920.	Dec., 1920.	May, 1921.	Sept., 1921.
Food. Clething. Housing Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings. Miscellaneous.	19. 0 29. 1 14. 0 17. 0 24. 9 14. 8	18. 0 40. 7 14. 5 17. 9 30. 1 21. 5	27. 9 66. 9 32. 6 30. 8 49. 9 31. 7	34. 0 80. 5 40. 4 61. 0 65. 0 34. 6	12. 8 56. 5 73. 1 66. 8 58. 4 39. 7	18,9 35,2 78,8 56,1 38,0 40,5	1 5. 8 13. 6 77. 0 46. 6 25. 3
Total	19.7	23. 3	37. 9	46. 7	38. 5	25.2	20.7
Birn	ninghai	n, Ala.					
Food. Clothing. Housing Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings Miscellaneous.	17. 7 23. 9 8. 1 22. 8 19. 4 13. 8	18.3 29.8 12.8 31.9 20.2 16.3	26. 5 57. 6 34. 9 39. 8 45. 1 26. 8	36. 4 .66. 4 40. 3 55. 3 55. 6 28. 7	11. 9 45. 1 68. 5 74. 2 48. 1 30. 4	1 9. 1 24. 8 77. 4 54. 3 32. 0 33. 8	1 6. 2 6. 7 76. 3 53. 1 15. 0 35. 9
Total	17. 0	19, 8	34. 3	41.9	33, 3	22.1	19.6
Cin	cinnati	, Ohio.					
Food. Clothing. Housing. Fuel and light. Furniture and furnishings. Miscellaneous.	15. 3 33. 8 . 2 10. 0 25. 7 20. 4	18.1 48.3 .8 5.6 30.5 21.8	22. 9 84. 2 12. 8 11. 0 51. 1 40. 3	38. 7 96. 7 13. 6 26. 9 75. 5 47. 6	10. 3 73. 5 25. 0 34. 1 66. 7 53. 4	17.4 49.0 27.6 15.7 39.7 52.3	1 2. 2 22. 6 28. 2 15. 6 25. 2 48. 2
Total	17. 3	21.1	35. 2	47.1	34. 7	21.7	18.3
D	enver,	Colo.					
Food. Clothing. Housing. Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings. Miscellaneous. Total	20. 0 40. 1 12. 8 8. 1 22. 6 14. 8	20. 7 53. 2 21. 8 8. 4 31. 3 17. 7	26. 0 82. 1 33. 5 19. 6 46. 3 32. 3	41. 5 96. 8 51. 9 22. 3 60. 2 35. 4	7. 9 78. 3 69. 8 47. 1 58. 9 38. 8	113. 1 53. 9 76. 9 37. 5 42. 5 42. 8	17, 8 33, 80, 1 40, 6 32, 44, 1
	ananol	is, Ind.					
	*	16. 4	28. 2	49.0	11.0	1 10.1	12.1
Food Clothing Housing Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings Miscellaneous	17. 8 32. 4 1. 6 19. 8 18. 9 21. 9	16. 4 40. 1 2. 6 16. 7 24. 8 26. 8	73. 8 11. 6 27. 3 48. 4 38. 2	87. 9 18. 9 45. 6 67. 5 40. 5	72.3 32.9 60.3 63.0 47.5	45. 8 37. 4 49. 4 35. 3 47. 4	21. 8 41. 4 47. 8 25. 0 46. 8
Total	19.1	21.1	36. 5	50.2	37.6	23. 9	22. (

¹ Decrease.

[1025]

Table 3.—CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN 13 CITIES FROM DECEMBER, 1917, TO SEPTEMBER, 1921—Continued.

Kansas City, Mo.

	P	er cent o	fincrease	e from D	ecember,	, 1917 ,to-	-
Item of expenditure.	Dec., 1918.	June, 1919.	Dec., 1919.	June, 1920.	Dec., 1920.	May, 1921.	Sept., 1921.
Food Clothing Housing Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings Miscellaneous	17. 3 40. 7 5. 4 18. 0 31. 1 15. 6	15. 1 44. 7 6. 7 9. 6 37. 9 20. 8	24. 5 89. 9 26. 0 27. 5 61. 8 31. 5	44. 9 104. 5 29. 4 35. 2 73. 0 37. 1	10. 2 76. 3 63. 9 55. 1 68. 7 40. 3	1 8. 3 52. 3 65. 0 43. 3 50. 0 40. 4	1 4. 3 27. 9 66. 2 43. 3 32. 8 38. 2
Total	19.6	20.6	38. 2	51.0	39. 5	27. 3	23. 9
Mer	mphis,	Tenn.					
Food Clothing Housing Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings Miscellaneous	20. 3 27. 7 (²) 26. 8 25. 4 16, 1	22. 7 38. 3 8. 2 23. 4 30. 7 20. 9	28. 4 66. 2 23. 1 34. 1 53. 2 28. 3	38. 8 77. 5 35. 9 49. 7 67. 1 33. 8	7. 0 59. 0 66. 2 105. 4 53. 9 43. 2	1 14. 2 36. 1 79. 7 64. 5 29. 9 42. 9	1 9. 2 20. 2 77. 7 66. 1 19. 2 42. 2
Total	18.3	23. 3	35, 2	46. 4	39. 3	26.7	25. 1
Minn	eapolis	s, Minn					
Food Clothing Housing Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings Miscellaneous	17. 7 33. 5 1. 1 14. 7 18. 1 12. 3	21. 4 40. 1 12. 0 13. 4 23. 6 15. 9	34. 1 67. 0 8. 0 22. 4 45. 6 25. 4	50. 0 76. 7 10. 7 36. 9 65. 5 31. 3	13. 0 63. 6 33. 8 60. 3 65. 8 37. 6	17.9 41.0 39.0 52.8 43.3 37.9	1 3. 5 18. 4 44. 0 50. 5 30. 5 37. 3
Total	15. 8	18.8	32.7	43.4	35. 7	23. 7	21, 6
Neu	o Orlean	ns, La.					
Food Clothing Housing Fuel and light. Furniture and furnishings. Miscellaneous.	16. 6 36. 5 (2) 19. 7 23. 8 15. 9	17. 4 48. 8 .1 20. 8 30. 0 17. 5	21. 1 83. 2 10. 8 24. 7 57. 7 35. 1	28. 6 94. 9 12. 9 36. 3 75. 9 42. 8	10. 7 69. 4 39. 7 41. 5 63. 9 57. 1	1 10. 7 45. 0 46. 7 29. 2 47. 7 58. 2	1 6. 4 29. 2 49. 5 36. 2 30. 7 61. 0
Total	17. 9	20.7	33. 9	41.9	36. 7	23. 8	23. 8
Pit	tsburgl	h, Pa.					
Food Jothing Housing Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings Misceilaneous	18.8 35.9 7.6 9.2 26.3 16.3	16. 2 45. 3 13. 5 9. 4 34. 1 16. 7	25. 1 82. 8 15. 5 9. 8 63. 1 28. 3	36. 5 91. 3 34. 9 31. 7 77. 4 41. 2	14, 3 75, 4 35, 0 64, 4 78, 1 46, 3	1 8. 8 50. 7 55. 5 59. 8 58. 2 48. 6	1 3. 0 27. 2 55. 5 55. 6 36. 2 47. 6
Total.	19.8	21.8	36. 2	49.1	39. 3	27.7	24. 4

Table 3.—CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN 13 CITIES FROM DECEMBER, 1917, TO SEP-TEMBER, 1921—Concluded.

Richmond, Va.

	Per cent of increase from December, 1917, to-									
Item of expenditure.	Dec., 1918.	June, 1919.	Dec., 1919.	June, 1920.	Dec., 1920.	May, 1921. 17.4 43.8 29.4 47.1 48.8 38.7	Sept., 1921.			
Food. Clothing. Housing. Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings. Miscellaneous.	20. 5 33. 8 1. 0 11. 8 26. 3 9. 0	20. 6 42. 3 3. 6 11. 4 28. 6 13. 5	23. 1 78. 6 9. 8 18. 7 55. 9 24. 0	36. 1 93. 6 12. 5 36. 1 75. 4 32. 4	11. 9 69. 0 25. 9 62. 2 70. 0 36. 0	43. 8 29. 4 47. 1 48. 8	1 1. (24. 2 33. (46. 3 36. (38. 4			
Total	17.9	20.6	32, 0	43.8	33, 3	20. 2	19.			

	-			-			
Food	18.0	16.1	26. 2	46.2	8.8	1 10, 1	14.
Clothing.	32.4	39.3	78.1	89.7	70.0	43.8	21. 2
Housing	2.7	3.8	16.8	29.8	42.4	52.5	61. 2
Fuel and light	4.8	3.7	8.2	19.6	42.6	30.9	29.
Furniture and furnishings	21.8	32.5	52.9	73.1	70.2	43.5	25, 1
Miscellaneous	14.5	15.7	30.3	37.6	43.2	42.1	42.0
Total.	16. 7	17.9	34.2	48.9	35. 4	23. 1	22. (

Scranton, Pa.

Food	21.3	18.1	26.9	41.4	17.8	14.0	2.8
Clothing	34.4	49.6	82.1	97.7	76.5	54.3	2.8
Housing	. 5	6.2	2.4	17.2	18.5	41.5	42. 2
Fuel and light	24.7	25.7	31.5	43.5	67.3	62.8	
Furniture and furnishings	27.0	35.6	48.9	62.8	62.0	48.6	64. 8
Miscellaneous	21.4	24.9	34.7	47.9	50.4	54.6	53. 8
Total.	21. 9	25. 0	37.1	51.5	39. 1	28. 2	26. 3

¹ Decrease.

The following table shows the changes in the cost of living in the United States from 1913 to September, 1921. These figures are a summarization of the figures in the 32 cities which appear in the preceding tables, computed on a 1913 base.

TABLE 4.—CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING IN THE UNITED STATES, 1913 TO SEPTEMBER, 1921.

			P	er cent	of incre	ease from	n 1913 (average) to—		
Item of expenditure.	Dec. 1914.	Dec. 1915.	Dec. 1916.	Dec. 1917.	Dec. 1918.	June, 1919.	Dec. 1919.	June, 1920.	Dec. 1920.	May, 1921.	Sept. 1921.
Food Clothing. Housing Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings. Miscellaneous	5. 0 1. 0 (1) 1. 0 4. 0 3. 0	5. 0 4. 7 1. 5 1. 0 10. 6 7. 4	26. 0 20. 0 2. 3 8. 4 27. 8 13. 3	57. 0 49. 1 .1 24. 1 50. 6 40. 5	87. 0 105. 3 9. 2 47. 9 113. 6 65. 8	84.0 114.5 14.2 45.6 125.1 73.2	97. 0 168. 7 25. 3 56. 8 163. 5 90. 2	119. 0 187. 5 34. 9 71. 9 192. 7 101. 4	78. 0 158. 5 51. 1 94. 9 185. 4 108. 2	44. 7 122. 6 59. 0 81. 6 147. 7 108. 8	53. 1 92. 1 60. 0 80. 1 124. 1
Total	3.0	5.1	18.3	42.4	74.4	77.3	99. 3	116.5	100.4	80.4	77.

¹ No change.

Retail Prices of Food in Algeria, July, 1921.

RECENT consular report contains a list of food prices in Algiers in July, 1914, and July, 1921. An increase of over 380 per cent is shown in the total cost of the articles listed. The table which follows was submitted by the president of the Syndicat Commercial of Algiers, a body which corresponds to an American chamber of commerce:

FOOD PRICES IN ALGIERS, JULY, 1914, AND JULY, 1921. [1 franc at par=19.3 cents; 1 kilogram=2.2 pounds; 1 liter=1.06 quarts.]

Item.	Unit.	July, 1914.	July, 1921.
Bread	Kilogramdododododododo	Francs. 0.30 1.80 3.20 2.40 3.00 .50 .35	Francs. 1. 10 4. 50 8. 00 13. 00 18. 00 2. 00 1. 40
Beans. Peas and lentils. Broken peas. Potatoes.	do	.36 .60 .35 .15	1. 25 1. 80 1. 75
Fish. Lard	do	2. 00 2. 80 1. 80 2. 00	10. 00 19. 50 8. 00 15. 00
Charcoal Coal Wine	do do Liter	. 15 . 35 . 35	2. 40 2. 70
Edible oils. Cabbage Lettuce	Head	.75 .10 95	3. 20 . 45 . 30

Cost of Living in Germany, July and August, 1921.1

TATISTICS of the cost of living of workmen's families in German cities during the first six months of 1921 were published in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW of September, 1921 (pp. 66-68). The changes in the cost of living during July and August, 1921, are shown in the following table:

CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING FOR A FAMILY OF FIVE PERSONS IN GERMANY, JULY AND AUGUST, 1921.

[1 mark at par=23.8 cents.]

City.	Popula-	Cost of	living.	July, 1921.	numbers e cost of 3-14=100).	
	8, 1919.	July, 1921.	August, 1921.		August, 1921.	
Berlin Hamburg Munich Dresden Breslau Essen Frankfort on the Main	1, 902, 509 985, 779 630, 711 584, 265 528, 260 439, 257 433, 002	Marks. 999 976 931 896 923 993	Marks. 1, 045 1, 099 1, 092 1, 013 999 978 1, 101		1, 008 988 1, 022 1, 016 1, 015 997 1, 064	

¹ Reichs-Arbeitsblatt, Berlin, Aug. 15 and Sept. 15, 1921.

CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING FOR A FAMILY OF FIVE PERSONS IN GERMANY, JULY AND AUGUST, 1921—Concluded.

City.	Popula-	1	living,	(averag	numbers se cost of 3-14=100)
	8, 1919.	July, 1921.	August, 1921.	July, 1921.	August, 1921.
Nuremberg Stuttgart Chemnitz Dortmund Magdeburg Kön gsberg, Prussia Mannheim Kiel Augsburg Aix-la-Chapelle Brunswick Karlsruhe Erhut Lubeck Hagen, Westphalia Ludwigshafen on the Rhine Darmstadt Frankfort on the Oder Solingen Haiberstadt Schwerin Kattowitz Heilbronn Göttingen Eisenach Herford Bautzen Giessen Oldenburg Sehweinfurt Eberswalde Wald, Rhine Province Fulda Straubing Reichenbach, Silesia Auerbach, Voigtland Rasstenburg Selb Girmma Biumenthal	352, 675 309, 197 303, 775 295, 026 285, 856 229, 576 205, 330 154, 5755 145, 748 139, 539 136, 952 129, 646 113, 077 182, 862 90, 721 82, 367 65, 055 48, 912 44, 012 44, 012 441, 246 33, 223 34, 4835 34, 342 32, 540 27, 779 26, 786 25, 883 23, 881 12, 453 18, 827 112, 453 16, 581 10, 300	Marks. 1, 002 898 924 934 899 886 946 881 1, 095 935 974 1, 062 988 1, 021 881 902 1, 025 815 899 938 911 930 1, 018 912 958 901 958 910 881 902 958 910	Marks. 1, 086 1, 048 1, 044 999 980 1, 139 1, 026 967 1, 201 1, 031 1, 032 1, 048 1, 031 1, 087 1, 073 1, 081 1, 087 1, 073 1, 081 1, 087 1, 081 1, 081 1, 081 1, 087 1, 088 1, 081 1, 088	1,080 886 923 911 1,016 887 981 973 1,108 1,141 1,074 1,178 1,124 917 1,013 1,204 1,016 1,108 863 1,016 1,109 1,017 1,109 1,10	1, 144 1, 600 1,
All of Germany				963	1,045

The upward movement of retail prices of the most important necessaries of life which had set in in June continued in July, and consequently the cost-of-living index for all of Germany rose to 963, or 67 points over that for June and 39 points over the January index number, hitherto the highest index number. The rise of the index number in July was chiefly due to the high prices of potatoes and vegetables caused by extraordinary weather conditions, but all other foodstuffs, as well as fuel and lighting, also increased considerably in price.

In August retail prices increased further and the cost-of-living index for all of Germany soared to 1045, or 82 points over the index for July. Around the middle of August the price of bread was increased by 40 per cent. In addition there were considerable increases in the prices of fats, pork, legumes, farinaceous foods, fish,

and eggs.

Cost of Living in Great Britain.

THE British Labor Gazette, September, 1921, contains an article (pp. 452-455) in which a reply is made to the criticisms in the report of the "British Labor Committee on the Cost of Liv-

ing" of the cost-of-living figures of the Ministry of Labor.1

The reply of the ministry takes up in detail the discrepancies between the percentage increases in the different budget items of the two reports and shows the reasons for the lower figures of the Labor Department. In the case of food it is shown that the 1914 prices quoted by the committee are too low on some articles and in a few cases have been entirely omitted, so that had these been correct the per cent of increase for this item would have been identical with that of the Ministry of Labor. There was practically no difference in the two reports in the clothing item, but the difference in the matter of rents hinged upon the question of the maximum legal increase in rents which the ministry contended had not been put into effect in September, 1920, although the labor committee used the maximum increase, about 43 per cent, in computing average rents for 1914. The price of coal in 1914 was also put at too low a figure by the committee, and in the miscellaneous group the committee erred, the statement says, in trying to include too large a number of items upon which money might be spent instead of confining the group to articles in general use.

The labor committee report charged that another reason for the lower figures of the ministry was the overweighting of rents and the underweighting of clothing and the miscellaneous group. The labor committee used two sets of weights, one for 1914 and the other for 1920, in an effort to readjust the figures to the 1920 standard of living, but the article in question states that "the committee's criticisms of the Ministry of Labor weights are due in part to a misunderstanding of the purpose and correct use of weights in the calculation of index numbers and in part to a failure to appreciate the purpose which this department's index number is designed to serve as a measure of the increase in the cost of maintaining a prewar standard of

living."

In connection with these two cost-of-living reports the latest figures of the Ministry of Labor showing the variations in living costs from June, 1920, to August, 1921, as given in a recent consular report, are of interest. The official estimate of the percentage increase over July, 1914, in retail food prices and in all items entering into the working-class family budget is as follows:

¹ See Monthly Labor Review, October, 1921, pp 66 to 68.

AVERAGE PERCENTAGE INCREASE IN THE WORKING-CLASS FAMILY BUDGET FROM JUNE, 1920, TO AUGUST, 1921, COMPARED WITH JULY, 1914.

Beginning of each month specified.	Food.	Rents, rates, etc.	Clothing.	Fuel and light.	Sundries.	All items.
June 1920. July August September October November December	155 158 162 167 170 191 182	15-20 15-20 15-20 15-20 35 39 42 42	330 330 330 330 330 320 300–310	125 130 130 135 140 140 140	120 120 120 130 130 130 130	150 152 153 161 164 176 169
January 1921. February March April May June July August August 1921.	178 163 149 138 132 118 120 126	42 42 44 44 44 45 45 50–55	290 250-260 240 225 210 200 190 180	140 140 140 145 150 155 160 160–165	130 120 110 110 110 110 110 110	165 151 141 133 128 119 119

The advance noted in the August food prices is due largely to increases in the price of milk, butter, and eggs, mainly owing to the drought and seasonal causes. There was also an increase in the prices of bacon and cheese but, on the other hand, meat, sugar, and potatoes were slightly cheaper. The 10 per cent increase in rent permitted under the "Increase of rent and mortgage interest (restrictions) act, 1920," is reflected in the rents and rates percentages, and there was a slight increase in the full and light group and a continued decline in the prices of clothing.

Cost of Living in Italy, July, 1921.

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CCORDING to the Monthly Bulletin of the city of Milan, Italy, the actual cost of living of a workman's family in Milan, in July, 1921, has increased by 366 per cent, as compared with prewar times, and that of a salaried employee's family by 244 per cent. The effect of recent price reductions upon these budgets was wiped out by the abolition of the rationing system and the consequent greater consumption of foodstuffs.

In the following two tables are shown the weekly budget of a workman's family consisting of five persons (husband, wife, one child 10 to 15 years of age, and two children under 10 years of age), and the monthly budget of a salaried employee's family (husband, wife, one child 10 to 15 years of age, one child under 10 years of age, and one adult domestic servant) for the month of July, 1921.

¹ Città di Milano. Bollettino Municipale Mensile di Cronaca Amministrativa e Statistica. Vol. 32, No. 7. Milan, July 31, 1921.

AVERAGE WEEKLY BUDGET OF A WORKMAN'S FAMILY IN MILAN, ITALY, IN JULY, 1921, COMPARED WITH THE FIRST SIX MONTHS OF 1914.

[1 lira at par = 19.3 cents.]

	Average weekly expenditure.									
Item.	Firstsixmo	onths of 1914.	July, 1921.							
		Per cent of	Based on normal con- sumption of food.		Based on actual con- sumption of food.					
	Amount.	total.	Amount.	Per cent of total.	Amount.	Per cent of total.				
Food. Clothing. Rent. Fuel and light. Miscellaneous.	Lire. 25, 58 4, 94 4, 70 1, 86 4, 12	62.09 12.00 11.40 4.51 10.00	Lire. 129. 41 22. 97 6. 55 16. 73 27. 70	63, 63 11, 30 3, 22 8, 23 13, 62	Lire. 117.98 22.97 6.55 16.73 27.70	61. 48 11. 97 3. 41 8. 71 14. 48				
Total	41, 20	100.00	203.36	100.00	191.93	100.00				
Index number	100.00		493. 59		465, 85					

AVERAGE MONTHLY BUDGET OF A SALARIED EMPLOYEE'S FAMILY IN MILAN, ITALY, IN JULY, 1921, COMPARED WITH THE FIRST SIX MONTHS OF 1914.

			eents.	

	Average monthly expenditure.								
Item.	First six mo	onths of 1914.	July, 1921.						
2003	Amount.	Per cent of total.	Amount.	Per cent of total.					
Food Clothing. Rent. Fuel and light Miscellaneous	Lire, 151, 80 159, 85 75, 00 30, 80 129, 00	27. 78 29. 25 13. 72 5. 64 23. 61	Lire. 686, 53 559, 24 127, 09 156, 85 348, 87	36, 55 29, 77 6, 76 8, 35 18, 57					
Total	546. 45	100.00	1,878.58	100,00					
Index number	100, 00		343.78						

Since January, 1921, the weekly budget of a workman's family in Milan, based on the actual consumption of food, has undergone the following changes, as compared with the weekly budget for the first six months of 1914:

A	verage weekly enditure (lire).	Increase,
First 6 months of 1914.	. 41. 20	per cens.
January, 1921	. 190.87	363
February, 1921	. 188. 97	359
March, 1921		372
April, 1921		392
May, 1921		408
June, 1921		350
July, 1921	. 191. 93	366

In July, 1921, the actual cost of living of a workman's family was 366 per cent higher than in prewar times. If the budget had, however, been based on normal consumption of food and not on actual consumption, the increase would have been equivalent to 394 per cent.

Since July, 1920, a number of large Italian cities are computing, monthly, a cost-of-living index of a workman's family based on uniform rules of computation agreed upon at a conference in Milan.

[1032]

The index numbers of the cost of living in various cities, which take the cost of living in July, 1920, as a base are reproduced in the following table:1

INDEX NUMBERS OF THE COST OF LIVING OF A WORKMAN'S FAMILY IN VARIOUS ITALIAN. CITIES, BY MONTHS, JANUARY TO JULY, 1921. ITuly 1990-1001

City.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.
Rome Milan Florence Venice Trieste Genova Turin Messina Cesena Perugia Como Cremona Mantova	121, 70 124, 43 121, 26 114, 61 117, 36 129, 10 118, 95 126, 74 122, 49 114, 55 123, 69 126, 44 114, 98	123. 82 125. 60 121. 42 115. 45 115. 79 118. 68 119. 06 122. 03 120. 34 122. 15 129. 83 114. 63	125. 74 127. 76 126. 91 118. 23 119. 76 121. 10 122. 26 133. 17 128. 09 119. 01 123. 41 132. 59 121. 68	129. 73 131. 29 129. 06 118. 08 119. 18 119. 70 122. 35 130. 45 133. 76 120. 91 121. 53 133. 50	124. 66 132. 37 129. 34 116. 58 113. 98 118. 42 118. 06 127. 87 130. 62 116. 41 118. 60 133. 25 117. 18	121. 64 118. 23 119. 35 107. 92 108. 26 113. 48 112. 35 114. 44 112. 78 105. 70 114. 12 128. 03	119. 08 114. 73 114. 46 108. 12 103. 08 105. 38 114. 61
Vicenza Prato Prato Pesaro Ferrara Lucca Rimini	121, 80 127, 26 114, 53 117, 62 123, 32	128. 64 115. 59 119. 65 124. 59	118. 51 129. 83 120. 99 122. 17 126. 49	118. 49 124. 97 134. 92 122. 54 123. 04 128. 29	116. 01 121. 02 130. 35 120. 08 121. 55 126. 59	111. 68 113. 93 118. 25 113. 88 116. 75 113. 62	110, 08 130, 92 110, 58 110, 79 110, 52

Budgets of Workmen's Families in Amsterdam Before, During, and After the War.2

THE Municipal Statistical Office of the city of Amsterdam, Holland, has recently published extensive statistics on the cost of living of workmen's families in Amsterdam covering the period June, 1910, to September, 1920. These statistics are based on three separate investigations.³ The first investigation was made by the Social-Democratic Research Club of Amsterdam. The second investigation was carried on by the State Labor Department, using the first investigation as a basis, and finally the Municipal Statistical Office of the city of Amsterdam carried the investigation up to present times and published the results in its monthly bulletin. The statistics obtained through these three investigations answer the question of how the Dutch workers lived before the war, during the war, and after the war, for they show not only the increase in the cost of living but also the qualitative changes in the workers' standard of living.

All three investigations start with the point of view that reliable data can be secured only if a considerable number of families can be induced to keep household accounts. The household accounts on which the first two investigations were based were kept for a whole year. The third investigation is based on household accounts kept for a period of four consecutive weeks during each quarter.

The only data that can be considered here are the relative figures and the index numbers. Absolute figures of the cost of living converted into dollars at par value would lead to misleading conceptions owing to the depreciation of Dutch money.

¹ L'Ufficio Municipale del Lavoro di Roma. Bollettino Mensile. Vol. 4, No. 7. Rome, July, 1921. ² Reichs-Arbeitsblatt, Berlin, Aug. 15, 1921, p. 856*. ³ The results of these investigations are contained in the following three publications: (1) Rapport No. 69. Eene enquete der sociaal-democratische studiechub te Amsterdam. Amsterdam, Decembeir, 1912. (2) Arbeidersbudgets geduren de crisis. No. 22 bis tweede Cundel 1919. Uitgegeven voor rekening van Departement van Arbeid. (3) Uitgaven van arbeiders en andere gezinner voor, tydens en na den oorlog van Februari 1917 tot Sept. 1920. Bylagen van het bureau van statistiek der Gemeente Amsterdam.

All three investigations lay much stress upon the distribution of the expenditures and are less concerned with the income of the various families. On the whole it may be said that all families endeavored seriously to balance their budgets through greatest economy, by not purchasing anything except the most essential articles, through supplementary earnings of the husband, and through earnings of the wife and children. In spite of this endeavor many families closed their household accounts at the end of the year with a deficit.

In the following table is shown the percentage distribution of the various household expenditures for 1910–11, and February–March,

1917 and 1918.

DISTRIBUTION OF HOUSEHOLD EXPENDITURES OF WORKMEN'S FAMILIES IN AMSTERDAM AT SPECIFIED PERIODS.

Item.	1910–11	Feb Mar., 1917.	Feb Mar., 1918.	Item.	1910–11		Feb Mar., 1918.
Bread, potatoes, legumes	P. ct. 14.7 11.3 8.2 8.2 3.0	P. ct. 17.2 12.0 9.9 9.3 1.8	P. ct. 17.6 14.7 8.4 8.3 3.1	Rent. Beer, alcohol, tobacco. Insurance, dues to organizations. Taxes Clothing and shoes.	P. ct. 16. 1 2. 4 6. 6 1. 0 12. 8	P. ct. 15.1 2.3 7.1 1.5 7.2	P. ct. 13.1 2.5 6.3 1.6 7.9
Total for food Fuel and lighting Laundry and cleaning	45.4 6.2 1.9	50. 2 5. 4 2. 7	52.1 5.8 3.3	Miscellaneous	7.6	8.5	7.4

The preceding table shows that the disbursements for food have increased at the expense of those for fuel and clothing; or, in other words, the prime necessaries for the sustenance of life had become so dear that economy had to be practiced in other expenditures. Some items of expenditure had been kept low through administrative measures, such as rationing of food, provision of clothing for people of small means, rent, legislation, etc.

The increase from 1911 to 1920 in the cost of living and of nutrition, with consideration of both actual and normal consumption, is shown

in the following table:

INDEX NUMBERS OF THE AVERAGE MONTHLY BUDGET OF A WORKMAN'S FAMILY IN AMSTERDAM, 1917 TO 1920, AS COMPARED WITH 1911.

[Average monthly expenditures for 1911=100.]

		Index number	s of monthly—	
Month.	Total living	expenditures.	Expenditu	res for food.
	Based on actual consumption.	Based on normal consumption.	Based on actual consumption.	Based on normal con- sumption.
February-March, 1917 August, 1917. February-March, 1918 August-September, 1918. November-December, 1918. March, 1919 June, 1919 September, 1919 December, 1919 March, 1920 June, 1920 September, 1920.	137.6 145.7 165.9 161.5 166.4 180.4 183.2 200.1 213.8	132. 3 141. 8 165. 0 183. 0 177. 0 183. 8 194. 8 193. 1 204. 8 213. 7 216. 8	134. 9 145. 5 164. 8 165. 1 173. 3 189. 3 190. 2 211. 5 216. 1 222. 6 235. 7	136. 9 160. 8 185. 1 181. 2 189. 4 203. 9 200. 9 214. 9 214. 9 224. 9 235. 0

According to the preceding table the cost of living in Amsterdam has steadily increased during the four years 1917 to 1920. Compared with 1911 the total living expenditures based on actual consumption have increased by 122 per cent in September, 1920, and the expenditures for food by 136 per cent. The difference between the figures in the first and second columns, and between those in the third and fourth columns of the preceding table indicates the degree in which the standard of living and of nutrition of workmen's families in Amsterdam have been lowered in the last two years of the war and the two years after the termination of the war. This difference is most pronounced in 1918 and diminishes gradually in 1919 and 1920. By September, 1920, a normal standard of living and of nutrition seems to have been restored.

Beginning with March, 1920, the Municipal Statistical Office of Amsterdam has computed a new series of cost-of-living statistics of workmen's families based on the weekly expenditures per family unit. (The husband is considered to represent one unit, the wife 0.9, an infant under one year of age 0.15, a child of two years 0.2, a child of over two to three years 0.3, 0.05 unit being added for each further year of age.) The changes in the cost of living from March, 1920, to June, 1921, are shown in the following table:

CHANGES IN THE COST OF LIVING OF WORKMEN'S FAMILIES IN AMSTERDAM, MARCH, 1920, TO JUNE, 1921.

[One guilder at par=40.2 cents.]

		Weekly	expenditu	ire per far	nily unit.	
Item.	Mar., 1920.	June, 1920.	Sept., 1920.	Dec., 1920.	Mar., 1921.	June, 1921.
Bread. Farinaceous foods. Milk Cheese Eggs Meat Fish Fats Sugar Other groceries. Legumes Fruit. Plotatoes	Guilder 1. 330 1.65 635 110 110 115 125 .950 300 .365 .230 .065 .465	Guilder. 1, 370 175 615 125 120 .775 120 .940 .300 .365 .225 .110 .515	Guilder. 1, 510 185 740 145 165 185 105 1065 1065 1065 1065 100 125 110 1455	Guilder. 1, 365 160 845 140 200 745 135 1, 020 330 325 270 1, 105	Guilder. 1, 230 1, 250 1, 255 845 1, 155 1, 255 1, 770 1, 100 1, 885 1, 325 1, 355 1, 110 1, 520	Guilder. 1, 220 120 777 166 120 577 144 80 295 310 320 144 900
Total, food. Clothing Shoes Rent Fuel Gas, electricity. Laundry and cleaning. Lusurance. Dues to organizations Tobacco, clgars, beverages. Furniture and household goods Amusements. Carfare. Miscellaneous Total expenditures.	5. 565 1. 475 545 840 1.140 360 255 375 360 255 395 035 090 580 11. 270	5. 755 1. 565 . 545 . 850 . 145 . 335 . 260 . 375 . 360 . 250 . 395 . 035 . 090 . 580	6. 200 1. 555 . 545 . 860 . 150 . 360 . 245 . 375 . 365 . 250 . 400 . 035 . 090 . 600	6. 150 1. 245 .510 .890 .155 .375 .215 .375 .415 .230 .390 .035 .110 .595	5.830 1.070 .435 .900 .140 .375 .200 .375 .415 .230 .350 .035 .110 .600	5, 880 . 986 . 390 . 999 . 127 . 373 . 415 . 230 . 335 . 035 . 035 . 115 . 590 . 10, 965
Index numbers	100.0	102. 4	106.8	103.7	98.2	97.3

 $^{^{1}}$ Maandbericht van het Bureau van Statistiek der Gemeente Amsterdam. Vol. 27, No. 6, Supplement 1, Amsterdam, June, 1921.

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The cost-of-living data of the preceding table shows that, during the first nine months of 1920, the cost of living steadily increased, the increase being equivalent to 6.8 per cent in September. During the last quarter of 1920 the cost of living began to fall and during the first half of 1921 it was considerably lower than at the end of the first quarter of 1920. This does not hold true with the expenditures for food. The total weekly expenditures for food per family unit were 5.88 guilder in June, 1921, while in March, 1920, they amounted to 5.565 guilder. The increase in food expenditures is chiefly due to the high cost of potatoes in June, 1921, other foostuffs having fallen in price but not sufficiently to make up for the sensational rise in the price of potatoes.

Cost of Living in Warsaw; Poland, January, 1920, to May, 1921.

DECREE of the Council of Ministers of May 27, 1920, established commissions in various sections of the country to study the cost of living of families of workers in industry and commerce. The studies are based on a theoretical budget which includes only absolutely indispensable articles of food, in a quantity which will insure the necessary amount of nourishment, and heat and light. The following table shows the daily cost of these articles in Warsaw in January, 1914, and for each month from January, 1920, to May, 1921, the percentage of increase or decrease each month beginning with 1920 and the index numbers January, 1920, and January, 1914, respectively, being taken as the base:

COST OF FOOD, HEAT, AND LIGHT FOR A WORKER'S FAMILY OF 4 PERSONS IN WAR-SAW IN JANUARY, 1914, AND JANUARY, 1920, TO MAY, 1921.

		Per cent of in- crease as com-	Index numbers.		
Year and month.	Daily cost.	pared with each preceding month.	January, 1920=100.	January, 1914=100.	
1914, January. 1920, January. February March April May June July August. September October November. December. December. 1921, January. February March April May May May May	Marks. 1, 20 36, 49 50, 00 55, 94 61, 56 75, 72 88, 34 92, 58 110, 04 108, 53 125, 84 150, 57 197, 33 256, 80 317, 37 314, 30 316, 44 339, 98	37. 00 11. 88 10. 05 23. 00 16. 67 4. 80 18. 86 a 1. 37 15. 95 20. 45 31. 06 30. 14 23. 59 a 0. 97 6. 68 7. 44	100. 0 137. 0 153. 3 168. 7 207. 5 242. 1 253. 7 301. 6 297. 4 344. 9 412. 6 540. 8 869. 7 861. 3 867. 2 931. 7	100. 3,040. 4,166. 4,661. 5,130. 6,310. 7,361. 7,715. 9,170. 10,486. 12,547. 16,444. 21,400. 26,447. 26,191. 26,370.	

a Decrease. 1 Revue mensuelle de statistique publiée par l'Office Central de Statistique de la République Polonaise Année 1920. Vol. 1, Nos. 4-6, p. 154. Année 1921. Vol. III, Nos. 4-5, p. 133.

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR.

Wages of Farm Labor in the United States, 1913 to 1921.

HE great change that has taken place within the past year in the wages of farm labor is shown in the September Monthly Crop Reporter. The following figures are taken from that publication, those for 1921 being indicated as preliminary. Similar figures back to 1866 may be found in the July, 1920, issue of the Monthly Labor Review (page 108).

AVERAGE WAGES OF MALE FARM LABOR, 1913 TO 1921.

Year.	By the month.		Day labor, at harvest.		Day labor, not at harvest.	
	With board.	Without board.	With board.	Without board.	With board.	Without board.
1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1917 1918 1919 1920	\$21. 38 21. 05 21. 26 23. 25 28. 87 34. 92 39. 82 46. 89 29, 48	\$30.31 29.88 30.15 32.83 40.43 48.80 56.29 64.95 42.65	\$1. 57 1. 55 1. 56 1. 69 2. 08 2. 65 3. 15 3. 60 2. 12	\$1. 94 1. 91 1. 92 2. 07 2. 54 3. 22 3. 83 4. 36 2. 80	\$1.16 1.13 1.13 1.26 1.56 2.07 2.45 2.86 1.60	\$1. 50 1. 48 1. 47 1. 62 2. 09 2. 63 3. 12 3. 50 2. 13

¹ Wages for 1921 are indicated as preliminary.

Women's Wages in Kansas.1

IN THE Summer of 1920 the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor cooperated with the Industrial Welfare Commission of Kansas in making an investigation into the wages paid women industrially employed in Kansas. The investigation covered 31 cities and 370 establishments, employing over 20,000 workers, of whom 7,288 were women. Individual schedules were secured for 5,651 (77.5 per cent) of these, a proportion which was thought large enough to be fairly representative. The establishments studied included meat and poultry packing, miscellaneous food manufacturing, clothing manufacturing, miscellaneous manufacturing, general mercantile establishments, 5 and 10 cent stores, laundries, restaurants, and telephone operating. In addition, a study was made of the hours and earnings of women employed as office help in these establishments. In general, all the women working in a given establishment were included in the investigation.

The mercantile employees include the entire sales force and the general service workers. In this group the higher wages paid to assistant buyers are generally bal-

[1037]

¹ United States Department of Labor. Women's Bureau, Bulletin No. 17. Women's wages in Kansas. Washington, 1921. 104 pp.

anced by the lower wages paid to bundle girls. The restaurant help includes the kitchen and dining-room help of cafetarias, lunch counters, tea rooms, cafés, restaurants, and the dining room of one small hotel. In the telephone group are included only telephone operators.

The investigators secured their information first through personal interviews with the women workers and afterwards supplemented this with additional data taken from the employers' pay rolls. In general, there was no difficulty in securing this information where pay rolls were kept, but in a number of small stores and restaurants there were none. No pay-roll data were used unless they were taken by the investigators themselves from the original documents.

Of the 5,627 women reporting as to nativity, 91.1 were native-born white, 5.2 per cent were native-born colored, and 3.7 per cent were foreign born. The majority of the colored women were found in the meat and poultry packing plants, where they formed something over one-fifth of all the women studied, the next largest group being in the restaurants, where they formed one-sixth of those studied. The foreign born were found chiefly in the meat and poultry packing plants, where they numbered 151, forming 19.9 per cent of the group studied in this industry; in no other industry were as many as 15 found among those studied. The age grouping was as follows:

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF WOMEN IN EACH AGE GROUP.

Age group.	Number.	Per cent.
Under 16 years. 16 and under 18. 18 and under 20. 20 and under 25. 25 and under 30. 30 and under 40. 40 and under 50. 50 and over	68 884 880 1,273 700 983 587 247	1. 2 15. 7 15. 7 22. 6 12. 4 17. 5 10. 4 4. 4
	5,622	100.0

It will be seen that two-thirds of the group were 20 years or over, more than two-fifths were 25 or over, and very nearly a third were 30 or more, so that the group is not predominantly youthful. Among the wage earning classes a young woman of 20 is generally supposed to have reached the age of self-support.

The group studied, then, was in the main native born, and of fairly mature years. It was scattered through nine industries, varying widely in the skill and training demanded, but including several which are usually looked upon as representing desirable conditions. Moreover, the data were gathered for the year ending June, 1920, a period during which wages reached their highest peak. The results, therefore, should err, if at all, on the side of giving too favorable a picture of the conditions under which the women of the State work.

The following table shows the distribution, by weekly earnings

groups, of the women for whom these data were obtained:

DISTRIBUTION, BY WEEKLY EARNINGS, OF WOMEN EMPLOYED IN SPECIFIED INDUSTRIES IN KANSAS, 1919-20.

			Per	cent earni	ng—	
Industry	Number studied.	Under \$9.	\$9 but under \$12.	\$12 but under \$15.	\$15 but under \$18.	\$18 and over.
Meat packing. Poultry packing Other food manufacturing. Clothing manufacturing. Other manufacturing General mercantile. 5 and 10 cent stores. Laundries. Restaurants. Telephone. Offices	649 45 187 485 476 765 237 599 191 382 313	0.3 35.6 31.6 26.8 10.1 17.8 79.7 18.9 32.5 15.7 14.7	2.0 28.9 36.4 25.4 25.4 31.1 32.8 17.3 56.8 44.0 56.5	4.0 31.1 22.5 20.4 42.0 23.0 2.5 17.9 12.0 20.9 16.6	7.5 15.1 12.2 14.6 .4 4.0 5.8 4.5 16.9	40.2 4.4 2.1 12.4 4.6 11.8 2.5 5.2 2.4 25.9
All industries	1 4, 138	119.3	131.3	1 19.4	116.9	1 13. 1

Exclusive of restaurant workers, who are omitted because of the practice of giving meals in some cases.

Practically two-fifths of the women (19.3 per cent) were earning under \$9 a week, and one-half earned less than \$12 weekly. The proportion earning \$12 or more ranged from 3 per cent in the 5 and 10 cent stores to 97.7 per cent in meat packing, but in only four of the industries did it rise to half of those studied. In its comment upon these figures the report points out that a large proportion of these women are getting less than is considered elsewhere a living

Recent budget studies have shown the approximate cost of living

for a woman to be-

\$14.78 a week in Texas.

\$22.10 a week in Washington State.

\$16 a week in the District of Columbia in 1918. \$19.49 a week in the District of Columbia in 1920. \$16.65 a week in North Dakota.

There are no estimates available of the cost of living in Kansas, but it does not seem probable that it can be so much lower than in other States as to justify the payment of less than \$9 a week to one-fifth and less than \$12 a week to more than one-half of the women in the industries of the State.

A careful study is made of the wage situation in the various industries, dealing with the relation in each between age and earnings, the possibilities of increased wages as experience increases, the preference given to young or mature workers, the nominal hours, and the extent to which the actual hours exceed or fall short of these. For a group of 1,077, who had worked 50 or more weeks during the year covered, pay roll records of the annual earnings were secured. These showed the following distribution: PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION, BY ANNUAL EARNINGS, OF WOMEN STUDIED IN KANSAS.

Industry.	Number.	Per cent earning less than \$600.	Per cent earning \$600 and under \$900.	Per cent earning \$900 and over
5 and 10 cent stores Telephones. Restaurants Laundries Clething manufacturing General mercantile Miscellaneous manufacturing Offices Meat packing Miscelaneous food manufacturing	26 100 18 75 101 219 96 106 304 32	80.8 59.0 55.6 53.3 45.5 31.1 29.2 25.5	19. 2 39. 0 44. 4 40. 0 37. 7 43. 8 52. 1 33. 0 43. 1 68. 8	2. 6 16.9 25.1 18.8 41.5 56.9 3.0
Allindustries 1	1,077	28.6	42.2	29. 2

¹ Exclusive of poultry packing, in which no woman reported worked 50 weeks.

This shows a more favorable situation than that disclosed by the weekly earnings, which is natural, inasmuch as those who secured practically continuous employment would normally be the best and most efficient workers. Still, in itself, the showing is far from satisfactory. Over one-fourth earned for a full year's work less than \$600, and 70 per cent earned under \$900. Of the 315 who earned \$900 or more, 54.9 per cent were found in the meat-packing industry, 17.5 per cent in the general mercantile industry, and 14 per cent in offices, leaving only 43 women in all the other industries who reached this amount. The report points out that the results of the study of annual earnings confirm the findings reached by the study of weekly earnings, namely, that the wage paid to the women in industry in Kansas is insufficient.

A careful and detailed study was made of the extent to which women workers were contributing to the support of others. Of the women included in this study, 61.2 per cent were single, 22.5 per cent married, and 16.3 per cent widowed, divorced, or separated. Something over one-fourth—27.6 per cent—of the whole group admitted no responsibility for anyone beyond themselves; something over one-third—37.3 per cent—turned in all their earnings to the family support; and 35.1 per cent turned in part. It seems natural enough that young girls in their teens should turn over their earnings to their families, but on the whole, they were considerably more likely to retain at least a part of their earnings than were the older women. The number and proportion of those in each age group contributing all their earnings were as follows:

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF WOMEN IN EACH AGE GROUP WHO CONTRIBUTED ALL THEIR EARNINGS TO THE FAMILY.

Age group.	Number.	Per cent.
Under 16.	12	35. 3
16 and under 18 years	93 132	18. 7 23. 8
20 and under 25	335	36. 8
25 and under 30	310 637	55, 5 75, 9
40 and under 50	430 125	85. 5 87. 4
60 and over.	17	85. 0

About one-third of the group under 16 years old turned in all their earnings, but in the next two age groups this proportion is much smaller. With the group aged 20 to 25 the proportion is almost the same as in the youngest group, and thereafter it rises rapidly until in the group aged 50 to 60, seven-eighths are putting all their earnings

in the family treasury.

The whole subject of the responsibility of the women studied for dependents is gone into carefully and in detail. The results confirm the showing of earlier investigations that the "pin-money worker" is a very decided exception among women wage earners. They show also that a large proportion of women wage earners have family responsibilities, and that in Kansas at least, an unfortunately large proportion are working for wages which, even when they have steady employment, do not give them the minimum requirements of a healthful and decent living.

Average Earnings of New York State Factory Workers, September, 1921.

THE downward trend of average weekly earnings of New York State factory workers, which was halted temporarily in August, continued in September, according to a statement issued by Industrial Commissioner Henry D. Sayer, of the State Department of Labor. The weekly average earnings of the factory workers employed in September was \$25.07, a decrease of 36 cents from the average earnings in August. The above figures are based on the tabulation of 1,648 reports from representative manufacturers of the State.

The most important factor in the decrease was the reduction in wage rates which went into effect in some factories in numerous industries.

The decrease from August to September occurred chiefly in up-State factories, the up-State average weekly earnings showing a reduction of 82 cents, whereas the New York City average showed a decrease of only 3 cents. The September average weekly earnings were \$23.59 in up-State factories and \$27.36 in New York City factories.

The greatest reduction in average weekly earnings occurred in the

men's shirts and furnishings industry.

The brick industry showed a large decrease because of the fact that the season was coming to a close. A smaller decrease was reported in the cement and plaster industry, as the result of wage reductions in some of the mills.

The average weekly earnings for the chief industry groups for

September were as follows:

Stone, clay, and glass. Metals and machinery. Wood manufactures. Furs, leather and rubber goods. Chemicals, oils, and paints. Paper manufacture. Printing and paper goods. Textiles. Clothing. Food, beverages, and tobacco. Water, light, and power.	\$24. 80 26. 24 24. 68 24. 71 26. 26 26. 12 30. 36 20. 57 24. 06 23. 46 33. 43
Total, all industries	25. 07

Wages in Vienna, Austria, 1921.

HE Central Federation of Industrial Employers of Austria (Hauptverband der Industrie Oesterreichs) has furnished to the American Trade Commissioner in Vienna the following data on wages now current in Vienna.

In the metal-working industries the average weekly rate of pay of skilled workmen is 3,000 kronen ¹ and the minimum rate 2,000 kronen. Specially qualified workmen receive from 5,000 to 7,000 kronen per week, male juvenile workers (under 21 years of age) from 1,000 to 1,200 kronen, and women from 1,000 to 1,500 kronen.

As a rule the wages in the metal industry are the highest, at any rate higher than those paid in the other industries. Workers employed in the other industries, however, are endeavoring to get the same wages as the metal workers. The minimum wages for skilled male workers in other industries are 2,200 kronen and for women

800 kronen per week.

Salaries paid to business clerks, technical employees employed in factories, etc., are about 5,000 kronen minimum a month, and average 8,000 to 16,000 kronen a month. Specially qualified employees receive from 20,000 to 25,000 kronen a month and stenographers from 5,000 to 16,000 kronen. Bank clerks, as a rule, get higher salaries. Managers, chief clerks, etc., get a fixed salary higher than those mentioned above, and in addition to it a percentage of the total turnover.

Labor Conditions and Wages in Bolivia.

CCORDING to a commercial and industrial handbook on Bolivia (Special Agents Series, No. 208), recently issued by the United States Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Bolivian labor is either Indian or cholo (half-breed), very few whites being found among the working class because of their caste prejudice against manual labor. Though both are slow workers, the cholo is more progressive and adaptable and more capable of becoming a skilled mechanic. The Indian, on the other hand, is more amenable to control and discipline, and more generally dependable. Indians comprise the great mass of unskilled laborers in the cities, on the farms, and in the mines. The native labor supply is small, this condition being somewhat aggravated by the migration of Bolivian workmen to the Chilean nitrate fields.

Current wages in several lines are as follows: Masons, 5 to 6 bolivianos [\$1 95 to \$2.34, par] a day for a 9-hour day; carpenters, 6 to 7 bolivianos [\$2.34 to \$2.73, par], 9 hours; blacksmiths, 6 to 7 bolivianos, 9 hours; street railway motormen, 120 bolivianos [\$46.72, par] per month of 15 days, street railway conductors, 100 bolivianos [\$38.93, par] for month of 15 days; store clerks, 60 to 100 bolivianos [\$23.36 to \$38.93, par] a month, for day of 8 or 9 hours. In one of the stores employees are paid from 120 to 180 bolivianos [\$46.72 to \$70.07, par].

Labor is not highly organized in Bolivia. In only a few lines are there "grennios" or associations of workmen, though the present tendency is distinctly in that direc-

or associations of workmen, though the present tendency is distinctly in that direction, especially among the more skilled workers. The employees of the Bolivia Railway probably have the strongest association in the country, partly because of

¹¹ krone at par=20.3 cents.

their close connections with their fellow workmen on the Chilean section of the through

line from Antofagasta.

Until recently strikes were unknown in Bolivia. However, in 1919, there was a strike at the Llallagua tin mines, and there was a strike of the telegraphers on the Government lines in 1920. There have also been difficulties with labor on the Bolivia Railway system.

Wages and Hours of Labor in Canada, June, 1921.

HE figures in the following table were taken from "Wages and hours of labor in Canada, September, 1920, and June, 1921," issued as a supplement to the Labor Gazette, September, 1921, by the Department of Labor of Canada. Rates and hours for 1920 were published for most of these occupations in the Monthly Labor Review for May, 1921 (pages 77-79).

RATES OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN JUNE, 1921, IN SELECTED TRADES AND CITIES IN CANADA.

	St John	1.	Montrea	al.	Quebec.		Ottawa		Toronto).	Winnipe	g.	Calgary		Vancouv	er.
Trade.	Wages per hour.	H'rs per week.	Wages per hour.	H'rs per week.	Wages per hour.	H'rs per week.	Wages per hour.	H'rs per week.	Wages per hour.	H'rs per week.	Wages per hour.	H'rs per week.	Wages per hour.	H'rs per week.	Wages per hour.	H'rs per week
Building: Bricklayers and masons. Carpenters Electricians. Laborers. Painters. Plumbers. Roofers. Stonecutters. Metal: Auto mechanics Blacksmiths. Boilermakers. Machinists. Millwrights. Molders, iron.	\$0. 90 . 66 . 66 . 77 . 80. 50 65 . 4 . 22, 00 . 25, 00 . 66 . 65 77 . 50 66	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$.6570 .6580 .4050 .6070 .7580 .75 .6070 .80 .6080 .6072	42½-54 44 -52 54 -60 42½-50 42½-44 48 -54 44-58 42½-50 47½-55 48 -58	.4255 .4755 .5060 .4555 .60 .4575 .6065	50-60 50-60 54 48-54 54-60 48-60 48-60 54-60	.4865	44 47-50 44 44 44 348-54 50-5 44-50 44 53	\$0.55 - 60 .7585 .75 - 1.00 1.00 .6070 .65\frac{1}{2}75 .7080 .6080 .6070	44 44 40-48 44 44 44-50 48-50 44-48 44-50 48	.5055 .81 1.00 .80 1.00 .7080 .6580 .67½76½ .7075 .58½74	44 -49 49 -55 44 44 44 44 44 -49 49½-50	.87½ - 1.00 .5065 .80 1.00 .8590 1.25 .7085 .8388	44-60 41-49½ 44 44 44 44 50-54 44	.84\frac{1}{4}-\frac{1}{1}00\frac{1}{0}00\frac{1}{6}\frac{1}{6}-\frac{1}{6}\frac{1}{6}\frac{1}{6}-\frac{1}{6}\frac{1}{6}\frac{1}{6}-\frac{1}{6}1	44 44 44 44 44 44 44 44 44 44 44 44 44
Pattern makers			. 85	3113 33		1	.69			48		50	.8588	44	26.80 - 8.00	
Sheet-metal workers	.60	48	.5065	48-491			.75	44	.90	44	.6082½	14 -50	.90	44		
Printing: Compositors, hand, news- paper	130.00- 32.00		440.00	48	1 26. 00	48	1 38. 00	45	138.00	48	1 48. 00	46	1 45. 00	45		
Pressmen, cyl- inder, job Electric street rail- ways and power:	1 27. 50	44	136.00	48	123.00	48					5 44. 00	48	4 45. 00	45	4 40. 50	
Conductors and motormen		54	. 55	60	.45	57	. 49	54	.60	48	.60	48	.671721	48	.65	
Electric line-	.4757	7 54	.5055	48 -60	.4054	50-70	. 65	48	.7880	44	. 923	44	.871 .90	41-13	.874	1

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	1 P.	er week.			3 T	er month		-	-		150	1 1	fav rata			1
Watchmen		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	53.00	70 -84	23.00 - 3.25	98 {	¹ 21, 00– 28, 00	}63-91	20.00-25.00	30-84	125.00- 30.00	}42-70	8 93. 00	60	{	}72-8
Truckmen	125.00	54	25.00	60	. 45	50-54	118.00- 25.00	140-04	1 25. 00- 29. 00	748-00	124. 50	53	3110.00- 131.50	44-54	² 4. 05 - 5. 85	
Teamsters	123.00	54 {	22. 50	355-60	118,00- 21,00	} 60 {	119.00- 21.00		. 421 45	1	1 22. 50- 29. 00	}48-60	\$ 100.00- 131.50	144-04	² 4. 50 - 5. 85	50 -5
men		{	24.00	31-72	24.30	} 54-60	24.70	56	1 27. 00-30. 00	348-56	128.00- 34.00		100.00	144-48	23.70 - 4.50	55 -7
gineers, first- class Stationary fire-			.5060 119.50	1	1 20.00-		.70- 1.00	44		60	1.00	48	.90 - 1.00	48	54.56	
ers Stationery en-	² 3, 50	54	.3040	50 -60	.3035	54	.4558	44-50	.4550	48-50	.4050	49-60	.4560	44-60	23.60 - 4.00	44 -8
Chauffeurs Common labor-	125, 00	54	. 30 47	₹ 60 -70	{ 120.00- 25.00	}48-50 {	122.00- 23.00	} 77	1 19.00- 25.00	344-56	1 25. 00- 30. 00	}48-84	1 25, 00- 30, 00	} 72	1 27, 50	44 -
scellaneous:				1	100.00		100.00	. 1	130.00	1. 1	100 00	. 1				1

¹Per week. ¹Per day.

[1045]

Per week. March rate.

⁶ Per week. May rate. 6 May rate.

Wages in Hongkong, China.

REPORT from the American consul at Hongkong, China, dated July 14, 1921, shows the average wages of workers in different occupations in that city. It is stated that the wages of Chinese workmen were increased only slightly during the war and have been stationary for at least two years, while the value of the Chinese currency has undergone great fluctuations. The Hongkong dollar had reached a point, about 16 months before, where it was worth several cents more than the American dollar but had fallen subsequently to about 50 cents, approximately its normal value. The slight wage increases and the greatly increased purchasing power of the Hongkong dollar during the war and for a time after had in a measure offset the increases in the cost of living but with the rapid decline of the dollar to its normal value the buying power of the local wages fell far behind the cost of living, so that Chinese labor was said to be more poorly paid than it had been at any time for many years. Workers employed by European firms are sometimes higher paid than those in Chinese establishments, but with the exception of machinists, shipbuilders, car men, engine drivers, and printers and other European newspaper employees, the wages listed below are for workers employed by native employers. Workers on the railway, which is government owned, have received the 10 per cent advance in wages granted to all government workers. Cotton mill operatives are not included in the following list for the reason that there are no textile mills in Hongkong. The wages reported are not supplemented with food or lodging unless otherwise indicated.

DAILY OR MONTHLY WAGES OF WORKERS IN HONGKONG, JULY, 1921, BY OCCUPATION.

[Hongkong dollar at par=\$0.4748.]

Occupation.	Wages per	Wages per month.		
Bricklayers:				
Adúlts	\$0.70 to			
Car men				
Parmontare	50 to			
Carpenters Digarette factory:				
Cigarette makers (female)	.20 to	. 60		
Packers (female) . Paper-box makers (female) .	.20 to	. 60		
Paper-box makers (female)	.20 to	. 60		
			(a 2 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 1 -	
drying and transporting (male). Cigarette makers (general trade):	.50 to	1.00		
Adults	.50 to	1.00		
Children	.20 to			
Engine drivers or engineers	. 20 00	.00	\$80 to	\$100
Farmers (garden):				6100
Worker skilled in care of flowers. Laborer doing work of coolie and learning gardening				11
I abover doing work of coolie and learning gardening				1 12
Laborers:				1.4
Adults	.75 to	1.00		
Children	35 to			
Common day laborers.	.40 to			
sons	.70 to	1.00		
Printers and typesetters:	. 10 10	1.00		
Chinese shops			2 10 to	18
European newspapers:			2 10 00	10
Typesetters			20 to	20
Lino men.			20 10	30
Drintona				70
Printers			18 to	22
Shipbuilders		. 85		

With food.

· With board and lodging.

DAILY OR MONTHLY WAGES OF WORKERS IN HONGKONG, JULY, 1921, BY OCCUPATION—Concluded.

Occupation.	Wages	per	day.	Wages	
Tailors: [§] "High"				\$30 to	
"Medium" "Common"			• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	15 to 11 to	18
"New hand"- Cutters.				3 to 40 to	
Tea packers: Adults Children	\$0.50 .25			421 to	23
Tea pickers (chiefly women): Adults	. 40	to	. 60		
Children	5.25	to	.30		

Workers are classified as "high," "medium," and "common." With food and lodging.

5 With one meal.

The wages of silk weavers in Nanking were erroneously reported to be \$3 and \$4 a day in an article on "Wages and hours of labor in five Chinese cities, 1917 and 1920, in the Monthly Labor Review for August, 1921 (page 10). The facts as later given by the author of the article are as follows:

Weaver (plain silk): Wage is paid by piecework at \$3 per Chinese cut (per "pieh"), which is about 40 yards. It takes the weaver about 7.5 working days to finish a cut, so he gets a daily wage of about 40 cents (Chinese money).

Weaver (fancy silk): Wage is paid by piecework at \$4 per cut (per "pieh"), which is about 40 yards. It takes the worker about 9 working days to finish a cut, or he gets a daily wage of about 44 cents. But, in addition, he gets free board, which may be estimated at from 10 to 15 cents in Nanking. Therefore the fancy silk weaver receives a daily wage of about 55 cents.

Wage Scales in the Silk Industry in Leek, England.

CONSULAR report dated September 2, 1921, contains statistics of weekly wage rates established by agreement between the Leek Manufacturers and Dyers' Association and the Amalgamated Society of Textile Workers and Kindred Trades. The agreement between the employers' association and the union was concluded on October 22, 1920, and provides for a sliding scale of wages based on changes in the cost of living as shown by figures published in the British Labor Gazette. The following table shows the weekly wage rates established in October, 1920, and, as revised on the basis of changes in the cost of living, those which are in effect on and after July 1, 1921. For purposes of comparison the prewar, 1913, rate is also given.

¹ For the terms of other wage agreements based on cost of living see the Monthly Labor Review for October, 1921, pp. 104-107.

WEEKLY RATES OF WAGES IN THE SILK INDUSTRY OF LEEK, ENGLAND, IN 1913, AND AS ESTABLISHED BY AGREEMENT, OCTOBER, 1920, AND JULY 1, 1921.

[1 s. at par=24.3 cents; 1 d.=2.03 cents.]

	Weekly rates of wages—					
Sex, occupation, and age.	In 1913.	In October, 1920.	As from July 1, 1921.			
Males.						
Spindle fettlers, oilers, cleaners, and operators in braid and knitting departments: 13 years of age 14 years of age 15 years of age 16 years of age 16 years of age 17 years of age 18 years of age 19 years of age 19 years of age 11 years of age 11 years of age 12 years of age 13 years of age 14 years of age 15 years of age 16 years of age 17 years of age 18 years of age 19 years of age 20 years of age 21 years of age 21 years of age 22 years of age 22 years of age 22 years of age 23 years of age 24 years of age 25 years of age 26 years of age 27 years of age 28 years of age 29 years of age 29 years of age 20 years of age 21 years of age 22 years of age 23 years of age 24 years of age 25 years of age 26 years of age 27 years of age 28 years of age 29 years of age	8 d. 5 0 6 0 6 6 7 0 8 0 9 0 10 0 111 0 12 0 13 0 14 6 19 6 19 6 20 0 23 6 23 6 28 0	8, d. 18 0 19 0 20 6 24 0 28 0 30 0 32 0 37 6 39 6 41 6 41 6 42 6 56 6 66 6 66 6 73 0	s. d. 14 (15 (16 (18 (20 (24 (28 (33 (33 (33 (35 (34 (45 (45 (52 (58 (55 (56 (
Dyers and glossers: 14 years of age. 14 years of age. 15 years of age. 15 years of age. 16 years of age. 16 years of age. 17 years of age. 17 years of age. 18 years of age. 19 years of age. 20 years of age. 21 years of age. 21 years of age. 22 years of age.	6 6 6 7 6 8 6 19 6 10 6 11 6 12 6 11 6 6 14 6 15 6 6 18 0 19 6 20 6 22 0 24 0 24 0	20 6 21 6 24 0 26 0 29 6 32 0 34 6 36 0 41 0 42 6 49 6 49 6 52 0 54 0 58 0 69 0 71 0	16 (17 (20) (22 (25 (28 (30) (33 (40 (42 (45 (45 (61 (63 (63 (63 (63 (64 (65 (66 (66 (66 (66 (66 (66 (66			
Youths Adults 2— First year	24 0	71 0	(1)			
Second year. Third year. Fourth year.	25 0 26 0 27 0	72 0 73 0 79 0	64 (65 (71 (
Dyeing machine men: man to 1 machine. man to 3 machines. man to 2 machines. man do 2 machines. stokers and yardmen. Daywaringed workers over 29 mags of age.	24 6 25 6 26 6	71 6 72 6 73 6 (8)	63 64 65 (4)			
Stokers and yardmen Inexperienced workers over 22 years of age: First month Second month Third month Fourth month Fifth month Sixth month Seventh month Eighth month Ninth month Tenth month Tenth month Tenth month	(9) (9) (9) (6) (6) (6) - (8) (6)	57 6 58 6 59 6 61 6 63 6 65 6 67 6 68 6 69 6	51 53 55 57 59 60 61 63			

¹¹s. per week above regular rate for dyers for first year and thereafter 2s. per week above dyers' rate until fourth year rate for adult mixers is reached.

2 Wages of adult mixers receiving more than regular rate were increased 6s. in October, 1920, and decreased 8s. on July 1, 1921.

3 Increase of 6s.

4 Decrease of 8s.

5 No prewarscale.

WEEKLY RATES OF WAGES IN THE SILK INDUSTRY OF LEEK, ENGLAND, IN 1913, AND AS ESTABLISHED BY AGREEMENT, OCTOBER, 1920, AND JULY 1, 1921—Concid.

	Wee	ekly rates of wages	-	
Sex, occupation, and age.	In 1913.	In October, 1920.	As from July 1, 1921.	
Males—Concluded.				
Spinners, throwsters, and reelers: 13 years of age. 14 years of age. 15 years of age. 15 years of age. 16 years of age. 16 years of age. 17 years of age. 17 years of age. 17 years of age. 18 years of age. 18 years of age. 19 years of age. 20 years of age. 20 years of age. 21 years of age. 21 years of age. 22 years of age. 21 years of age. 22 years of age.	9 6 10 6 11 6 11 6 12 6 13 6 15 0 16 0 17 0 18 0 19 0 20 0 23 0 24 6	s. d. 18 0 19 0 20 0 22 6 24 0 30 0 32 0 33 0 32 0 34 0 37 6 41 6 43 6 47 0 49 6 52 6 66 67 0	s. d. 14 (15 (16 (18 6 (20 (18 6 (20 (18 6 (20 (18 6 (
Females. ⁶				
13 or 14 years of age. 14½ years of age. 15½ years of age. 15½ years of age. 16½ years of age. 16½ years of age. 17 years of age. 17½ years of age. 18½ years of age. 18½ years of age. 18 years of age and over. Learners, 18 years of age and over: First 2 months. Third month. Fourth month. Fifth month. Sixth month.	6 6 6 7 0 7 6 8 0 8 6 9 6 10 6 12 0	26 6 29 0 32 6 40 6	12 6 13 6 15 6 20 6 22 6 22 8 28 6 730 6 732 6 734 6	
Sixth month. Seventh month. Eighth month.			736 6 738 6 740 6	

⁶ Most of the female workers are on piece rates and earn at least 20 per cent above the rate for time work. SHk pickers and weavers, though not covered by the agreement, are now generally receiving 57s. and 63s per week, respectively, in the Leck district.

7 Per month.

Agricultural Wages in England.

REDUCTION of the minimum rates of wages of agricultural laborers,¹ effective September 5, 1921, is reported in the British Labor Gazette, September, 1921 (pp. 455, 456). These minimum rates are fixed for male and female workers in agriculture by the Agricultural Wages Board for England and Wales. The new minimum rates for adult male laborers represent a reduction in 35 counties of 4s. (97.3 cents, par) per week and in other counties a reduction varying from 4s. 6d. (\$1.10, par) to 6s. (\$1.46, par) per week. The weekly hours of labor are 50 in summer and 48 in winter except in Cheshire, where they are 54 the entire year. The minimum weekly rates for ordinary laborers of 21 years of age and over and including the value of allowances of board and lodging,

See Monthly Labor Review, March, 1921, p. 105.

cottage, milk, and potatoes, where these are provided by the employer, are 47s. (\$11.44, par) in Cheshire, 44s. 6d. (\$10.71, par) in Durham and Northumberland, 44s. (\$9.73, par) in Glamorgan and Monmouth, 43s. (\$10.46, par) in Yorkshire, 42s. 6d. (\$10.22, par) in Lincolnshire and Middlesex, and 42s. (\$9.73, par) in 44 other counties.

In 34 counties the minimum rates are the same for all classes of workers, but in the remaining counties special minimum rates are fixed for horsemen, cattlemen, shepherds, etc., payable in respect of hours, ranging from 50 to 63 per week in summer and from 48 to 63 in winter These rates now range from 48s. [\$11.68, par] for underhorsemen in Gloucestershire, stockmen, team men, carters, and shepherds in Merioneth and Montgomery, to 56s. [\$13.63, par] for horsemen, cattlemen, and shepherds in Cumberland and Westmorland. In Essex a special minimum rate of 46s. [\$11,19, par] is fixed for men engaged in market gardening.

In the case of male workers under 21 years of age the minimum rates now fixed are

as follows:

[1s. at par=24.3 cents; 1d.=2 03 cents.]

			Minimum weekly rates in—								
· Age.	Northu berlan Durha: Glamorg and Monmo	d, m, gan,		·e.	Lincoln shire an Middlese	d	Other counties.				
18 and under 19 17 and under 18 16 and under 17 15 and under 16 14 and under 15	years	38 36 28 23 19	d. 0 6 0 6 0 6 0	8. 40 37 35 28 22 18 15	d. 0 6 0 0 6 6 0 0	8. 40 37 35 28 22 18 14 10	d. 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	8. 39 37 35 28 22 18 14			

¹ Except Cheshire, where higher rates are payable in respect of a week of 54 hours. Westmorland, and Furness the rate for boys of 14 and under 15 years is 15s. [\$3.65, par]. In Cumberland.

In a few counties higher rates have been fixed for youths and boys employed as

cattlemen, horsemen, shepherds, etc.

cattlemen, horsemen, shepherds, etc.

The minimum rates fixed for women and girls formerly ranged from 3d. [6.1 cents, par] per hour for those under 14 years to 8d. [16.2 cents, par] per hour for those of 18 years and over in all counties except Yorkshire, where the range was 3d. to 10d. [6.1 to 20.3 cents, par]. Under the new order the rates range from 2½d. to 7d. [5.1 to 14.2 cents, par], except in Yorkshire, where they are 3d. to 8d. [6.1 to 16.2 cents, par]. The hours of labor in respect of which these rates are payable are 8 or 8½ per day. The overtime rates have also been reduced. In the case of women of 18 years and over the rates are now 10d. [20.3 cents, par] per hour on week days and 1s. [24.3 cents, par] on Sundays, in place of 1s. 0½d. and 1s. 3d. [25.3 and 30.4 cents, par] respectively in Yorkshire, and 9d. and 10½d. [18.3 and 21.3 cents, par] in place of 10d. and 1s. [20.3 and 24.3 cents] in other counties. and 24.3 cents | in other counties.

Wages, Standards of Living, and Unemployment in Mexico.

CCORDING to a summary of economic conditions in Mexico, which appears in a recent issue of Commerce Reports, "there has been for six months a gradual readjustment of labor costs, not equal in all lines, and in the case of railway employees no actual reduction in pay." Miners' wages have been cut from 20 to

U. S. Commerce Reports No. 1. Washington, Sept. 5, 1921. pp. 32, 47

40 per cent, those of factory operatives less than 10 per cent, and of farm laborers, especially in the henequen and cotton fields, about 40 per cent. It is stated that as the farm laborers are usually provided with free quarters, and many cultivate their own truck patches, they do not suffer so much by wage reductions as do factory workers

The wages paid in the principal industries are: Railway engineers, base, 500 pesos [\$249, par] per month, time and a half for overtime; farm laborers, 1.50 to 2 pesos [75 cents to \$1, par] per day, dwellings usually provided free by employer; miners, 2 to 8 pesos [\$1 to \$3.99, par] per day, depending on class of work; mill operatives, largely paid by piecework, based on 2 to 3 pesos [\$1 to \$1.50, par] per day; unskilled labor in general, from 1 peso [50 cents, par] per day in remote districts to 1.50 to 2

[75 cents to \$1, par] in towns.

Effectively, real wages have advanced but little if at all since 1910, as increases were accompanied by increase in the cost of living, particularly for housing, clothing, and tools of workmen. Thus, while in 10 years average paid wages, in terms of gold, approximately doubled, living costs increased by 150 to 250 per cent, as shown by the index published by the Government.

The standards of living have been little affected in Mexico by the World War com-

pared with those for certain European countries. Civil disturbances have affected standards frequently and widely, sometimes as direct result of military operations, but more by the economic results of the depreciation of the paper currency from 1914 to 1917 and by the impairment of the morale of the workers.

Labor organizations claim that the cost of living increased about 11 per cent in July, although some articles of prime necessity were The Government is attempting to compensate increased

living costs by lowering import duties.

Estimates of the number unemployed vary so widely that little credence can be placed in them, the labor leaders claiming 1,000,000 or more, and the Government officials 150,000 or less. The fields most affected were first of all mines, followed by farms, and recently by oil fields. The agrarian policies of the Government and of various States, it is said, are responsible for the unemployment of farm workers, many large plantations lying idle or partly so on account of confiscation or for fear of it. However, the Government has lately offered to return to the original owners certain confiscated properties on condition that there be employed on them designated numbers of repatriates, 25,000 to 230,000 of whom have returned from the United States, greatly aggravating the unemployment situation.

Wage Adjustments to Cost of Living in Certain Foreign Countries.1

THE statistical departments of various Governments publish index numbers showing estimated periodic changes in the cost of living for a typical worker's family, and recently in a number of countries wages have been adjusted in accordance with such index numbers. The principal schemes in this connection which are or have been in force in some important foreign countries are summarized in the following pages.

¹International Labor Office. International Labor Review, Geneva, July-August, 1921, pp. 152-165.

Australia.

THE Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Act established a basic wage commission in 1919 to inquire into present actual living costs and "to consider methods for an automatic adjustment of the basic minimum wage to the rise and fall in the purchasing power of the sovereign." According to the commission, reporting in 1920, the cost of living for a family of five ranged from £56s. 2d. (\$25.83,

par) per week in Brisbane to £5 17s. (\$28.47, par) in Sydney.

One of the functions of the New South Wales Board of Trade was to "make from year to year a public inquiry into the increase or decrease in the average cost of living" with a view to determining certain minimum wages. "When the first 'living wage' judgment was delivered in 1914, it stated that 'the laborer's wage should move up and down in accordance with the changes in the purchasing power of the sovereign as determined by the Commonwealth statistics."" The amount fixed for 1914 was £2 8s. (\$11.68, par) per week. In November, 1920, it was £4 5s. (\$20.68, par) per week. These are merely minimum rates similar to those in New Zealand. Different industries may have "secondary minima" in which skill, etc., are taken into consideration.

Austria.

IN AUSTRIA a sliding scale of salaries for Government employees, based upon the cost of living, was adopted in 1919. The act introducing the practice provides that, "in addition to a fixed indemnity of 2,400 crowns (\$485.24, par), each civil servant shall receive a bonus fluctuating according to variations in the official prices of flour, fats, and sugar, as calculated by comparison with the prices on November 1, 1919." The bonus ranges from 45 per cent to 75 per cent of the fixed bonus, in accordance with the official's grade and the locality in which he lives.

The Metal Workers' Association of Vienna also entered into an agreement with the employers' associations in December, 1919, for a sliding scale of wages. Every two months a joint committee fixes the rate of increase or decrease according to the prices of certain articles of food and other necessaries. For December, 1919, and January, 1920, the bonus was fixed at 33 per cent for men and 15 per cent for women and youths; for February, 1920, it was fixed at 53 per cent and 33 per cent, respectively.

Belgium.

THE index number of retail prices published by the Revue du Travail is used in the adjustment of wages in the most important branches of industry. The following are some of the regulations passed by the National Joint Mines Commission regarding wage adjustment in the mining industry:

Whenever the index number of the Revue du Travail exceeds the previous index number by at least 4½ per cent, 9½ per cent, or 14½ per cent, the wages in force shall be increased by 5, 10, 15 per cent, etc., and the new wages shall correspond to a new basic index number equal to the preceding index number, increased respectively by 5, 10, 15 per cent, etc.

When the index number published by the Revue du Travail falls, wages and the

index number may be decreased by an inverse process.

If for any reason wages are not decreased when the index number of the Revue du Travail allows of a decrease, the basic index number shall not be changed, and the previous basic index number, in accordance with which wages have been adjusted, shall be taken as the basis for further fluctuations in wages.

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Among the industries which have had collective agreements on a similar principle somewhat differently applied are: Boilermaking,

wood and furniture, engineering, and leather.

The Government has granted to both its manual and nonmanual employees permanent, provisional, or temporary—a cost of living bonus varying according to the following order of the Ministry of Finance under date of July 11, 1920:

The cost-of-living bonus shall increase or decrease according to the rise or fall in the level of prices, as recorded by the index numbers published periodically by the Ministry of Industry, Labor, and Food.

The increase or decrease shall be effected by thirds, corresponding to 60 units of

the index number (average for the whole of the country).

Present rates of wages correspond to the index number 480.

Canada.

HE following are the principal instances on the Canadian Pacific Coast in which wages have been adjusted according to cost of living indexes:

Coal Miners, Vancouver Island.—In January, 1919, a joint commission of three (one miner, one manager, and the fair-wages officer of the Canadian Department of Labor) was set up, to determine every three months the change in the cost of living and to report the amount by which wages should be increased or decreased. The system adopted is to send out questionnaires to the shopkeepers with whom the miners are accustomed to deal. From these is determined the percentage increase or decrease of prices of food on those of the previous quarter; to this is added a further two-fifths of increase or decrease to cover a rise or fall in the price of clothing. This percentage is applied to the basic wage in order to adjust wages.

Gas Workers, Vancouver Town.—An agreement in July, 1918, between the Vancouver Gas Co. and the Gas Workers' Union provided that wages should be adjusted.

every quarter in accordance with the cost-of-living index number published by the Canadian Government for British Columbia. As this index number does not include clothing and other necessities, estimates for these were, by agreement, included by the

arhitrator

Shipbuilding Employees, Pacific Coast.—An agreement similar to that made on behalf of the gas workers was entered into in June, 1918, by the shipbuilding unions and the employers.

Denmark.

SALARY regulation in accordance with cost of living was provided by law (September, 1919) for all Government employees, and an agreement of April, 1920, between the Danish Employers' Federation and the Danish Confederation of Trade-Unions makes the same principle applicable to a large number of other workers. After March, 1920, the bonus for Government employees has been calculated as follows:

For every 3 per cent by which the cost of living * * * exceeds or falls below the cost-of-living figure for July, 1919, the bonus is increased or decreased by 54 kroner [\$14.47, par] per annum for employees with family and 36 kroner [\$9.65, par] for others. If man and wife are both entitled to bonus, the bonus is allotted to one only.

The above-mentioned agreement of April, 1920, regarding private employees provided that if the official cost-of-living index number "for August 1 shows an increase when compared with that of February, a bonus will be paid of 2 øre [toent, par] per hour for every 3 points of the increase.

France.

THE fact that the published Government price statistics for the country as a whole relate to only 13 common food articles and do not include clothing, rent, coal, and other important items of the family budget partially accounts for the absence in general trade agreements of provision for the adjustment of wages through cost-of-living index numbers. The establishment, however, by the decree of February 10, 1921, of a national committee and district committees to follow changes in cost of living has led to the setting up of many local committees. The findings of these committees seem to be used, however, as a basis for increasing wages and not to establish an automatic system of wage increases or decreases.

Germany.

THE Flensburg joint committee of representatives of the Federation of Trades-Unions and of employers' organizations, of which committee the director of the Labor and Wages Office is chairman, estimates changes in cost of living on the basis of a normal individual's weekly expenditure in January, 1920. The corresponding wage basis adopted by the committee is "the average hourly wage paid in the course of the same month to workers in 12 different trades." The following table shows the increases in weekly expenditure during January, February, and March, 1920, together with the increases in average hourly wages in these months:

WEEKLY EXPENDITURE OF A NORMAL INDIVIDUAL DURING JANUARY, FEBRUARY, AND MARCH, 1920, FOR FOOD, GAS, COAL, RENT, CLOTHING, ETC., AND AVERAGE HOURLY WAGES IN THESE MONTHS OF WORKERS IN 12 INDUSTRIES.

[1 mark	at	par=23.8	cents.)
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Date.	Weekly expendi- ture.	Average hourly wage.
Jan. 1, 1920	Marks. 42.39 47.00 52.17	Marks. 2. 75 3. 05 3. 40

Only the wages of workers more than 23 years of age follow exactly the variations in the cost of living.

Wages of workers from 20 to 23 years of age are increased in a proportion equal to five-sixths of the rise in the cost of living; in the case of women and workers under 20 years of age the proportion is reduced to five-tenths. The increase in wages is not calculated for each industry separately, but for the whole of the 12 groups which are taken as a basis.

New Zealand.

IN 1919 the Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act was amended to provide that the arbitration court for industrial disputes should "have power to amend any award or industrial agreement in regard to wages to meet any alterations in the cost of living that may have taken place since the award or agreement." A system of adjusting legal minimum wages semiannually on the basis of prices published by the Covernment statistician was inaugurated.

Norway.

IT IS reported that only one agreement has been made by the Norwegian Employers' Federation (March, 1919), for adjusting wages on a sliding scale. This agreement, which involves the railway service at Luossa-vaara, provides that 6.25 kroner (\$1.68, par) per annum be added to the basic wage for each unit by which the published Government cost-of-living index exceeds 100. The bonus is to disappear when such index drops to 100.

Poland.

THE results of the studies of the commission set up by the Council of Ministers in May, 1920, to establish the cost of living for a worker's family appear regularly in the "Polish Monitor," an official organ, thus facilitating the adaptation of wage scales to the fluctua-

tions of the cost of the necessaries of life.

For a while the commission functioned only at Warsaw. A decree of September 14, 1920, established similar bodies at Poznan, Lodz, and Sosnowiec. The presidents of the commissions are nominated by the director of the Statistical Office, which office in conjunction with the Warsaw commission "exercises a right of control and supervision" over the local commissions.

Sweden.

IN JUNE, 1919, the Swedish (private) railway employees entered into an agreement providing not only for a fixed percentage increase based on the cost-of-living index, but also for a fixed money addition to wages. Supplementing this compensation was an allowance for the man's wife and for each child under 15 years of age, which allowances also change with the cost of living. Swedish Government officials receive cost-of-living bonuses. In calculating these bonuses "the percentage increase over the base period, as shown by the official index number is reduced by one-ninth and the result is taken as the base figure (grundtal). This reduced percentage was applied to all salaries up to 85 kroner [\$22.78, par] per month. On salaries between 85 and 1,250 kroner [\$22.78 and \$335, par] per month this percentage was applied to the first 85 kroner and 55 per cent of this percentage applied to the remainder of the salary." No bonus is paid on a salary in excess of 1,250 kroner.

United Kingdom.

IN THE United Kingdom numerous industrial agreements provide for the periodic and automatic adjustment of wages based on changes in cost of living. Usually the official published statistics of the Ministry of Labor are used in such adjustments. Sometimes, however, the increases or decreases are arranged for by flat-rate money amounts; in other cases the changes are provided for by a percentage supplement to the basic or standard rates. The October, 1921, issue of the Monthly Labor Review contains a detailed chart showing the variations in methods of computation and the different index numbers used in the different industries.

United States.

THE November, 1918, issue of the Monthly Labor Review of this bureau contains an article by Prof. Irving Fisher on "Adjusting wages to the cost of living" in the United States. The Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics is at present planning to make a comprehensive study of this subject.

MINIMUM WAGE.

Washington War Emergency and Laundry Orders.

HE Industrial Welfare Commission of the State of Washington on September 10, 1918, issued a general order fixing the minimum wage for females over the age of 18 years "in any occupation, trade, or industry throughout the State during the period of the war." This was passed as a war emergency order and superseded prior orders with the exception of telephone and telegraph occupations. In the absence of a definite treaty or other mode of determination of "the period of the war," the question of the validity of this order remained open until August 10, 1921. Conditions which led to the reorganization of the commission and the consequent delaying of any suspension of its activities left the matter in abeyance until the date noted, when the office of the attorney general of the State issued a ruling to the effect that "since the status of the war no longer exists," the order of September 10, 1918, is no longer valid.

In the meantime the reorganized "Department of Labor and Industries" of the State of Washington has proceeded through its industrial welfare committee to determine a rate for laundry and dye workers, holding a conference on the subject on September 29. At this date the conference agreed upon the same rate as that embodied in the war emergency order, i. e., \$13.20 for experienced females over

the age of 18.

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LABOR AGREEMENTS, AWARDS, AND DECISIONS.

Recent Labor Agreements and Decisions.

Railroads.

REGIONAL board of adjustment for train service for the western region has been established through joint agreement of the four transportation brotherhoods and eleven western carriers, namely, the Denver & Salt Lake Railroad Co.; the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railway Co.; the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Railway Co.; the Great Northern Railway Co.; the Northern Pacific Railway Co.; the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad Co.; the Union Pacific Railroad Co.; the Illinois Central Railroad Co.; the Minneapolis, St. Paul & Sault Ste. Marie Railway Co.; the Gulf, Colorado & Santa Fe Railway Co.; the Spokane, Portland & Seattle Railway Co.; and the Colorado & Southern Railway Co.

The members of the board who represent the carriers are Mr. W. E. Morse, former vice president of the Denver & Salt Lake Railroad Co., chairman; Assistant General Manager Gillick of the eastern lines of the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railway Co.; General Manager Pettibone of the Texas lines of the Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Railway Co.; and General Manager Bell of the Great

Northern Railway Co.

Members representing the brotherhoods are Vice President Dougherty for the engineers, Vice President Curtis for the conductors, Vice President McLaughlin for the firemen, and Vice President Whitney

for the trainmen.

The board, with permanent offices in Chicago, will confine its jurisdiction to the adjustment of disputes growing out of personal grievances or interpretation or application of the agreements, schedules, or practices on the railroads signatory to the agreement, which can not be settled between the individual carrier and its employees. Failing to arrive at a majority agreement, the board will, upon request of either party, certify the dispute to the Railroad Labor Board for final decision.

All disputes arising out of proposed changes in rules, working conditions, or rates of wages are specifically excluded from the jurisdiction of the board. In the determination of disputes involving personal grievances the decision of the board is limited to the guilt or innocence of employees as charged. "The board is not empowered to assess punishment or change the discipline administered."

Recently, it is understood, the New York Central Railroad Co. and the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Co. joined in the formation of an ad-

justment board somewhat similar in nature.

Fancy Leather Goods-New York.

ON SEPTEMBER 28, Dr. W. M. Leiserson, arbitrator between the leather manufacturers and the fancy leather goods worker's union, made public his decision affecting wages in that industry. The decision, which became effective October 3, reduces week-work and piecework rates 10 per cent. The minimum rate of pay for first-class cutters, operators, pocketbook makers, framers, and barers on week work is \$38 a week (reduction from \$41.80), and for second class work \$34 a week (reduction from \$37.40).

"All week workers must be paid the same amounts they received immediately prior to the last wage increase, but if this was below the minimum wage for their class, they shall be paid the minimum." Week workers who were not employed before September, 1920, in the shops where they are now working shall have their present wages reduced 10 per cent, but not below the minumum set for their class

of work.

The new piece prices for framers and pocketbook makers on new work is \$1 an hour for an average experienced worker instead of the \$1.10 rate under the old agreement.

Dr. Leiserson's decision also contained the following arrangement

as to production in the fancy leather goods industry:

In addition to this award, the arbitrator is of the opinion that there ought to be some increase in production. The lack of records, however, makes it impossible to say how much this should be. Lack of records also makes it impossible to say for what part of the increased production would additional pay be justified. All that the arbitrator can do under the circumstances is to order in general terms that production must be increased. Details should be worked out by people permanently connected with the industry, such as the arbitration committee, the impartial chairman, and the production committees.

These should set to work immediately to install a method of measuring increases or decrease in production. If this is done and by January 1, 1922, the arbitration committee or the impartial chairman find on investigation that production has not improved any or has decreased, a decrease of 5 per cent in all wage rates shall be ordered. If, on the other hand, the records and investigation on or about January 1, 1922, show an increase in production large enough to justify increased wages, then the arbitration committee or the impartial chairman shall order such wage increases

as may be justified by the production given.

The question of wages was the one point upon which the association and the union were unable to agree and which was left to arbitration during the recent negotiations resulting in the agree-

ment in this industry.

The agreement providing for the arbitration on the wage question which resulted in the above decision was signed on August 25 to remain in effect until August 1, 1922. Provisions of this agreement include the 44-hour week; time and one-half for overtime; equal division of work during the slack season; prohibition of discrimination against workers because of union activity; a recommendation for a joint board of sanitary control for the industry, and the prohibition of strikes or lockouts during the life of the contract pending the termination of complaints or agreements thereunder.

Grievances arising under this agreement which can not be settled by the shop chairman and the employer or his representative are to be submitted first to representatives designated by each party, known as chief clerks, who shall make an investigation into the complaint. Adjustments so made are to be binding upon the parties. In the event that these chief clerks fail to arrive at a decision the complaint shall be taken up by the impartial chairman who may refer it, upon application of either side, to the joint grievance board. The grievance board consists of 3 representatives of each party. Disputes which can not be settled by this board are to be submitted for final decision to an impartial umpire, mutually agreed upon and whose decision shall be binding.

The agreement and decision affect about 7,000 fancy leather goods

workers in the New York section of the industry.

Pittsburgh Carpenters.

THE dispute in the building trades which has hampered construction work in Pittsburgh since the first of June has been settled so far as the carpenters are concerned by an agreement recently signed by the Master Builders' Association of Allegheny County and the Carpenters' District Council of Pittsburgh and Vicinity, which became effective September 21, and is to remain in force till February 28, 1923. Under this agreement, sympathetic strikes are renounced, strikes over jurisdictional disputes require a notice of two weeks, and arbitration is provided for local disputes and disagreements. The eight-hour day and 44-hour week is accepted. Wages are placed at \$1 an hour, with time and a half for overtime, and double time for Sunday or holiday work. There is to be no restriction on output, on use of machinery, or on the use of any material, other than prison made. Only union men are to be employed, unless the union should be unable to furnish the men desired, when others may be taken on. Provisions are made for the employment and wages of apprentices.

Study of Collective Agreements in the Clothing Industries.

THE results of a comprehensive study of collective bargaining between employers and the chief national unions of workers in the clothing industries in the leading clothing centers of the country are set forth in a recent report of the National Industrial Conference Board. The study covers both past experience and present conditions in all branches of the clothing industries. A brief description of each union, its history, powers, and the aims and methods with which it approaches collective bargaining is given, together with a discussion of the agreements themselves.

The average number of workers in the clothing industries in 1914—the latest date for which accurate data are available—was 555,000. The maximum number employed during that year was approximately 599,000. From 54 to 59 per cent of these workers are organ-

ized.

¹ National Industrial Conference Board. Experience with trade-union agreements—Clothing industries. New York, The Century Co., 1921. 134 pp. Research report No. 38.

The rapid growth of unionism among these workers is indicated in the following table taken from the report:

	Member	ship.1
	1909-10.	1919-20.
Amalgamated Clothing Workers (founded 1914)		2 150, 000
United Garment Workers	54, 200	45, 900
Journeymen Tailors' Union	12,000	3 12,000
Ladies' Garment Workers	18,700	105, 400
Fur Workers of United States and Canada (founded 1910)		12, 100
Fur Workers, International Association of (surrendered charter,		
1911)	200.	
Cloth Hat and Cap Makers	2, 100	4 15, 000
United Hatters.	8,500	10,500
Straw and ladies' hat workers (locals only)	5 400	6 700
Neckwear workers (locals only)	(7)	6 1, 100
Suspender workers (locals only)	(7)	6 200
Total	96, 100	352, 900

Of the 7 principal unions only one organization—the Amalgamated Clothing Workers—is unaffiliated with the American Federation of Labor.

The outstanding feature of the trade-union agreements, says the report, is their instability, as compared with ordinary contracts of business, demonstrated by the frequency with which they are modi-

fied before their expiration.

Because of the inadequacy of the records it is impossible to draw an accurate comparison in the number or duration of strikes occurring during the period in which agreements have been in force and those of the preceding period. Neither general strikes nor shop strikes have been eliminated. It appears fairly certain, however, says the report, that minor disorders have been diminished under the agreements. One of the principal factors in the reduction of shop strikes has been the substitution under agreements of more orderly means of settling grievances. "The machinery for adjusting controversies has been one of the most successful developments under the clothing agreements."

Other factors unfavorable to output in these industries, attributed to agreements, are: (1) Shorter working week, which employers testify has involved a diminution of production, although, the report says, the matter has not been subjected to a desirable degree of investigation. (2) The substitution of the week work for the piece work system. Although exact statistical evidence is lacking, testimony of employers indicates that this change has resulted in diminished production. (3) The difficulty of enforcing discipline owing to the limitations placed by agreements upon the right to discharge. (4) Union rules relating to manufacturing methods. (5) The

limitation of overtime. (6) The division of work, etc.

¹ Membership figures, when not otherwise noted, are computed from American Federation of Labor voting strength, which is based on per capita tax paid by each organization, which in turn is based on membership of each. Voting strength for 1909-10, from American Federation of Labor "History, Encyclopedia, Reference Book," 1919, pp. 478-481; for 1919-20 from American Federation of Labor Proceedings, 40th Annual Convention, 1920, pp. 19-20.

² Membership in good standing, "over 150,000"—Budish, J. M., and Soule, G. "The New Unionism."

Membership in good standing, over 100,000
 Based on American Federation of Labor voting strength. Actual membership said to have been about 18,000 in 1920. The Tailor, Jan. 25, 1921, p. 3.
 "The New Unionism," p. 80.
 Barnett, G. E. "Growth of Labor Organization in the United States, 1897-1914." Quarterly Journal of Economics, August, 1916, p. 841.
 Number approximated to nearest hundred. Membership figures from secretary, American Federation of Labor Membership may exceed above figures.
 No data

On the other hand, there are certain ways in which agreements have apparently increased output. In addition to the decrease in the number of shop strikes, already noted, labor turnover seems to have been reduced somewhat, and factory morale improved in some cases. The net effect on production, however, says the report, seems to have been adverse.

Wages have been materially increased under agreements, and appear to have been stabilized thereby. This stabilization of wages, because it enables them to predict labor costs, has been one of the principal advantages employers hope to derive from the adoption of the trade-union agreement. This advantage, however, has been "largely nullified by the frequency with which wage terms were changed during the currency of agreements."

Conditions affecting the health and safety of the workers have shown marked improvement during the period covered by union

agreements.

That agreements have strengthened union organization is obvious from the remarkable gain in membership made during their operation. Greater security of employment has been gained in a few instances by union members through the inclusion in agreements of guaranties of a specified number of weeks of employment.

With respect to the alleged preparation for control of industry on

the part of clothing unions, the report says:

Certain of the labor unions in the clothing industries, in pursuance of general socialistic policies declare that their ultimate aim is the control by the workers of the industries in which they operate. While the agreements negotiated by these unions give no indication of the direct furtherance of this aim, it is possible that the agreements may be considered as assisting these socialistic projects indirectly; for under agreements union officials have enhanced opportunities for becoming familiar with the problems of management and, to that extent, of equipping themselves for the desired control. It is, however, a speculative possibility that such contact may serve to discourage this aim by correcting erroneous notions entertained by some union workers regarding the managerial side of industry. This is borne out by the frequent testimony of employers to the effect that union leaders become easier to deal with as they acquire increasing experience.

In conclusion the report states that no attempt has been made to cover all the economic effects of collective bargaining in the clothing industries. "The question, for example, as to how the consumer's interest has been served by the bargaining processes can not be fully answered without further investigation," nor can the practical value of union agreements "be fully measured by a study of a single industrial group, especially one with such peculiarities as characterize

the clothing industries."

Experience under specific agreements in various clothing centers, and made with various unions, is noted in detail. The agreements with the Amalgamated Clothing Workers in the Chicago clothing market have been particularly successful. Agreements similar in form have in other instances proven much less satisfactory. The explanation of this difference in results, says the report, is doubtless contained in the testimony of Mr. Schaffner (of Hart Schaffner & Marx) before the United States Commission on Industrial Relations to the effect that the success of the agreement depends much less upon the formal and external features than upon the spirit with which it is worked out.

Collective Agreements in Germany, 1919.

N A supplement (No. 23) to the Reichs-Arbeitsblatt 1 the German National Employment Office (Reichsamt für Arbeitsvermittlung) has recently published extensive statistics for the year 1919 on collective agreements in force in that year and at the same time has shown in what forms and in what directions collective bargaining

has developed in Germany.

The radical change at the end of 1918 in the political and social conditions in Germany also extensively influenced collective bargaining. In the agreement of November 15, 1918, of the principal employers' and workers' organizations it was explicitly stipulated that the working and wage conditions for all workers of both sexes should be determined through collective agreements with the workers' organizations.2 In addition, collective agreements, which hitherto had no legal standing, were regulated by law. A decree of December 23, 1918, regulating collective agreements, workers' and salaried employees' committees, and arbitration of labor disputes, has settled two important questions with respect to collective bargaining. the first place it provides that "if the conditions for the conclusion of labor contracts between workers' organizations and individual employers or organizations of employers have been regulated through an agreement in writing (collective agreement), labor contracts between the interested parties shall be ineffective in so far as they do not conform to such regulations." Secondly, the decree provides that "collective agreements which have become of predominant importance in the development of working conditions in an occupation within the territory covered by the agreement may be declared generally binding by the Federal Labor Department (Reichsarbeitsamt). In such a case they shall, within the territory in which they are binding, also be binding, within the meaning of article 1, where the employer or worker or both of them are not interested parties in the collective agreement."3

Even at the end of 1918, negotiations leading to the conclusion of collective agreements had been begun in all industry groups by employers' and workers' trade organizations, which were steadily growing and increasing in importance. The first results thereof are already visible in the statistics of collective agreements for the year 1918, which show an increase, although relatively moderate, in the number of establishments and persons bound by collective agree-The penetration into all branches of industry of the idea of collective bargaining finds, however, much fuller expression in the statistics of collective agreements for the year 1919. The number of joint collective agreements (Tarifgemeinschaften) concluded in 1919 was 9,331, as against 1,353 in 1918, and the number of such agreements in force at the end of 1919 was 11,009 as against 7,819 at the end of 1918. During the same period the number of establishments covered by joint collective agreements rose from 107,503 to 272,251 and the number of workers covered from 1,127,690 to 5,986,475.

Die Tarifverträge im Deutschen Reiche am Ende des Jahres 1919. Bearbeitet im Reichsamt für Arbeitsvermittlung. Berlin, 1921.
 See "Agreement between trade-unions and employers' associations in Germany." Monthly Labor Review, April, 1919, pp. 158–160.
 For the full text of the decree see Monthly Labor Review, April, 1919, pp. 160–167.

Actually the increase must have been much greater, especially in the case of the number of workers covered, because quite a number of workers' organizations either made no returns at all as to collective agreements concluded or sent in incomplete returns showing the number of collective agreements concluded but not that of the establishments and employees covered by them. It should, moreover, be borne in mind that the statistics do not include the numerous establishments and workers, which, although not parties to collective agreements, were covered by such agreements that had been declared generally binding in pursuance of the decree of December 23, 1918, mentioned above. Likewise the statistics fail to enumerate those establishments and workers which have voluntarily subjected themselves to the provisions of a collective agreement without being compelled by the agreement or by law to do so.

The most significant fact in the development of collective agreements is that collective bargaining is now making headway in those branches of large-scale industry which formerly manifested the strongest opposition to this form of concluding labor contracts. Among these industry branches are, above all, mining, smelting, the iron and steel industry, the chemical and the textile industry. Even in agriculture, in which hitherto collective bargaining was never resorted to, and in national, State, and municipal administrations and establishments, wage and working conditions are to-day gener-

ally regulated by collective agreements.

Statistics of Collective Agreements.

IN THE following table is shown the development of collective bargaining during the period 1907 to 1919. The data are based on reports of workers' organizations. As the individual workers' organizations report collective agreements concluded by them without consideration of the fact that several organizations, all of them reporting, are frequently concluding parties to the same agreement, there are many duplications. In the following table are therefore shown, first, the number of agreements and the establishments and persons covered by them as reported by the workers' organizations (with duplications), and, second, the number of joint agreements (Tarifgemeinschaften) without duplications. A joint collective agreement is considered to have been concluded—

(1) If only one workers' organization concludes a collective agreement with the same employers and for the same establishments;

(2) If several workers' organizations conclude jointly the same agreement with the same employers and for the same establishments;

(3) If several workers' organizations conclude separate agreements of the same contents with the same employers and the same establishments.

DEVELOPMENT OF COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS IN GERMANY, 1907 TO 1919.

End of—	Reported tions,	by workers' with duplica	organiza- ations.	Duplications eliminated.			
	Collective agreements.	Establish- ments covered.	Persons covered.	Joint collective agreements.	Establish- ments covered.	Persons covered.	
1907	12,437	111,050 120,401 137,214 173,727 183,232 208,307 1 193,760 1 200,068 2 186,120 2 163,992 2 147,134 2 166,896 3 321,349	974,564 1,026,435 1,107,478 1,361,086 1,552,827 1,999,579 11,845,454 11,915,492 21,488,199 21,213,028 21,385,574 21,680,105 39,381,427		159, 930 1 143, 088 1 143, 680 2 121, 697 2 104, 179 2 91, 313 2 107, 503 \$ 272, 251		

¹ A large number of collective agreements concluded in the building trades in 1913 and 1914 were not

² The figures for establishments and persons covered shown for the end of 1914 are prewar figures; those shown for 1915 to 1918, inclusive, are partly figures newly enumerated and partly prewar figures.

⁸ The data for 1919 can make no claim to completeness, many workers' organizations having either made no returns at all or sent in incomplete returns.

The figures in the preceding table speak for themselves. They show the enormous growth of the movement of collective bargaining. This growth is especially visible in the figures relating to establishments and persons covered by the agreements.

In the following table is shown how the joint collective agreements which came into force in 1918 and 1919 and those still in force at the end of each of these two years as well as the number of persons and establishments covered by these agreements were distributed among the various industry groups:

DISTRIBUTION OF JOINT COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS IN GERMANY BY INDUSTRY GROUPS, 1918 AND 1919.

		New agre	eements wh	ich came	into force	
		1918			1919	
Industry group.	Num- ber.	Estab- lish- ments. covered.	Persons covered.	Num- ber.	Estab- lish- ments. covered.	Persons covered.
Agriculture, gardening, etc	1 1	21 1	1, 816 441	477 148	9, 210 1, 901	90, 296 1, 372, 628
Industry of stones and earths	8 166 9	2,602	10, 346 169, 219	317 1, 299 167	2, 252 27, 369 1, 462	145, 575 1, 400, 459 176, 052
Chemical industry. Forestral by-products Textile industry.	5 5	19 8 8,003	3,373 1,858 90,820	109 262	271 4, 540	15, 457 332, 158
Paper industryLeather industry	18 12	238 362	6,722 35,981	106 262	785 5, 464	92, 949 80, 630
Wood working. Food, beverages and tobacco.	314 104	8, 194 7, 308	91,720 14,491	588	19, 330 40, 358 27, 782	250, 943 228, 730 327, 076
Clothing Cleaning Building	9 2 587	1,132 100 12,948	82, 223 203 74, 364	610 191 1,341	1,879 37,767	21, 945 424, 330
Printing, etc				35 12	1, 915	19, 49 770
Commerce. Insurance.	39	705	5,504	825 7	26, 143	123, 157 669
Fransport Hotels, restaurants, etc.	52 8	1,430	20,953 4,680 388	533 98	16, 240 14, 532	162, 673 145, 429
Musical and theatrical establishments Miscellaneous	5	21 42	7,886	76 576	1, 463 4, 625	14, 02 269, 07
Total.	1,353	44, 245	622,988	9,331	245, 392	5, 694, 508

DISTRIBUTION OF JOINT COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS IN GERMANY BY INDUSTRY GROUPS, 1918 AND 1919—Concluded.

		Agreeme	nts remaini	ng in for	ce at end o	of—		
Industry group.		1918			1919			
Agriculture, gardening, etc. Mining, smelting, salt works, etc. Industry of stones and earths. Metal working and machinery. Chemical industry. Forestral by-products. Textile industry. Paper industry. Leather industry. Woodworking. Food, beverages, and tobacco. Clothing. Clear ing. Building. Printing, etc. Art crafts. Commerce. Insurance Transport. Hotels, restaurants, etc. Musical and theatrical establishments. Miscellaneous.	804 40 27 15 144 196 1,004 1,617 479 65 1,678 72	740 2 2, 496 10, 983 3, 650 4, 965 11, 248 11, 629 12, 485 267 23, 475 9, 551 1, 986 955 919	5, 293 481 26, 794 282, 430 6, 968 2, 576 91, 399 35, 142 43, 440 120, 114 63, 407 141, 229 1, 563 141, 451 68, 298 34, 589 38, 916 7, 690 7, 690 15, 167	483 148 445 1,543 180 116 263 212 267 851 1,692 622 214 1,513 47 12 1,023 7 7 603 100 89 9579	9, 265 1, 901 3, 217 31, 098 1, 482 280 4, 555 2, 322 5, 501 24, 828 41, 308 10, 256 6, 784 6 17, 487 14, 534 1, 482	90, 577 1, 372, 628 158, 213 1, 463, 032 177, 226 16, 591 332, 277 122, 511 S1, 162 305, 288 243, 950 327, 581 22, 224 437, 199 95, 788 134, 117 168, 426 145, 444 14, 100 276, 709		
Total	7,819	107, 503	1, 127, 690	11,009	272, 251	5, 986, 475		

The most outstanding fact revealed by the preceding table is the predominant position of the metal-working and machinery industry with respect to collective bargaining. Nearly one-fourth of all persons covered by joint collective agreements in force at the end of 1919 are workers in this industry group. At the end of that year there were 1,543 joint collective agreements in force in the metalworking and machinery industry, covering 31,098 establishments and 1,463,032 workers. The Metalworkers' Federation even estimates that 2,000,000 workers in the metal-working and machinery industry are now working under conditions stipulated by collective agreements. The foodstuff industry holds first place in so far as the number of joint collective agreements in force (1,692) is considered, but the agreements in force in that industry covered only 243,950 persons. The building trades, which up to 1916 was the leading industry with respect to the number of joint collective agreements in force, lost this position in that year to the metal-working and machinery industry. At the end of 1919 there were in force in the building trades 1,513 agreements, covering 41,368 establishments and 437,195 workers. With the conclusion on October 25, 1919, of the much-discussed collective agreement for the Ruhr mines, in which collective bargaining had hitherto been unknown, and the conclusion of a national collective agreement for the potash industry, the mining and smelting industry became, next to the metal-working industry, the most important industry in so far as the number of persons covered by agreements (1,372,628) is considered. Other industry groups in which a large number of establishments have adopted collective bargaining are the clothing industry (27,898 establishments) and commerce (26,784 establishments), but owing to the small size of the establishments the number of persons covered by collective agreements was relatively small (327,581 and 134,117), so that the woodworking industry with 305,298 persons in 24,828 establishments and the textile industry with 332,277 persons in 4,556 establishments are of greater importance than commerce as adherents of the prin-

ciple of collective bargaining.

With this shifting of the principal fields of collective bargaining there has also come about a change with respect to the territorial extent of the validity of collective agreements and with respect to the signatory parties. Well up into war times nearly three-fourths of all agreements were concluded by individual firms, and one-third to one-half of all persons covered by collective agreements were subject to agreements concluded by individual firms. In 1919 only 54 per cent of all joint collective agreements were concluded by individual firms and only one-sixth of all the persons covered by joint collective agreements were working under regulations contained in agreements concluded by individual firms. Agreements by large employers' and workers' federations became more and more frequent, and such agreements were often concluded with validity for entire districts, Provinces, or States, or even for the whole of Germany. The great mass of the persons covered by collective agreements were subject to agreements valid for an entire district (63.7 per cent) or to a national agreement (7.8 per cent).

A great many of the agreements with validity for a district, Province, State, or the whole of Germany were concluded in the form of basic agreements (Rahmentarifverträge) fixing the general working conditions and leaving the fixing of details, especially of wage rates, to local determination by individual firms and workers'

organizations.

The National Employment Office states that 94.8 per cent of the joint collective agreements in force in Germany at the end of 1919, covering 93.9 per cent of all establishments and 96.1 per cent of all persons working under such agreements were concluded after peaceful negotiations. Soziale Praxis questions this statement. It asks for what purpose the 4,068 purely economic strikes (with 39,000 establishments and 3,250,000 workers involved) were carried on in 1919. Were they merely incidental disputes and breaches of agreements, or were they largely preludes to negotiations of collective

agreements?

A noteworthy fact brought out by the statistics of collective agreements for the year 1919 is the short validity of recently concluded agreements. In prewar times collective agreements were generally concluded for a term of three years. Of the agreements in force at the end of a given year the majority were consequently made two or three years before the end of that year. At the end of 1919 these conditions were entirely reversed. Of the 11,009 joint collective agreements in force at the end of that year, 9,271, or 84.2 per cent, were either concluded during 1919 or explicitly renewed. But even among the remaining agreements reported as still in force from preceding years there was hardly one which had not been amended in its wage regulations during 1919.

⁴ Soziale Praxis und Archiv für Volkswohlfahrt. Vol. 30, No. 34. Berlin, Aug. 24, 1921.

Regulation of Working Conditions.

Hours of labor.—The weekly hours of labor were regulated by 6,615 joint collective agreements covering 183,314 establishments and 3,607,926 workers, i. e., by 70.9 per cent of all joint collective agreements that came into force in 1919 and covered 74.7 per cent of all establishments and 63.4 per cent of all workers. The remaining joint collective agreements either did not regulate the hours of labor at all—it must be taken for granted that in establishments covered by these agreements the legal 8-hour day was observed—or contained only regulations of the daily hours of labor. In the latter case they generally provided for a shortening of the hours of labor on certain week days, especially on Saturday afternoon. Some agreements regulated the daily hours of labor differently for the summer and winter months.

In 244 joint collective agreements for agricultural workers the hours to be worked during one year are fixed. Their total number varies between 2,400 and 3,100 and they are distributed among the individual months in accordance with the provisional rural workers'

act of January 24, 1919.

Of the 6,615 joint collective agreements regulating the weekly hours of labor, 5,379 (81.3 per cent), covering 134,390 establishments (73.3 per cent) and 2,241,599 workers (62.1 per cent), provided a 48-hour week; 1,072 agreements (16.2 per cent), covering 44,737 establishments (24.4 per cent) and 1,326,571 workers (36.8 per cent), provided working hours below 48 hours per week. Agreements concluded for the textile industry were especially well represented in this class. Of 329,492 workers in that industry working under collective agreements, 285,943 had a 45 to 46 hour week.

Only 164 agreements (2.5 per cent), covering 4,187 establishments (2.3 per cent) and 39,756 workers (1.1 per cent), stipulated weekly

hours of labor in excess of 48 hours.

Wages.—Up to 1919 the statistics of collective agreements in Germany showed in a table the provisions relating to wages. In 1919, however, wages were in a continuous state of flux. Agreements had hardly been reported to the National Employment Office, when they were amended through the granting of higher wage rates or bonuses which frequently had retroactive force. It was therefore impossible to compile reliable statistics on wage rates. The statistics for 1919 contain only data as to the form of wages provided in collective

agreements.

Of the 11,009 joint collective agreements in force at the end of 1919, 10,395 (94.4 per cent) contain such provisions. Time rates exclusively are provided in 6,446 agreements (62 per cent) covering 141,079 establishments and 1,299,588 workers (22.9 per cent), while piece rates exclusively are provided in 150 agreements (1.4 per cent), covering 2,665 establishments and 29,852 workers (0.5 per cent). Both forms of wages are provided in the remaining 3,799 agreements (36.5 per cent), covering 119,138 establishments and 4,346,093 workers (76.6 per cent). Minimum earnings were guaranteed to pieceworkers in 1,867 agreements (47.3 per cent of all agreements providing piece rates), covering 61,089 establishments and 2,498,747 workers. In 1914 the corresponding percentage of agreements was 31.1 and

that of workers covered 25.8. Progress has, therefore, been made in

the guaranteeing of minimum earnings to pieceworkers.

Termination of the labor contract.—A clause fixing a term of notice for the termination of the labor contract between the employer and the individual worker is contained in 2,680 joint collective agreements (24.3 per cent), covering 101,711 establishments and 929,278 workers (15.5 per cent). In 2,067 agreements (18.8 per cent), covering 57,721 establishments and 559,363 workers (9.3 per cent), it is explicitly stipulated that the individual labor contract may be terminated without the giving of notice.

Conciliation and arbitration.—Conciliation and arbitration boards for the settlement of labor disputes were provided in 7,150 agreements (64.9 per cent), covering 224,612 establishments (82.5 per cent) and 4,800,295 workers (80.2 per cent). In 1914 the corresponding percentages were 56, 85.3, and 84.

Employment offices.—Use of a specified employment office is prescribed in 1,508 agreements (13.7 per cent), covering 89,308 establishments (32.9 per cent) and 1,974,379 workers (33 per cent). Of these agreements 38.1 per cent prescribe the use of an equipartisan employment office, 35.6 per cent that of a municipal employment office, and 24 per cent that of a trade-union employment office. The number of agreements prescribing the use of a guild employment office or of an employment office maintained by employers has become negligible.

Agreements Declared Generally Binding.

T THE end of 1919 a total of 638 collective agreements had been declared generally binding by the National Ministry of Labor. Of these, 22 were national, 375 district, and 241 were local agreements. At the end of 1920 the number of collective agreements declared generally binding had increased to 1,464, of which 61 were national agreements, 990 district agreements, and 413 local agreements. A large number of the collective agreements declared generally binding (333 in 1919 and 586 in 1920) were concluded by federations of salaried employees.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT.

President's Conference on Unemployment, Washington, D. C.

THE President's Conference on Unemployment, which held its first session on the morning of September 26, 1921, in Washington, D. C., was called-

(1) To inquire into the volume and distribution of unemployment, (2) To advise upon emergency measures that can properly be

taken by employers, local authorities, and civic bodies,

(3) To consider such measures as would tend to give impulse to the recovery of business and commerce to normal.1

Membership of the Conference.

IN the make-up of the conference it was the desire of the President "to secure geographic representation and at the same time have regard to the different elements of the community who are interested and can be helpful in the problem, without any attempt at proportional numbers or particular groups." A larger representation was accorded those experienced in industries having the greatest amount of unemployment than to trades where the unemployment problem is less difficult. There were 98 members of the conference in addition to the Secretary of Labor and the Secretary of Commerce who was appointed chairman by the President. Prominent employers, men and women labor leaders, and industrial and economic experts were included among the conferees, some of whom were invited in advance to serve on an economic advisory committee.

The President's Address.

THE opening address was made by President Harding, who said in part:

The industrial depression which we are feeling is a war inheritance throughout the world. it was inevitable that we should experience the fever's aftermath.

there is excessive unemployment to-day and we are concerned not alone about its diminution, but we are frankly anxious under the involved conditions, lest it grow worse, with hardships of the winter season soon to be met.

* * * the problem of unemployment is the most difficult with which we are

But there are no problems affecting our national life and the welfare of the American people which we can not and will not solve. If we fail to-day, we will try again

to-morrow.

It is fair to say that you are not asked to solve the long controverted problems of our social system. We have builded the America of to-day on the fundamentals of economic, industrial, and political life which made us what we are, and the temple requires no remaking now. We are incontestably sound. We are constitutionally We are merely depressed after the fever, and we want to know the way to

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¹ Department of Commerce press release, Sept. 20, 1921.

speediest and dependable convalescence. When we know the way everybody in America, capital and labor, employer and employee, captains of industry and the privates in the trenches, will go over the top in the advance drive of peace.

I would have little enthusiasm for any proposed relief which seeks either palliation or tonic from the Public Treasury. The excess of stimulation from that source is to

be reckoned a cause of trouble rather than a source of cure.

* * * there ought to be work for everybody in the United States who chooses to work, and our condition at home and our place in the world depends on everybody going to work and pursuing it with that patriotism and devotion which makes for a fortunate and happy people.

Speech of the Secretary of Commerce.

AFTER the address of the President the Secretary of Commerce spoke, declaring that "there can be no question that we are on the upgrade, but economic progress can not under any expectation come with sufficient rapidity to prevent much unemployment over the forthcoming winter. * * * There is no economic failure so terrible in its import as that of a country possessing a surplus of every necessity of life in which numbers, willing and anxious to work, are deprived of these necessities. It simply can not be if our moral and economic system is to survive." Mr. Hoover stated that it was the duty of the conference to find a definite and organized remedy for the unemployment emergency and expressed the hope that the conference might outline plans which in the long run would tend to mitigate the recurrence of such an emergency. In his opinion the matters for the consideration of the conference were, for the most part, not to be remedied by legislation, it being contrary to the spirit of American institutions to solve every difficulty by demands on the public treasury. He decried the giving of direct Government doles to individuals as "the most vicious" solution of the unemployment problem. He voiced the administration's hope that the situation could in a large degree be successfully met "through the mobilization of the fine cooperative action of our manufacturers and employers, of our public bodies and local authorities."

Organization.

ON THE first day of the conference an organization or steering committee was designated with Mr. Henry M. Robinson as chairman. Committees were created to deal with the following subjects:

Unemployment Statistics.

Chairman, Henry M. Robinson, member Second Industrial Conference; chairman Bituminous Coal Commission, 1920; president Los Angeles Trust Co., Los Angeles.

Employment Agencies and Registration.

Chairman, Julius H. Barnes, president U. S. Food Administration Grain Corporation, 1917 to 1919; U. S. Wheat Director; chairman Institute for Public Services, New York, N. Y.

Transportation.

Chairman, Edgar E. Clark, ex-president Order of Railway Conductors, member Anthracite Strike Commission, 1902; formerly chairman Interstate Commerce Commission, Washington, D. C.

Public Works.

Chairman, Mayor Andrew J. Peters, former Member of Congress; former Assistant Secretary of the Treasury; Mayor of Boston since 1918.

Civic Emergency Measures.1

Chairman, Col. Arthur Woods, former police commissioner of New York; assistant to the Secretary of War in Charge of Reestablishment of Service Men in Civil Life, 1919, New York City.

Construction.

Chairman, Gen. R. C. Marshall, jr., formerly chief of the construction division of the Army; general manager, Society of the General Contractors of America, Washington, D. C.

Manufacturers.

Chairman, W. H. Stackhouse, president National Implement and Vehicle Association, Springfield, Ohio.²

Chairman, Thomas V. O'Connor, ex-president Longshoremen's Union; member

U. S. Shipping Board, Washington, D. C.

Public Hearings

Chairman, Samuel McCune Lindsay, professor of Social Legislation, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.

The general conference took a recess on September 26 with the intention of reconvening on October 5. Meanwhile the various committees went to work to formulate their plans for submission at the next general session.

Public Hearings.

URING the recess of the general conference public hearings were held on September 27 before the committee on statistics of unemployment and on September 28 and 29 before the committee on employment agencies and registration and the committee on emergency State and municipal measures and public works. Representatives of various interests were given opportunity to express their views.

Program of Emergency Measures.

IN SEPTEMBER 30, five days ahead of the date which had been set for the reconvening of the general conference, that body met and formally adopted the following emergency program:3

1. The conference finds that there are, variously estimated, from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $5\frac{1}{2}$ millions unemployed, and there is a much greater number dependent upon them. There has been an improvement, but pending general trade revival this crisis in unemployment can not be met without definite and positive organization of the country

2. The problem of meeting the emergency of unemployment is primarily a community problem. The responsibility for leadership is with the mayor of each city and

should be immediately assumed by him.

3. The basis of organization should be an emergency committee representing the various elements in the community. This committee should develop and carry through a community plan for meeting the emergency, using existing agencies and local groups as far as practicable. One immediate step should be to coordinate and establish efficient public employment agencies and to register all those desiring work. It should coordinate the work of the various charitable institutions. Registration for relief should be entirely separate from that for employment.
4. The personnel of the employment agencies should be selected with consideration

to fitness only and should be directed to find the right job for the right man and should actively canvass and organize the community for opportunities for employment. The registry for employment should be surrounded with safeguards and should give priority in employment to residents. Employers should give preference to the emergency em-

ployment agencies.

5. The emergency committee should regularly publish the numbers dependent upon it for employment and relief that the community may be apprised of its responsibility. Begging and uncoordinated solicitation of funds should be prevented.

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 $^{^1}$ This committee was not organized on the first day of the Conference. 2 Mr. Stackhouse was succeeded by Mr. James A. Campbell, president of the Youngstown Sheet & Tube Co. 3 Commerce Reports, Oct. 24, 1921. U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Washington,

6. Private houses, hotels, offices, etc., can contribute to the situation by making repairs, cleaning, and alterations during the winter instead of waiting until spring,

when employment will be more plentiful.

7. Public construction is better than relief. The municipalities should expand their school, street and sewage, repair work, and public building to the fullest possible volume compatible with the existing circumstances. That existing circumstances are favorable is indicated by the fact that over \$700,000,000 of municipal bonds, the largest amount in history, have been sold in 1921. Of these, \$106,000,000 were sold by 333 municipalities in August. Municipalities should give short-time employment the same as other employers.

8. The governor should unite all State agencies for support of the mayors and, as the superior officer, should insist upon the responsibility of city officials; should do everything compatible with circumstances in expedition of construction of roads,

State buildings, etc.

9. The Federal authorities, including the Federal reserve banks, should expedite the construction of public buildings and public works covered by existing appropria-

10. A congressional appropriation for roads, together with State appropriations amounting to many tens of millions of dollars already made in expectation of and dependence on Federal aid, would make available a large amount of employment.

The conference under existing circumstances, notwithstanding various opinions as to the character of the legislation and the necessity for economy, recommends con-

gressional action at the present session in order that work may go forward.

11. The greatest field for immediate relief of unemployment is in the construction industry, which has been artificially restricted during and since the war. We are short more than a million homes; all kinds of building and construction are far behind national necessity. The Senate Committee on Reconstruction and Production, in March of this year, estimated the total construction shortage in the country at between ten and twenty billion dollars. Considering all branches of the construction industry more than 2,000,000 people could be employed if construction were resumed. Undue cost and malignant combinations have made proper expansion impossible and contributed largely to this unemployment situation. In some places these matters have been cleaned up. In other places they have not and are an affront to public decency. In some places these things have not existed. In others costs have been adjusted. Some materials have been reduced in prices as much as can be expected. Where conditions have been righted, construction should proceed, but there is still a need of community action in the provision of capital on terms that will encourage home building. Where the costs are still above the other economic levels of the community there should be searching inquiry and action in the situation. We recommend that the governors summon representative committees, with the cooperation of the mayors or otherwise as they may determine, (a) to determine facts; (b) to organize community action in securing adjustments in cost, including removal of freight discriminations, and clean out campaigns against combinations, restrictions of effort, and unsound practices where they exist to the end that building may be fully resumed.

12. Manufacturers can contribute to relieve the present acute unemployment sit-

uation by-

(a) Part-time work, through reduced time or rotation of jobs.

(b) As far as possible, manufacturing for stock.
(c) Taking advantage of the present opportunity to do as much plant construction, repairs, and cleaning up as is possible, with the consequent transfer of many employees to other than their regular work.

(d) Reduction of the number of hours of labor per day.
(e) The reduction of the work week to a lower number of days during the present period of industrial depression.

(f) That employees and employers cooperate in putting these recommendations

into effect. A large number of employers have already, in whole or in part, inaugurated the recommendation herein set forth, and for this they are to be commended, and it is earnestly urged upon those employers who have not done so to put them into use. wherever practicable, at the earliest possible opportunity

(g) Specific methods for solution of our economic problems will be effective only in so far as they are applied in a spirit of patriotic patience on the part of all our people.

During the period of drastic economic readjustment, through which we are now passing, the continued efforts of anyone to profit beyond the requirements of safe business practice or economic consistency should be condemned. One of the important obstacles to a resumption of normal business activity will be removed as prices reach replacement values in terms of efficient producing and distributing cost plus reasonable profit.

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We, therefore, strongly urge all manufacturers and wholesalers who may not yet have adopted this policy to do so, but it is essential to the success of these measures when put into effect that retail prices shall promptly and fairly reflect the price adjustment of the producer, manufacturer, and the wholesaler.

When these principles have been recognized and the recommendations complied with, we are confident that the public will increase its purchases, thereby increasing the operations of the mills, factories and transportation companies, and consequently

reducing the number of unemployed.

Activities During Second Recess.

AFTER adopting the emergency program the general conference took a recess, to reconvene October 11 for the consideration of the recommendations of the committees for permanent measures dealing with unemployment. During this recess President Harding issued an official appeal calling on the governors and mayors of the Nation to carry out the program recommended by the conference. He closed his appeal with the following statement:

In order that there may be unity of action by all the forces which may be brought to bear, whether governmental or private, the unemployment conference is establishing an agency in Washington through which appropriate coordination can be promoted, and through which reports on progress and suggestions may be given general circulation and cooperation. I trust this agency will be supported in this

The centralizing agency to coordinate and energize National, State, and municipal agencies was put in charge of Col. Arthur Woods, under the general direction of the unemployment conference.

Before the reconvening of the general conference the mayors and emergency committees in over 30 cities had set actively to work along the lines of the recommendations of the conference for marshaling community effort, and about approximately 20 cities reported that organization for meeting the unemployment situation was under way.

Steps were taken in a number of cities toward the prompt advancement of public works and the definite forwarding of other

construction work.

The Chamber of Commerce of the United States and numerous regional and State associations promptly took up the problem of organizing, providing work for the unemployed, and aiding municipal

and State authorities.

During this recess also meetings were held by the President, the Secretary of Commerce and members of the conference with heads of the great national industries, including railways, coal and shipping. As a result of these discussions definite steps were taken in various practical directions to meet the unemployment situation.

Additional Committees.

HE following three additional committees were appointed at the reconvening of the conference:

Committee on Agriculture.

Chairman, Raymond A. Pearson, president Iowa State College, Ames, Iowa; former Assistant Secretary of Agriculture. Committee on Foreign Trade.

Chairman, Joseph H. Defrees, president Chamber of Commerce of United States, Washington, D. C. Committee on Publications

Chairman, Mary Van Kleeck, director of industrial studies, Russell Sage Foundation. [1074]

General Recommendations for Measures for Permanent Recovery of Employment.

N OCTOBER 11 the conference declared that—4

Recovery of our industry and employment must necessarily be a process of gradual healing of the great economic wounds of the World War. This healing is making

distinct progress.

Without attempting the impossible task of assessing the relative weight of different forces, the conference presents the following summary of the more important matters that require constructive and immediate settlement if recovery in business and permanent employment are to be more expeditiously accomplished:

1. Readjustment of railway rates to a fairer basis of the relative value of commodi-

ties, with special consideration of the rates upon primary commodities, at the same time safeguarding the financial stability of the railways

2. Speedy completion of the tax bill with its contemplated reduction of taxes, in order that business now held back pending definite determination may proceed.

3. Definite settlement of tariff legislation in order that business may determine its

future conduct and policies.

4. Settlement of the financial relationships between the Government and the railways, having in mind the immediate necessity for increased maintenance and betterments, making effective increased railway employment and stimulation of general employment, in order that the railways may be prepared for enlarged business as it comes.

5. Limitation of world armament and consequent increase of tranquillity and further decrease of the tax burden not only of the United States but of other countries.

6. Steps looking to the minimizing of fluctuations in exchange, because recovery from the great slump in exports (due to the economic situation in Europe) can not make substantial progress so long as extravagant daily fluctuations continue in foreign exchange, for no merchant can determine the delivery cost of any international

Definite programs of action that will lead to elimination of waste and more regular employment in seasonal and intermittent industries, notably in the coal industry, in order that the drain upon capital may be lessened and the annual income of workers

may be increased.

8. In all the different industries and occupations the rapidity of recovery will depend greatly upon the speed of proportionate adjustment of the inequalities in deflation.

Appended to the above recommendations of the conference is a table compiled from different sources, which shows the percentage of present price levels above the price levels of the same commodities and services of the prewar period. From these statistics the conference finds that-

Agriculture has reached an unduly low plane, while transportation, coal, and some branches of the construction industries are of the highest. entire disproportion between the price of the primary commodities and the ultimate retail price. These disproportionate increases in the progressive stages of distribution are due to increased costs of transportation, enlarged profits, interest, taxes, labor, and other charges.

If the buying power of the different elements of the community is to be restored. then these levels must reach nearer a relative plane. For example, the farmer can not resume his full consuming power and thus give increased employment to the other industries until either his prices increase or until more of the other products and services come into fair balance with his commodities, and therefore the reach of his

income.

Recommendations in re Agriculture.

HE conference adopted the following recommendations with reference to agriculture:4

All prices and all wages should be so adjusted that a normal reasonable ratio will be established between the incomes of farmers, laborers, manufacturers, and the merchants, in order that the purchasing power of the farmer may be restored, thus

⁴ Commerce Reports, Oct. 24, 1921. U. S. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Washington,

hastening the resumption of normal trade, manufacturing, and the employment of

2. Railroad freight rates of commodities transported to and from the farm must be

substantially reduced without delay.

3. The prices of materials, farm implements, and supplies must be adjusted to the price level of farm products. Manufacturers and dealers must realize that farmers can not, at present price levels, resume normal buying and thereby restore normal employment.

4. The aggregate of charges between the farmer and the food consumer are excessive, and ways should be found to reduce them. In August, 1921, the index of producers' price on beef cattle—as compared with the year 1913—was 91, while the index of wages in meat-packing plants was 186; of freight rates on dressed meat, 214;

and the index of retail meat prices varied from 112 to 161.

5. Better credit facilities must be provided for agriculture which will furnish funds for production and orderly marketing for long periods, suited to the requirements of the industry, at reasonable rates of interest and without opportunity for the unscrupulous to charge unreasonable commissions, premiums, or brokers' charges. A recent nation-wide referendum showed tens of thousands of farmers have been paying 6 to 10 per cent interest plus 2 to 10 per cent brokerage on borrowed money.

6. Exports of agricultural products should be stimulated with the aid of our mer-

chant marine, foreign credits, and by such other proper means and encouragements

as will aid foreign commerce.

7. Any tariff legislation which may be enacted should develop and maintain a just economic balance between agriculture and other industries and treat fairly both

producers and consumers.

8. History is repeating itself. Previous wars have been followed by periods of depression, which have in turn been followed by prosperity. Prosperity has come with the revival of agriculture, which has provided an expanding domestic market for manufactured products, thus restoring industrial activity with the employment of all classes of labor. This course of events is inevitable. We can only hasten or retard its progress.

The production of our farms supplemented by raw materials from the mines can provide the subsistence which will enable all industry to prosper. The adjustment will be hastened by the honest cooperation of all intelligent and thoughtful people. One of the chief factors will be the renewal and promotion of habits of industry and

thrift, by citizens and by the Government.

The chief of all factors to hasten readjustment will be an earnest purpose throughout the whole Nation to take only what is fair and to assist others to win what they are justly entitled to have.

Resolution in re U. S. Employment Service.

HE following resolution offered by the committee on employment agencies in re the United States Employment Service was adopted by the conference on October 12:

The committee on employment agencies and registration is strongly of the opinion that the work of the Unemployment Conference can and should be greatly aided in its work by the United States Employment Service. It finds, however, that the Employment Service is crippled by lack of funds. It therefore urges that Congress be asked to appropriate \$400,000 to enable the United States Employment Service to operate in the interstate field by-

(1) Cooperation with the emergency employment agencies erected by the State's

municipalities.

(2) Informing States in which there is scarcity of labor of the situation in States where there is surplus of labor of the kinds desired.

(3) Securing and compiling information on employment opportunities throughout the country.

Report on Unemployment and Business Cycles.

The conference, in a recommendation on the need of exhaustive investigation of periodic business depressions, stated that-

If all branches of our public works and the construction work of our public utilities the railways, the telephones, etc.—could systematically put aside financial reserves to be provided in times of prosperity for the deliberate purpose of improvement and expansion in times of depression, we would not only decrease the depth of depressions but we would at the same time diminish the height of booms. We would in fact abolish acute unemployment and wasteful extravagance. For a rough calculation indicates that if we maintained a reserve of but 10 per cent of our average annual construction for this purpose, we could almost iron out the fluctuations in employment.

It was declared by the conference that the action of the States of Pennsylvania and California in providing for the control of public work in order to preserve an even level of business and employment "is one of the most interesting and important economic experiments in the country."

Further on in the report the conference made the following state-

ment:

* * * it is fundamental that an accurate statistical service be organized for determining the volume of production of stocks and consumption of commodities, and the volume of construction in progress through the Nation, and an accurate return of the actual and not theoretical unemployment. These services are now partially carried on in the different Government departments.

Such statistical service would in itself contribute to minimizing the peaks and valleys in the economic curve. * * * As a first step in such a program, statistical services adequate to this purpose should be immediately authorized and carried out

by the Federal Government.

Committee Reports.

A SUMMARIZATION of the detailed reports of the various committees is beyond the scope of this article. Some of these committees were not unanimous in their recommendations, and their divergent conclusions are well worth comparative study.

Of special interest to labor is the adopted report of the committee on unemployment statistics, which recommends that the following

be put into immediate effect:

1. That the present practice of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of collecting from manufacturing concerns as of the fifteenth of each month data concerning the number of employees on pay rolls and the amount of their earnings and of publishing monthly indices of the changes therein be extended to cover transportation, trade, mining and quarrying.

quarrying.

2. That in getting the data concerning the state of employment in mining and quarrying the Bureau of Labor Statistics collaborate with the United States Geological

Survey

3. That in getting data concerning the state of employment in railroad transportation, the Bureau of Labor Statistics collaborate with the Interstate Commerce Com-

mission.

4. That where competent, reliable, State bureaus of labor statistics exist or become established, like the Massachusetts and New York bureaus, the Bureau of Labor Statistics collect through such bureaus within such States instead of collecting directly from the establishments.

Adjournment.

THE conference having authorized the Secretary of Commerce to appoint a committee to continue its work, adjourned October 13, subject to the call of the chairman.

Members of Standing Committee.

ON October 17 the following persons were appointed members of the standing committee: Mayor Andrew J. Peters and William M. Butler, Boston; Mortimer Fleishhacker, San Francisco; C. H. Markham, Chicago; E. M. Poston, Columbus, Ohio; Julius H. Barnes, Ida M. Tarbell, Mary Van Kleeck, Clarence Mott Woolley, and Col. Arthur Woods, New York; Ernest T. Trigg, Philadelphia; Edgar E. Clark, Joseph H. Defrees, and Matthew Woll, Washington, D. C. The Secretary of Commerce will act as the chairman of this committee.

Employment in Selected Industries in September, 1921.

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

industries and in bituminous coal mining.

Comparing the figures of September, 1921, with those of identical establishments for September, 1920, it appears that there were increases in the number of persons employed in 8 industries, and decreases in the number of persons employed in 6 industries. The most important increase, 59.2 per cent, appears in the woolen industry, while an increase of 18.4 per cent is shown for boots and shoes, and one of 13.9 per cent for cotton finishing. Decreases of 42 per cent, 35 per cent, and 31.6 per cent appear in iron and steel, car building and repairing, and paper making, respectively.

When compared with September, 1920, the amount of the pay rolls in September, 1921, show increases in 4 industries and decreases in 10 industries. Woolen shows an increase of 41.8 per cent and men's ready-made clothing an increase of 20.9 per cent. The greatest decrease reported is 71.1 per cent in the iron and steel industry. Car building and repairing shows a decrease of 46.4 per cent, and

paper making a decrease of 46.2 per cent.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN SEPTEMBER 1920 AND 1921.

	Estab-	Estab-	Num	ber on pa	y roll.	Amou	int of pay ro	11.
Industry.	lish- ments report- ing for Sep- tember, both years.	Period of pay roll.	Sep- tember, 1920.	Sep- tember, 1921.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	September,	September, 1921.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
Iron and steel. 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. Faper making. Cigar manufacturing. Coal mining (bituminous).	106 54 64 60 17 65 52 45 48 36 81 56 55 101	month. week. month. week. month. week. do. do. do. weeks. week. do. do. do. do. do. do. do. d	141,518	106, 690 98, 445 48, 868 62, 530 13, 336 30, 029 51, 459 16, 368 34, 069 13, 287 63, 324 22, 867 16, 987 23, 671	$\begin{array}{c} -42.0 \\ -30.4 \\ -35.0 \\ +4.1 \\ +13.9 \\ +2.0 \\ +59.2 \\ +4.0 \\ +7.7 \\ -10.3 \\ +18.4 \\ -31.6 \\ +3.8 \\ -11.8 \end{array}$	\$14,288,398 4,778,078 5,336,288 1,339,497 287,161 548,881 815,462 709,637 890,254 374,181 1,274,834 1,000,554 346,078 2,194,730	\$4, 131, 241 3, 084, 932 2, 858, 063 1, 063, 013 292, 693 493, 875 1, 155, 993 680, 579 1, 076, 556 297, 400 1, 448, 067 538, 679 322, 713 1, 492, 462	-71. -35. -46. -21. +1. -10. +41. -4. +20. -20. +13. -46. -32.

Comparative data for September, 1921, and August, 1921, appear in the following table. The figures show that in 11 industries there were increases in the number of persons on the pay roll in September

as compared with August, and in 3 there were decreases. The largest increases are 4.8 per cent in hosiery and underwear and in cigar manufacturing, and 4 per cent in car building and repairing. Men's ready-made clothing shows a decrease of 0.9 per cent, automobiles a decrease of 0.7 per cent, and boots and shoes a decrease of 0.3 per cent.

When comparing September, 1921, with August, 1921, 6 industries show an increase in the amount of money paid to employees and 8 show a decrease. The greatest increase, 6.3 per cent, appears in hosiery and underwear. Percentage increases of 4.8, 4.1, and 3.3, are reported for cotton finishing, cigar manufacturing, and cotton manufacturing, respectively. A decrease of 5.8 per cent is shown for men's ready-made clothing, and one of 5.4 per cent for iron and steel.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN AUGUST AND SEPTEMBER, 1921.

	Estab-	Number on pay roll.			Amou	ant of pay rol	1.	
Industry.	lish- ments report- ing for August and Sep- tember.	Period of pay roll.	August, 1921.	Sep- tember, 1921.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	August, 1921.	September, 1921.	Per cent of in crease (+) or decrease (-).
Iron and steel. 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).	106 53 65 59 17 63 52 45 49 35 83 56 57	month. i week. month. week. do. do. do. do. do. do. do. d	103, 688 98, 050 47, 140 59, 553 12, 909 28, 557 50, 533 16, 329 34, 386 13, 054 64, 369 20, 251 16, 631 22, 402	106, 180 97, 409 49, 018 60, 602 13, 336 29, 931 51, 459 16, 368 34, 074 13, 095 64, 161 20, 665 17, 425 23, 134	+2.4 7 +4.8 +3.3 +4.8 +1.8 +.2 9 +.3 3 +2.0 +4.8 +3.3	\$4, 353, 663 3, 214, 712 2, 871, 704 995, 237 279, 282 461, 644 1, 132, 871 715, 739 1, 142, 798 300, 507 1, 495, 561 500, 448 317, 674	\$4, 118, 141 3, 056, 489 2, 866, 990 1, 027, 998 292, 693 490, 784 1, 155, 993 680, 579 1, 076, 735 294, 609 1, 464, 937 489, 193 30, 825 1, 463, 041	-5. -4. +3. +4. +2. -5. -2. -2. -4. +2.

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 81,768 employees as actually working on the last full day of the pay-roll period in September, 1921, as against 147,387 for the reported pay-roll period in September, 1920, a decrease of 44.5 per cent. Figures given by 85 establishments in the iron and steel industry show that 80,824 employees were actually working on the last full day of the pay period reported for September, 1921, as against 77,003 for the same period in August, 1921, an increase of 5 per cent.

Changes in Wage Rates and Per Capita Earnings.

DURING the period August 15 to September 15, there were wage changes made by some of the establishments in 12 of the 14 industries.

Iron and steel.—One establishment in the iron and steel industry made a wage rate reduction of 40 per cent to 61 per cent of the

employees, and one of 16 per cent to 39 per cent of the employees. The entire force of another establishment was reduced 31 per cent in wages. Decreases ranging from 27 to 32 per cent were reported by one mill, affecting all men. One-third of the force in one concern had a wage reduction of 22½ per cent. A decrease of 20 per cent was reported by four plants, affecting all the men in the first two plants, 50 per cent of the men in the third plant, and 10 per cent of the men in the fourth plant. Seven mills reported a decrease in wage rates of 19 per cent, which affected all employees. Sixty-five per cent of the men in one establishment were reduced approximately 19 per cent in wages. In another establishment, 87 per cent of the employees were cut 19 per cent in wages, while 13 per cent of the men were cut 15 per cent. Two concerns had wage rate reductions ranging from 8 to 19 per cent, which affected the entire force in the first concern, and 90 per cent of the force in the second concern. All employees in one establishment were reduced in wages; the salaried men being cut 10 per cent, shop and mill workers 18 per cent, and machine shop operators 163 per cent. Four establishments report a wage decrease of approximately 18 per cent, which affected all employees in three establishments and 50 per cent of the employees in the fourth establishment. One plant reported a decrease of 17 per cent in wages to approximately 95 per cent of the men, while 2 other plants reduced the wages of all men 16 per cent. Three mills reported a wage reduction of 15 per cent, affecting about 62 per cent of the force in the first mill, 50 per cent of the force in the second mill; but the percentage affected in the third mill was not stated. In one establishment the tonnage men were cut 15 per cent in wages while the remainder of the force were reduced 10 per cent in wages. A decrease of 14 per cent was reported by one firm, affecting 91 per cent of the force. Four establishments reduced all employees 14 per cent in wages. A 10 per cent decrease, affecting practically all the men was reported by 3 plants. Another plant reduced the wages of the entire force 5 per cent. Many mills in the iron and steel industry are temporarily idle, and on account of irregular operation, the per capita earnings decreased 7.6 per cent from August to September.

Automobiles.—A decrease of 10 per cent was reported by 6 establishments affecting all of the men in 1 establishment, 75 per cent in the second, 60 per cent in the third, 50 per cent in the fourth and fifth, and 10 per cent in the sixth. In one shop, decreases ranging from 8 to 10 per cent were made to 75 per cent of the force. Forty per cent of the employees in one concern received a decrease of 8 per cent. The wages of 47 per cent of the force of one plant were reduced 8 per cent. In one plant, the shop force was reduced 8 cents per hour and the office force 5 per cent. When comparing the per capita earnings for September with those for August a decrease of 4.3 per

cent is noted.

Car building and repairing.—Three establishments reported a 15 per cent wage decrease, affecting 75 per cent of the men. A decrease of 13 per cent to 3 per cent of the employees was reported by one shop. A reduction of 9 per cent in wages was made to 3 per cent of the force in another shop. Throughout this industry there was a general decrease in the number of hours worked. The per capita earnings for September are 4 per cent less than those for August.

Cotton manufacturing.—In one establishment a 10 per cent decrease in wage rates was made to 95 per cent of the force. Establishments in this industry report a slight increase in volume of employment due to resuming full time operations. When comparing the per capita earnings for August and September, an increase of 1.5 per cent is shown.

Cotton finishing.—No wage-rate changes were reported in this industry during the pay period from August 15 to September 15, but the

per capita earnings show an increase of 1.5 per cent.

Hosiery and underwear.—All employees in one concern were granted an increase of 15 per cent. A decrease of 15 per cent to 40 per cent of the men was reported by one establishment. A wage-rate reduction of 8\(^3\) per cent was made by one mill affecting 3\(^1\) per cent of the force. In one plant an average monthly bonus of 8 per cent, which had been given to 95 per cent of the force, was discontinued. The per capita earnings for September are 1.4 per cent higher than those for August.

Woolen.—The figures for September show little change from those for August. The per capita earnings are 0.2 per cent greater in Sep-

tember than in August.

Silk.—A wage-rate decrease of 10 per cent, affecting 50 per cent of the employees, was made by one mill. Less time was worked throughout the industry as trade was slack during this period. When comparing the per capita earnings for August and September a decrease of 5.1 per cent appears.

Men's ready-made clothing.—One factory reported a decrease of 15 per cent in wages but did not state the number of employees affected. A decrease of 4.9 per cent in per capita earnings is shown when com-

paring the pay rolls for August with those for September.

Leather.—All employees in one plant were granted an increase of 12½ per cent. The day workers in one firm were reduced 12½ per cent in wages while the pieceworkers had decreases ranging from 20 to 30 per cent. The entire force of another tannery had a wage reduction of 10 per cent. The per capita earnings for September when compared with those for August show a decrease of 2.3 per cent.

Boots and shoes.—One factory granted an increase of 11² per cent to 57 per cent of the employees. Due to lack of orders, a slight decrease is reported for employment conditions in this industry. The per capita earnings are 1.7 per cent less for September than for

August.

Paper.—The entire force of one plant had wage-rate reductions of 20 per cent. Decreases ranging from 10 to 25 per cent were made to the shop employees, or 81 per cent of the entire force, in one mill. A decrease of approximately 16 per cent, affecting 97 per cent of the entire force, was reported by one concern. In three mills a decrease of 10 per cent was reported, affecting all employees in two mills and 96 per cent of the employees in the third mill. Part-time employment was reported for this industry and the per capita earnings show a decrease of 4.2 per cent.

Cigars.—Sixty-five per cent of the employees in one concern had a wage-rate decrease of 4 per cent. When comparing per capita earnings for September with those for August a decrease of 0.6 per cent is

shown.

Bituminous coal.—In two mines all employees received respective wage-rate decreases of 20 per cent and 10 per cent. A decrease of 0.7 per cent is reported for per capita earnings when August and September figures are compared.

Employment in New York State Factories in September, 1921.

York State that has been reported since the close of 1919 occurred from August to September, according to the monthly statement issued by the State Department of Labor. Notwithstanding the fact that substantial reductions in employment were still reported by a number of factories, the total number of factory workers employed in September was approximately 3½ per cent greater than the number employed in August, as shown by the results of the tabulation of 1,550 reports from representative manufacturers. The present tendencies are in marked contrast with those of a year ago, when manufacturing activity not only failed to show the usual fall revival, but declined steadily.

All of the chief industry groups, with the exception of the chemicals, oils, and paints group, and the paper industry, reported increases in employment for the month of September. The decreases in these two groups were not large enough, however, to counteract the increases reported in the other chief industry groups. Increased demand, due partly to seasonal demand and partly to improved business conditions, caused the employment of more workers in a number of industries. In other industries more workers were employed because of the reopening of factories after the annual shutdowns for vacations, repairs, and inventories. Continued depression was the chief factor in the decrease in employment reported by some

factories.

Every branch of the clothing, millinery, and laundering group showed a greater number of employees in September than in August. This was due, partly to a seasonal demand and partly to the reopening of some factories which had been shut down on account of dull business. Greater activity in the waist and dress factories and corset and underwear factories caused the increase in employment in the women's clothing and women's underwear and furnishings industries. Employment in the men's clothing industry showed the least change from August.

Seasonal activity and improved business caused a general increase in employment in the textile industries from August to September. In the wool manufactures industries more employees were reported in carpet and rug factories, in felt mills, and in a few worsted mills. The greatest increase in the textile group, due to the reopening of several large mills, appeared in the cotton and woolen knit goods industry.

In September, for the first time since June, 1920, the metal products industries as a whole showed an increase in employment over the preceding month. Improved demand was responsible for the greater employment in the gold and silver, brass, copper and alumi-

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num, pig iron, and rolling mill products, firearms, tools and cutlery, heating apparatus, automobile, and railway equipment industries. The sheet-metal work industry showed no change, while a small

reduction was reported in the structural iron industry.

The greater employment in the stone, clay, and glass products industries in September was due to the large increase in the cement and plaster industry. The increase was primarily the result of the reopening of several large cement plants. The decrease in employment in the miscellaneous stone products industry and the glass industry were caused by reductions in the working forces of several large plants in each industry. The brick, tile, and pottery industry showed a slight gain in the number of employees from August to September.

The wood manufactures industries also showed a gain for the group as a whole because of the greater activity in the piano industry. A decrease occurred in the sawmill and planing mill products industry, and the furniture and miscellaneous wood products industry.

tries showed very slight reductions.

The furs and fur goods industry showed a marked increase in activity from August to September in response to seasonal demands. The boot and shoe industry, and the leather industry, reported reductions in employment, although in both of these industries the decreases were not general, some factories showing increases.

The September gain in employment in the food products industries was not so large as that of August, and was again mostly seasonal. The outstanding increase—26 per cent—was in the candy industry, every factory reporting increased activity. The meatpacking industry showed a decrease in employment. The flour and other cereal products, canned goods, and tobacco industries reported substantial gains in September.

The small decrease which occurred in the chemicals, oils, and paints group of industries was caused by dull business in the manufacture of photographic supplies and of glue and fertilizers. The drug and chemicals, paints, dyes, and colors, and animal and min-

eral oil products industries all reported small increases.

Ninth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Public Employment Services.¹

THE International Association of Public Employment Services held its ninth annual meeting at Buffalo, September 7-9, 1921.

In response to the association's invitation to the British Ministry of Labor to be represented at the conference Mr. T. W. Phillips, C. B. E., principal assistant secretary to that ministry, who is in charge of the employment and insurance branch of the British Labor Department, attended the sessions. He was the chief speaker at the conference dinner on September 7. He gave an account of the development of the British employment exchange system and told of the extra burdens the exchanges carried both in the war and during

¹ Employment. Bulletin of the Employment Service of Canada, Department of Labor, Ottawa, Sept. 15, 1921, pp. 7-9.

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demobilization, and the part they take in the British unemployment insurance scheme. He also spoke of the various plans by which Great Britain was meeting the present unemployment situation, which include "the building of arterial roads, housing schemes and

working short time."

The next address was made by Mr. Tom Moore, president of the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada, who stated that the Canadian trade-union movement had for years been in favor of abolishing commercial employment agencies and of establishing a public employment service. As the Dominion now has such a service organized labor proposes to assist in making that agency "the best possible contribution to the public welfare."

At a round-table conference the British delegate was questioned on his Government's employment exchanges and unemployment insur-

ance system.

Delegates from both the United States and Canada read papers dealing with "employment service problems and procedure." Mr. T. A. Stevenson of the Department of Labor of Canada, formerly a member of the Department of Soldiers' Civil Reestablishment of Canada, set forth some of the difficulties in placing handicapped Canadian soldiers. A discussion by Hon. Lewis T. Bryant, commissioner of labor of New Jersey, followed this paper, in which he spoke of the important rehabilitation work being done in his State. "The challenge of the migratory worker" was the title of an address by Mr. E. W. Bradwin, inspector of branches for the Frontier College of Canada. Mr. J. H. McVety, British Columbia general superintendent of the Employment Service of Canada talked on the various phases of the problem of transportation in employment work. Capt. C. W. Meath, city superintendent of the Employment Service of Canada in Toronto, and Mr. Harry Dunderdale, superintendent of the Public Employment Office at Boston, were among the principal speakers dealing with employment office methods.

At the session on the prevention of unemployment, Prof. F. S. Deibler, of Northwestern University, spoke of the necessity for reliable information regarding the labor market and "emphasized the essential points to be observed in the collection and presentation of unemployment statistics." Mrs. Helen T. Woolley of Cincinnati, president of the National Vocational Guidance Association, "suggested some of the unrealized possibilities of vocational guidance" in the struggle

against unemployment.

In the judgment of Mr. Otto T. Mallery, chairman of the Pennsylvania Industrial Relations Commission, the careful planning ahead for public works to be executed in times of industrial depression holds the greatest hope for the reduction of unemployment and the revival of industry

The association adopted resolutions "supporting the principle of a national employment service and recommending the reservation of public work for periods of industrial depression in so far as prac-

ticable."

The chief officers for the coming year are:

President: Bryce M. Stewart, director, Employment Service of Canada, Ottawa, Canada.

First vice president: Harry Dunderdale, superintendent, Public Employment Office, Boston, Mass.

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Second vice president: J. M. Sullivan, field representative, U. S. Employment Serv-

Third vice president: Marion C. Findlay, Women's Clerical and Industrial Department, Toronto Employment Office, Employment Service of Canada.

Secretary-treasurer: R. A. Flinn, formerly superintendent, New York State Employment Office, New York City.

The next annual conference of the association will be held in Washington, D. C.

Number and Capacity of Idle Bituminous Coal Mines, August 20, 1921.

HE following statement showing the number and capacity of bituminous coal mines idle during the week ending August 20, 1921, and at specified preceding periods, is taken from Report No. 218 of the United States Geological Survey, September 17, 1921:

It is a familiar fact that from 50 to 60 per cent of the rated capacity of the country's soft-coal mines has been closed down during recent months on account of lack of demand. In the week ended August 20, for example, the average running time was only 42.8 per cent of full time. It has been clear that the average did not reflect the condition of every mine, for into it went many mines entirely idle as well as some which by reason of low costs or fortunate contracts were able to work full time.

Account of the 2,519 mine reports made to the Geological Survey for the week ended March 26, 1921, showed that 710 mines were idle the entire week. There are always a few mines closed through local strikes or mine disability, but in times of active demand the number entirely idle is small. A sample count in August, 1920, for instance, showed only 96 mines entirely idle, and the Mingo strike alone accounted for half of these. From the following table it will be seen that the number of mines closed down the entire week has steadily increased since last March. At that time it was 28 per cent of the total number reporting to the Geological Survey; at present it is around 36 per cent. This fact is the more remarkable because the trend of production during the same period has been upward rather than down. It indicates that as the depression is prolonged more and more mines are closed pending a revival of business.

NUMBER OF IDLE, FULL-TIME AND PART-TIME MINES REPORTING WEEKLY TO THE GEOLOGICAL SURVEY.

Week ended—	Closed entire week.	Working part time.	Working full time.	Total number reporting.
August 21, 1920	96	2, 407	837	22, 840
	710	1, 687	122	2, 519
	874	1, 633	171	2, 678
	970	1, 547	180	2, 693

¹ Includes only commercial operations of some size. ² See note (1) appended to succeeding table.

Comparisons such as these, however, based on the number of mines, ignore the fact that the smaller properties are the first to close. A more accurate indicator of the importance of the group of idle mines is given in the following table, which shows the per cent of full-time capacity represented by mines closed the entire week, by those working one day, two days, and so on, up to full time. The table shows that during the week in question 21 per cent of the capacity reporting was closed the entire week, as against 1.8 per cent in the corresponding period of 1920. In other words, slightly more than one-fifth of the capacity reporting to the Geological Survey produced no coal and therefore gave employment to practically no men during the week of August 20.

Of course a mine may be closed one week and operate the next, so that the proportion of the capacity closed down for two weeks without a break might be less than 21 per cent, and the proportion closed down a month without a break considerably less than 21 per cent. On the other hand the number of mines closed down during the week of August 20, which resumed production the following week, would be offset by others which had been working but which dropped into the class of those completely idle. Other recent weeks would therefore show about the same proproportion closed for an entire week.

It may be asked, how representative is the group of mines upon which the table is based? The tonnage included is 59 per cent of the total for the country. The operations are not wagon mines, but all commercial properties of some size. The average weekly capacity of the 970 mines closed down the entire week was 2,280. The average for the total reporting—2,697—was 3,890 tons, above the country average

for commercial mines.

From the way the figures are assembled it is clear that there is a tendency to omit the mines closed down. For those districts such as Central Pennsylvania and most of the Trans-Mississippi States, from which the Geological Survey collects reports direct from the operators without the assistance of a local association, there are doubtless many mines closed down concerning which the Survey receives no information. In other districts where the reports are assembled by secretaries of local associations, an effort has generally been made to report the mines not operating as well as those continuing to produce, but even so, there are naturally many smaller operations not connected with associations which can not be covered by the local secretary. From these facts it is obvious that were it possible to get complete reports the number and capacity of the group closed down the entire week would be proportionately greater—perhaps very much greater.

Because of the varying completeness of the reports from the several districts it is difficult to compare the idle capacity in one district with that in another. The reports by districts when analyzed in the same manner do demonstrate, however, that in any week almost every district will show a considerable number of mines producing no coal whatever, and that even in the most favored districts of West Virginia and Pennsylvania there are many idle mines. Only two fields in the Northern and Middle Appalachians reported less than 10 per cent of capacity closed down the entire week. One of these fields was Pocahontas, and from the other the reports received were

insufficient to be trustworthy on this point.

WORKING TIME AT BITUMINOUS COAL MINES DURING WEEK ENDED AUG. 20, 1921, COMPARED WITH CORRESPONDING WEEK IN 1920.

[Based on reports to the Geological Survey from operators producing about 59 per cent of the output, excluding coal coked at mine.]

Time group,	Number of mines.		Per cent of rated capacity.	
	1920	1921	1920	1921
Mines closed down entire week. Mines reporting production but working less than 8 hours. Mines working 8 and less than 16 hours. Mines working 16 and less than 24 hours. Mines working 24 and less than 32 hours. Mines working 32 and less than 40 hours. Mines working 40 and less than 40 hours. Mines working 40 and less than 48 hours. Mines working full time of 48 hours or more	2 96 67 261 500 590 513 476 337	970 69 280 407 327 263 201 180	2 1. 8 2. 9 8. 4 17. 6 23. 0 19. 5 16. 0 10. 8	21. 0 3. 2 12. 9 21. 0 16. 2 12. 2 7. 9 5. 6
Total, all mines	2,840	2,697	100, 0	100.0

¹ The week selected for analysis in 1920 (Aug. 16-21) corresponds to that for 1921. It so happened, however, that the week of Aug. 21, 1920, was marked by short-lived strikes in Indiana, and in two districts of Illinois. To avoid the abnormal condition indicated by these strikes, the figures for the week ended Aug. 14 were used for Indiana, and for the Belleville and Williamson County Districts of Illinois those for the week of Aug. 25 were used. As no reports were available from the Harlan District for the week of Aug. 21, those for Aug. 14 were used; and for the same reason the Utah reports for the week of Sept. 25 were employed. None of these substitutions affect the comparability of the data for 1920 and 1921.

² Of the group entirely idle in 1920, 43 mines representing 1 per cent of the capacity were accounted for by the long-drawn out strike in the Kenova-Thacker (Williamson) field.

Unemployment in the Metal-Mining Industry.

THE following statement of conditions in the metal-mining industry was made under date of October 13, 1921, by the committee of emergency measures in mining to the President's Conference on Unemployment. The committee suggests that the revival of the building industry would quickly lead to a marked decrease in unemployment in mines, and, in turn, create a demand for the things needed and desired by the employees in the mining industry.

Iron Ore.

The States of Minnesota, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Alabama furnish the great bulk of the iron ore used in the iron and steel industry of the country. The first three States can be considered as one district, as the conditions in them are affected in the matter of unemployment by much the same factors and the operations are largely the same in all these States.

The number of men employed in these three States is not far from 60 to 65 per cent of normal, the largest operations being conducted on a part-time basis, allowing the men employed to work a sufficient time to provide wages enough to secure for themselves and their families the necessities of life, and employment is given generally

only to married men or those with dependents.

The smaller mines are in most cases closed and the number of men employed in them is confined to the few necessary to keep them unwatered and in condition to resume operations without serious delay or loss which would result from neglect.

resume operations without serious delay or loss which would result from neglect. There has been a great deal of road building in these districts and considerable employment has been furnished in this work. The coming of winter will greatly aggravate the situation as iron mines are not likely to increase or resume operations after the season of navigation on the lakes.

It is the opinion of your committee that the operators and public authorities in these districts should be commended for what they have done in adopting these measures

to prevent actual distress among the employees and the employees' families.

Alabama.—According to the statistics furnished by the Bureau of Mines, about 4,500 miners and 2,000 furnace workers were idle in the Birmingham district in September, this number being nearly 75 per cent of the number normally employed. Additional forces have recently been employed, but to what extent the number of unemployed has been affected can not be determined by this committee.

We have not been able to learn what steps have been taken to adopt part-time work, or whether the workers have been able to find work on public improvements

or in lines other than mining.

Copper Mining-Milling and Smelting.

The principal districts in this branch of the industry are in Michigan, Montana,

Arizona, Utah, and New Mexico.

Michigan.—About 75 per cent of the normal production in this copper district has been cut off by the closing of mines in March and April of this year. Several of the producing mines are operating, employing about 30 per cent of the men normally at work in the district.

The mines at work are owned by companies not interested in the mines closed and the communities are separated so that part-time work has not been adopted, except in some of the larger mines that, being idle, have only pump men and repair men to put on that basis. The mines working are generally located at such a distance from the idle miners' homes that rotation in employment is not feasible.

About half of the men thrown out of work by the closing of the mines in the spring have found work on road building at fair wages, but this work will not continue after winter sets in. A considerable number of men have left the district to find work

elsewhere.

The operators have been diligent in trying to find public work for the unemployed forces and are responsible for the road building campaign during the summer.

Winter will bring acute conditions if the mines continue closed.

Montana.—The mines in Butte are nearly all idle, a few of the smaller ones operating only on ligh-grade ores, one copper smelter, the smallest in the district, being in operation.

The zinc output is small, only a few mines yielding ore carrying a high silver content being worked. The zinc-reduction plant at Great Falls is being operated on a

20-per cent basis on these high-grade silver zinc ores.

Normally about 12,000 men are employed in Butte, but during 1920 and the early months of 1921 this number was reduced to 6,000 on account of stagnation in the copper and zinc industries. Of this 6,000 nearly all are men with families or dependents, and the employing companies, when operations stopped, adopted at once a third-time basis, which, with the number of men needed to keep the mines in condition to reopen, furnished about all of those employed last year with earnings enough to maintain their families on a very economical basis with the necessaries of life.

Very few men are remaining in the Butte district above the number employed on

third time.

The reduction plants at Butte, Anaconda, and Great Falls are idle with the exceptions noted above, and many of the men formerly employed in said plants have gone elsewhere to look for work; perhaps 50 per cent are still in the communities at the reduction works, and of these 10 to 15 per cent are employed in repair and maintenance work.

Very little destitution appears to have resulted to date and the employers are work-

ing with the public authorities in trying to avoid it after winter comes.

Arizona and New Mexico.—The copper mining districts in this field are variously affected as to unemployment at the present time.

In the Miami district probably 45 per cent of the normal number of employees

would represent the present working force.

No part-time system is in effect here because one mine is employing most of the men at work, the other mines being idle, and the working mine gives full employment to those on its pay rolls.

In the Clifton-Morenci district production is entirely shut off and perhaps not

over 12 to 15 per cent of the men formerly employed in the district are at work.

In the Silver City district virtually all of the copper mines are idle, and perhaps

not over 10 to 15 per cent of the normal number of employees are at work. In Bisbee and Douglas there are no smelters in operation, but between 30 to 35 per cent of the men find employment in development and in maintaining the mines and plants.

At Ajo operations are conducted on about a 45 per cent basis and about that number

of the normal force is employed.

At Ray and Hayden the mining and smelting operations are at a standstill, and perhaps not over 10 per cent of the normal number of employees are at work.

At Jerome not over 15 per cent of the employees of the mines and smelters are

at work.

Taking the district in the two States as a whole, it is, perhaps, safe to figure that not to exceed 40 per cent of the normal number of employees are at work in and about the mines and smelters, but their reports indicate that there are not many idle men around the mining districts; they have gone elsewhere and have probably found some other employment.

Considerable road building is being done by the State and the counties, and the cotton crop is at present employing a considerable number of men who usually work

in and about the mines.

Utah.—The number of men employed in copper mining in Utah, as compared with other important producing districts, is very small owing to surface mining and steam shovel operations of the largest producers. The copper mines of the State and the copper smelters are virtually closed. The proportion of men employed in the copper industry as compared with normal is, perhaps, not more than 20 per cent.

Reports indicate that many idle men are in the mining districts, and during the summer and up to date it is believed that most of those have been forced out of work in the mining districts have found employment on the farms and in other occupations.

Operators report that it has not been necessary so far to adopt any emergency measures on account of the fact that there are very few idle men in the district, but with the coming of winter it will probably be necessary to take some extraordinary steps to increase the number employed.

Zinc and lead.

There is great depression in these industries, due to same causes as apply to other

A few districts yielding silver as a by-product of zinc and lead are employing a good many men; those having no silver yield or a low one are mostly idle.

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No early resumption of operations seems likely as stocks of zinc in producers' hands are large, and lead is selling at a price impossible to meet in new production in most districts.

The districts producing these metals are so scattered and information concerning conditions in them so limited that the general conditions only can be stated here.

American Association for Labor Legislation Unemployment Survey, 1920-21.1

HE American Association for Labor Legislation last summer made a survey of the unemployment situation in 1920–21, covering the same 115 cities which were included in the Association's unemployment survey of 1914–15. Among the statements made in the introductory summary to the recent report are the following:

By using up their savings and selling their Liberty Bonds, and to a less extent disposing of automobiles, victrolas, pianos and other valuables acquired during the war and post-war boom—even in many instances sacrificing paid-for partly-paid-for homes—the unemployed on the whole carried themselves over last winter's emergency for periods ranging from three to nine months.

Employers succeeded in preventing a large amount of complete unemployment by going on a part-time basis. Business associations reporting from 41 cities were almost unanimous in stating that the short day and the short week were used as a rule by manufacturers in their effort to avert as much joblessness as possible. * * *

Public works were found to be effective for relief, serving as a sponge to absorb jobless workers. Out of 81 cities sending information, 24 had by June 1 provided bond issues and appropriations totalling nearly \$10,000,000 expressly for the purpose of starting or pushing forward useful public works as an aid to the unemployed—a significant showing in view of the many cities reporting a disposition to delay even their regularly planned public works pending cheaper transportation and construction costs. * * *

* * The action of Congress a year ago in radically curtailing the appropriation for the United States Employment Service was criticized in many reports which declared that necessary offices had to be closed and that placement activities had thus been seriously crippled. In all cities reporting, where Federal, State and city bureaus were in existence, they were found to be in close cooperation not only with each other but also with other agencies—private and public—dealing with the unemployed.

* * In no less than 18 cities special unemployment committees appointed by

mayors, or similar public-private bodies, were created.

Nearly all cities that had any experience with the demoralizing results of "pauperization" sent in warnings to "avoid bread lines, soup kitchens, money gifts or other indiscriminate giving of charitable relief." * * *

The systems of public employment bureaus in several States were enlarged by law in 1921 and accorded more generous appropriations. City bonds were authorized in one or two States. In some States road construction was provided. Strongly backed unemployment insurance bills were introduced in Pennsylvania and Wisconsin.

Wage Reductions.

WAGES were reported reduced almost without exception in all sections. There was, however, great variety in these reductions. "For example, the decreases ranged from 10 per cent to 15 per cent in factories generally in several cities reporting to 20 per cent in big

¹The American Labor Legislation Review, September, 1921. pp. 191-217.

steel industries, 22½ per cent in important textile industries, and even 25 per cent in factories in many sections. The building trades as a rule appeared to be most resistant to wage cuts."

Regularization of Industry.

SOME constructive provisions for regularizing industries were reported. In Chicago the Joint Board of Employers and Workers in the clothing industry has devised a scheme which allows cutters previously employed by the "tailor-to-the-trade" houses to be transferred to houses making ready-made clothing, in need of such cutters' services. It is suggested that a new adjustment can be effected when tailor-to-the-trade season begins and the ready-made industry slackens.

The manager of the Cleveland Garment Manufacturers' Association wrote as follows:

As you may be aware, we have in this industry a cooperative arrangement between the employers, the employees, and an impartial board of referees. Wages are now set by the board of referees following an annual hearing. In April of this year the referees granted a wage decrease approximately of 13 per cent but they at the same time caused an unemployment fund to be set aside equal to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the direct labor pay roll in each plant. In the 26 weeks following June 1 of this year each worker is being guaranteed at least 20 weeks of employment. Failing to secure this, he is permitted to draw upon the unemployment fund to the extent of two-thirds of his minimum wage. This, of course, places the burden for unemployment directly upon the manufacturer and while his losses are limited to $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, yet he can save any or all of this amount by providing 20 weeks of work to each of his employees.

Among the few establishments having unemployment funds were the Dennison Manufacturing Co. at Framingham, Mass., and the Deering Milliken & Co. bleacheries at Wappingers Falls, N. Y.

Numerous cities as a result of their recent experience "specifically reaffirmed the effectiveness of the 'Standard recommendations for the relief and prevention of unemployment' issued by the American Association for Labor Legislation after a similar survey of unemployment in 1915, declaring that where adapted to local conditions they have proved most successful." ²

Number of Railway Employees in Great Britain.

RECENT report by the British Ministry of Transport shows the number of persons employed on the railways of the United Kingdom in the week ending March 19, 1921. The British Labor Gazette, September, 1921 (p. 458) has reprinted the following table showing the number and classes of these employees in Great Britain and Ireland. The total number employed in December, 1913, was 639,323 and deducting 3,022 clearing house employees who were not included in the 1913 census, from the total number, 766,381; there is found to have been an increase in the number employed of 19.4 per cent.

 $^{^2}$ A summary of these recommendations is reproduced in the report of the 1920–21 survey.

NUMBER OF RAILWAY EMPLOYEES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM, MAR. 19, 1921, BY OCCUPATION.

	Number employed. ¹			
Grade.	Great Britain.	Ireland.	Total.	
Mechanics and artisans. Engine drivers, firemen, and cleaners. Clerks Permanent way men Porters (goods and passenger). Laborers. Signalmen Guards (goods and passenger). Shunters. Carters and vanguards. Checkers.	114, 730 93, 652 90, 333 68, 377 56, 373 44, 878 30, 736 27, 169 19, 081 17, 673 12, 734 160, 134	3, 714 3, 313 3, 040 6, 133 4, 077 2, 283 1, 216 680 442 96 523 4, 994	118, 444 96, 965 2 93, 373 74, 510 60, 450 47, 161 31, 952 27, 849 19, 523 17, 769 13, 257 165, 128	
Total	735, 870	30, 511	³ 766, 381	

 $^{^1}$ Excluding 1,415 employees of the Manchester Ship Canal Co. 2 Including 12,006 females. 8 Including 28,435 females.

Japanese Law of April 8, 1921, Establishing Public Employment

LAW enacted on April 8, 1921, established public employment offices in Japan which are to be administered by central and local authorities, the whole employment service to be under the control of the Ministry of the Interior. A transitory regulation provides that until these authorities have been established the Ministry of the Interior shall exercise the functions of the central office and the prefects of districts those of the local offices. The prefects of districts may authorize any employment office in existence in their district to exercise temporarily the functions of a local public employment office. The Ministry of the Interior has provisionally authorized the employment office of the Kyocho Kai (Labor-Capital Harmonization Society) to exercise the functions of the central employment office.

The law provides that public employment offices shall be established in all cities with a population in excess of 30,000 and that by decree of the Minister of the Interior such offices may also be

established in smaller cities.

A conference of the managers of the principal employment offices was held on April 18 in the offices of the Ministry of the Interior to study the most suitable means for bringing to the attention of the public the existence of the public employment offices and the functions of these offices and to discuss regulations for the application of the law. The Kyocho Kai has organized training courses for employment office managers and clerks.

The law came into force on July 1, 1921.

¹Bollettino del Lavoro, Rome, July, 1921.

Free Employment Office Established in Mexico.1

HE Mexican Employment Office (Oficina de Colocaciones), established by the secretary of industry, commerce, and labor, on May 27, 1921, has already rendered valuable service in finding work for those desiring it and furnishing workers needed by the various industries. During the short period ending June 30, 616 persons were registered, about half of whom were placed. It is stated that these figures do not include requests for 300 to 400 miners from one company and 150 to 200 others from another, which the office is now seeking to fill.

Requests sent out to State and municipal officials for cooperation in the new work are being well received and some officials announce the establishment of local employment offices, which will cooperate with the Federal office. A branch office, located at Toluca, the capital of the State of Mexico, was established by the State Government in cooperation with the secretary of industry, commerce, and labor. The Central Conciliation and Arbitration Commission (Junta Central de Conciliación y Arbitraje) was in this instance designated as the official agency for carrying on this work.

¹ Gaccta Mensual del Departamento del Trabajo. Mexico, June, July, 1921.

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY.

Savings of Woman Shoe Workers in Lynn, Mass.

HE inadequacy of women's earnings to meet their actual needs, shown in the Kansas study (see pp. 93-97), is confirmed, as to the ability to provide for old age, by a study of woman shoe workers in Lynn, made under the direction of the research department of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union of Boston. The study was confined to women in the stitching rooms of small firms in Lynn. This group was peculiarly suited to the purpose of the investigators because a considerable proportion were elderly and had spent most of their lives in shoe work, because they were predominantly American born, three-fourths being native born and about one-fifth of New England stock, and because, since over one-half of them were unmarried or widows without children, they realized keenly that they had no one on whom to depend in old age and were therefore anxious to make such savings as they could.

The survey dealt with 408 women, but no statement is made as to the savings of the married. Presumably, their earnings had been put into the family treasury and it would be impossible to say what proportion of the family savings, if any, should be ascribed to their efforts. But 257 were single, widowed, or divorced, and these were

grouped as to their savings, as follows:

	Per cent.
No savings	49.4
Savings of \$500 or under.	. 28.4
Savings of \$501 to \$1,000	7.0
Savings of \$1,001 to \$2,000	8.9
Savings of \$2,001 to \$3,000	
Savings of over \$3,000.	2.3

These amounts do not include insurance, which was not much more general than savings, 44.1 per cent having none at all, 44.4 per cent carrying industrial insurance of \$500 or less, and only 1.5 per cent being insured for more than \$1,000. Generally, those who had no savings had some insurance, so that only 13 per cent were entirely without provision for their funeral expenses.

In considering how far these women had saved to the extent of their opportunities, the difference between weekly wages and annual earnings is stressed. Many drew high wages when employed, one woman giving her maximum wage for one week as \$67.80, and others reporting maximum weekly wages of \$35 and \$40. But when yearly

earnings were asked for, the showing was very different.

Of the 403 women who reported their earnings from January to December, 1920, 91 per cent earned less than \$1,000, that is, less than an average weekly wage of \$19. In 1919, of 228 women, 89 per cent earned less than \$1,000. The shoe business in

¹ Savings for old age of woman shoe workers, by Alice Channing. The Survey, September 16, 1921, pp.

1919 was very prosperous; in 1920 it was flat. The difference in the earnings of the two years may be more clearly indicated by two examples. One highly skilled worker earned \$951 in 1919 and \$450 in 1920; another, \$821 and \$649 in the respective years. As the statements of the women could not be verified from the pay rolls, a check was obtained by figures furnished by six representatives firms, which employed 804 women in 1920 and 945 in 1919. The percentage of these women earning less than \$1,000 was 98 per cent in 1920 and 92 per cent in 1919. The reason that the figures obtained from the employers give a larger proportion of women earning under \$1,000 than those obtained from the employees is undoubtedly due to the fact that among the 408 women seen were many unusually steady workers.

It was impossible to learn from the women visited how far their annual earnings for a period of years had exceeded their necessary annual expenditures, and what savings might have been possible with prudence and economy. A series of calculations worked out from the State statistics of manufactures and the findings of the minimum wage commission seem to show that if a given worker received the average annual earnings of woman shoe workers and spent only the amounts considered necessary for a minimum of health and decency, she might have had sums varying from \$30 to \$100 a year to lay by. The failure of many of the women studied to show savings of such amounts is partly explained by two factors dependents, and irregularity of income. Two-thirds of the group either had dependents or had had them for some part of their working lives. The single women were found to have dependents quite as frequently as the widowed or divorced, but there was an important difference in the character of the dependency for which they were responsible. In general, the dependents of a widowed or divorced woman would be children or young people, to whom, when she herself became incapacitated, she might look for support; but the single woman was usually caring for parents or for incapacitated brothers or sisters, from whom she could never hope for assistance whatever her own need.

The experiences of these women indicate that the burden of dependents had a great deal to do with the fact that savings were small. One-half of those who accumulated more than \$1,000 had never supported any relatives and only nine had been obliged to give full support. The woman who made the record saving of \$6,800 had never had a dependent during her 42 years of service, and only one of the 16 women who saved over \$2,000 had entirely supported a member of her family.

The second cause of failure to make savings is the irregularity of earnings. Piece rates prevail in the trade, and employment is seasonal, so that no shoe worker knows from week to week what her earnings may be. One stitcher visited in the survey reported her earnings for six consecutive weeks as \$12, \$10, \$25, \$20, \$6, and \$27. The report might easily have included weeks of no earnings at all since unemployment is by no means a rare experience. With such variations in the money available, it is impossible to live in accordance with any ordinary budget. Moreover, periods of industrial depression, such as we are now undergoing, are liable to wipe out savings laboriously accumulated, and leave the worker without the protection she has been trying to acquire.

The experience of one woman is typical: In June, 1920, she had \$230 in the bank, but was unemployed during the next six months, and was forced to spend her savings and to borrow an additional \$75. She had a similar experience in 1917, when there was a five months' lockout.

The study clearly indicates, the author thinks, that it is hardly possible for these workers to provide adequately for their old age.

The amounts of savings, then, reported by these women furnish a precarious protection against old-age dependence. On account of unreliable earnings which make systematic plans for saving impossible, on account of the fact that the earnings of 90 per cent average less than \$19 a week, and on account of the pressure of family cares, it is unlikely that the majority of these women will succeed in accumulating a sum sufficient for their support when they are too feeble to work. If the problem of oldage support of other woman workers is comparable to that of the Lynn shoe workers, is it not time to consider the desirability of establishing some form of old-age insurance in the United States?

HOUSING.

Building in the United States During September, 1921.

view of building statistics, showed material improvement during September. This is the more promising because ordinarily at this season the industry is slackening. Building activity in September usually exhibits a marked decline from the July and August levels, followed by a rise in October, after which comes a rapid fall to the low levels of the winter months. This year the value of the contracts let during September in the 27 States covered amounted to \$246,186,000, which "is not only the largest monthly total that has been reached this year, but is also the largest September figure on record." Statistics for the 10-year period previous to 1921 show that the average September figure is $14\frac{1}{2}$ per cent lower than that for August; this year it is $11\frac{1}{2}$ per cent higher.

The improvement is by no means uniform. Three of the six districts into which the States are grouped show a falling off from the August figures, but this has been overcome by the gains made in the other three. The figures by districts for the two months are as

follows:

COMPARATIVE VALUE OF BUILDING CONTRACTS LET IN 27 NORTHEASTERN STATES IN AUGUST AND SEPTEMBER, 1921.

District.	Value of contract	Per cent ofincrease	
District.	August, 1921.	September, 1921.	(+) or decrease (-).
New England New York and northern New Jersey. Middle Atlantic Pittsburgh district Central West Northwest.	\$20,559,700 60,760,500 37,913,500 32,898,700 60,245,000 8,344,200	\$16,026,000 85,900,000 34,119,000 40,885,000 62,241,000 7,015,000	$ \begin{array}{r} -22.0 \\ +41.0 \\ -10.0 \\ +24.0 \\ +3.0 \\ -16.0 \end{array} $
Total	220, 721, 600	246, 186, 000	+11.5

In the New England district the normal falling off in September is 17 per cent, so that here the situation is unsatisfactory. The greatest reduction came in the value of business building, which fell off by nearly \$3,000,000, the contracts let in September amounting to \$2,832,300, or 49.9 per cent less than the August figure. The amount for educational buildings fell off by something over one-half, but the value of the contracts for residential building decreased by only a trifle over 1 per cent, and the value of industrial building showed an increase of 13 per cent.

The figures for New York are striking in several respects. "This is the largest total for this district," says the Dodge preliminary

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statement, "for any single month on record. The previous maximum figure was \$80,300,000, which was reached in the month of August, 1919." More than half of the total value—\$47,590,000—was in contracts for residential buildings, this being the highest figure for residential building ever reached in the district in any month recorded. It is pointed out that a considerable proportion of this amount was for comparatively small projects.

This total covers 1,384 projects, 1,291 of which amount to less than \$100,000 each, 90 amount to from \$100,000 to \$1,000,000 each, and three amount to more than \$1,000,000 each. These figures demonstrate the effectiveness of the tax exemption act.

Taking the whole area covered, residential building leads in importance, the value of the contracts for this form amounting to \$95,303,000, which is 39 per cent of the total value for September. Almost more encouraging, from the viewpoint of the general industrial situation, is the increase in business building. Its value in September reached \$41,259,000, which is the largest amount for this purpose in any one month since June, 1920.

Municipal Housing Scheme in Buenos Aires.1

THE Municipal Council of Buenos Aires recently passed an ordinance providing what The Times of Argentina considers a rather unusual and entirely sound housing scheme. The city will use such of its real estate as is unimproved or is occupied by old and inadequate structures as sites for the construction of modern houses. It will hand over such property for a period of 25 years, without any kind of annual rental or remuneration, to concessionaires, who will be required to erect houses thereon representing a minimum value of twice the value of the land occupied by such buildings. The buildings must conform to the municipal regulations, and must be for residential purposes only, except that the first floor may be used for business purposes. It is further required that the work of construction be begun and finished within specified periods. A deposit equal to 10 per cent of the value of the building plot is required of concessionaires and is returned to them when the building has been covered with a roof. Exemption from the usual building taxes and exemption for a period of five years from the payment of current rates, such as for lighting, road cleaning, etc., is granted, the latter, however, applying only to houses built in the years 1921, 1922, and 1923.

The contracting parties may not charge rent exceeding an amount calculated to give a 9 per cent return on the capital invested in the construction of the building. They are further required to attend to and pay the cost of upkeep of such buildings. At the end of the 25-year period the buildings pass into the control and ownership of the municipality without any indemnity to the concessionaires. In certain instances the municipality may administer the property for the last five years of the contract period.

¹ The Times of Argentina. Buenos Aires, July 4, 1921.

Report on Building Costs in England and Scotland.1

T THE beginning of the year, when the British Government still intended to press forward with its housing program, the high cost of building working-class dwellings was a matter of serious concern, and in both England and Scotland committees were appointed to look into the situation and make recommendations for its improvement. These committees reported at just about the time the Government announced the relinquishment of its housing program. The reports, therefore, have but little bearing upon the present situation, but their discussion of the causes of the high costs and several of their recommendations are of more than passing interest.

The English report points out that the present conditions were in course of preparation even before the war broke out, since building was largely neglected except in specially favorable localities.

The speculative house builder always carefully selected his sphere of operations and only launched out where trade was good and rents high, usually on the outskirts of prosperous resorts or industrial towns. In agricultural districts where rents were small, or in districts depending on uncertain trade, such as mining areas, house building was neglected except by the large landlords and mining owners who built for their employees.

In other words, few houses were built except where there was an economic demand for them, so that there was an increasing shortage of houses even before 1914, and when, in the interests of public welfare the Government attempted to relieve this after the war had ended it found itself faced with the necessity of building houses for which there was a tremendous need but no economic demand, and that at a time when industry was unsettled, the supply of materials uncertain, and costs of every kind abnormally high. Inevitably the work was expensive, but both committees thought that certain elements of expense might be reduced. Costs are considered under three general headings—cost of materials, profits of contractors, and cost of labor.

Both committees handle the question of costs of material with caution, but both are plainly suspicious that the rise in price had been greater, or at least longer maintained, than facts justified. The English committee finds no evidence of profiteering, but is not satisfied that current prices were reasonable. The Scottish committee is more outspoken:

We can not but attach importance to the extent to which "rings" and combinations have eliminated competition in the supply of the most important building materials, such as bricks, cement, light castings, pipes, and fire-clay goods.

Both committees call attention to the fact that the form of contract in general use tended directly to keep costs up, since it contained a clause "providing that the amount of the contract shall vary according to fluctuations in the costs of labor and materials during the execution of the contract." Of this the English report says:

We are satisfied, however, that with the fluctuation-of-materials clause in postwar

contracts there is a tendency to maintain the high prices of building materials.

This condition was required by builders in all postwar contracts. The demand for the builders' services enabled them to obtain it, and the extraordinary fluctu-

¹ Great Britain. Ministry of Health. Report of the departmental committee on the high cost of building working-class dwellings. London, 1921. 68 pp. Cmd. 1447.
Scotland. Board of Health. Report of committee of inquiry into the high cost of building working-class dwellings in Scotland. Edinburgh, 1921. 32 pp. Cmd. 1411.

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ation and uncertainties regarding supply and prices of material no doubt justified them in obtaining some such reasonable protection.

The sapping of the energy, enterprise, and purchasing skill of the builder, and the weakening of his resistance to increasing prices which this system involves no doubt tend to increase cost of building.

We think, too, that there is not the same keen incentive to the builder to exercise his business experience and acumen in obtaining materials in the very cheapest market or by the most economical means.

On the question of increased profits and overhead charges of contractors, both committees confess themselves baffled. They have not found evidence of undue profits, except in individual cases, but they are unwilling to express more than a very general opinion as to what the profits may be. The Scottish committee sums up the reasons for the failure to present definite conclusions:

Our inability to do so is due (1) to the fact that final accounts have not yet been rendered for a single scheme; (2) to the fact that it does not appear to be the general practice except among the best equipped contractors to keep records of costs according to an accurate system that would enable us to obtain reliable data on which to base a conclusion; and (3) to the unwillingness of the contractors to put any estimate on their prospective profits on housing work.

Labor as an element of cost is treated at considerable length by both committees. Neither seems to feel that wages rose beyond what the increased cost of living justified. The Scottish committee dismisses this aspect of the question rather briefly, saying that an agreement had been reached, effective May, 1921, under which an immediate reduction in hourly wages was accepted, and that thereafter they were to be adjusted in accordance with a sliding scale based on the cost of living. The English committee questions the advisability of some of the allowances made to the workers, and holds that the wages of unskilled labor in the building trades had been raised disproportionately to the wages of similar labor in other trades. Neither committee, however, considered wages so important as the diminution of output. The English committee sums up the causes for this diminution as follows:

The main reasons for this decrease appear to be the following, viz:

The scarcity conditions of labor.

The great excess of demand over supply both in materials and labor in the building industry. The general demoralization caused through unusual methods of contracting during the war, e. g., the letting of enormous contracts upon the cost-plusprofit basis in some form or other, which precluded the necessity of the contractor so to organize, control, and direct as to secure the best possible output per man employed.

The general dislocation of the machinery of building production due to the war.

The general war weariness of operatives.

The war losses of the youngest and most vigorous operatives and the general effects of war service of others.

Two means are suggested for making up this diminished output—an increase in the number of workers within the trade and a greater per capita production. It is recognized that there are difficulties in the way of increasing the number of skilled workers—no increase of unskilled is needed—and the committee suggest that this must be a matter of slow adjustment carried on with the cooperation of the trades themselves. To increase the per capita output, the committee suggest two measures—the substitution of piece rates for time wages and the greater utilization of the workers' own capacity for organization and management. The adoption of the piece-rate system, it is

recognized, would be attended with many difficulties, the greatest being the opposition of the workers, due to "the unfair application of such system by short-sighted employers in the past." It should be a basic principle, it is contended, of any reintroduction of the piece-rate system "that the direct benefit of an improvement in output should go largely to the operative himself."

The second measure suggested for improving per capita output is in line with the contentions of some of the most advanced labor leaders, being nothing more nor less than putting a share of the control and

direction of labor into the hands of labor itself.

The only way to cheapen cost is to increase production per head, by no means necessitating increased or undue physical exertions. It is quite probable that a further share of the responsibility of direction by the operatives may effect this object. Since building labor leaders fully appreciate the need for the organizing skill,

Since building labor leaders fully appreciate the need for the organizing skill, managerial ability, financial and other resources of the master builders, they conceive the idea of employing this skill, ability, and resources as a component part of the labor direction of the industry. To whatever lengths this may ultimately go, it seems to your committee that the first step should be the direction of labor by the representative labor associations or unions.

The general suggestion—which labor appears agreeable to consider, and which the employers on the whole approve—is that labor might organize and govern the labor work in the respective trades so as to insure output on such terms as will stabilize and reduce prices to the community. Thus the builder would be better enabled to quote keener prices, as his risk and uncertainty would be reduced. Labor would have a share in the direction of the work, and would acquire a mutual interest in so reducing costs as to promote demand for their labor, and would have a direct incentive to see that the element of discontent and ca' canny did not enter into any local operations.

This is probably the most far-reaching suggestion contained in either report, but in addition the English committee makes another recommendation in connection with output which is in line, so far as building is concerned, with the program for the prevention of unemployment which labor has been urging for some years past. Output, the committee argue, is best maintained when the industry is in a state of balance, free from either booms or depressions.

On the one hand, in times of great prosperity some advantage is taken of the easy conditions existing and the economic advantages presented to slacken effort and reduce output. On the other hand, in times of depression there is a tendency—accruing from organized and unorganized sources—to restrict the output in order to insure the employment of the maximum number of men upon the limited available work and to prevent the individual from "working himself out of a job" too readily. In both cases the result is low output, and the obvious remedy is to preserve the balance.

If this argument is admitted, it becomes the part of wisdom, the committee hold, for the authorities, both central and local, to do all that is possible to bring about and maintain such a state of balance, and the steady demand for housing for the poorer classes affords an excellent means of doing this.

Our recommendation is that the provision of workmen's houses—an essential work and one of great magnitude before all the slums are eradicated and the housing conditions of the people are satisfactory—be regarded as a pool or reservoir upon which to draw in threatened periods of depression in order that such desirable work may be used for the additional desirable purposes of maintaining employment and of securing the greatest efficiency and consequent economy by preventing the lowering of output of labor. This is a recommendation apart from any that may result from the consideration of different conditions of payment, methods of construction, and other possible expedients of that nature, each of which may have their advocates, but upon which there will not perhaps be the unanimity of opinion which applies to this simple and practicable recommendation.

Housing Conditions in Finland.

N A late issue of this magazine (see Monthly Labor Review, April, 1921, p. 127) mention was made of the housing program inaugurated by Finland in 1920. A report from the United States consul at Helsingfors gives some details of the need for such a program. An investigation into the housing situation was made in 1919, the results of which have recently been printed. The inquiry covered 107 places, including all the cities and towns in Finland, and dealt with 35,516 buildings, which contained 147,895 apartments or flats, and housed 559,403 persons, or 93.9 per cent of the total population of the area covered.

About 2 per cent of these flats were unoccupied at the time of taking the data. This is considerably less than the proportion usually felt in this country to be desirable. Moreover, it included a number of apartments temporarily vacant for repairs, and others which were rented, but for which the leases did not begin to run until May or June, while the inquiry was made in April. In the cities one and two room flats were far more common than those having more rooms. Thus in Helsingfors 37.9 per cent of the flats have but one room, and 29.4 per cent have two. In these small apartments there is a great deal of overcrowding.

It is interesting to note that in places where there are many one-room apartments large families are usually living in such small quarters. In Kotka, for instance, the majority of large families, consisting sometimes even of 6 members, occupy one-room flats, while in other cities and towns families of 4 and 5 persons live in such flats. Two-room flats in most of the cities and larger towns are occupied by 9 to 12 persons. In Helsingfors two 1-room flats were found having 12 occupants each, 7 having 11 occupants each, and 33 having 10 occupants each.

Taking the country as a whole, there was an average of 1.73 persons to a room, but in cities and towns where there are one and two room flats the average rises to 2.41 persons per room.

The greatest congestion is in Helsingfors and in certain manufacturing centers. The eastern part of the country has a comparatively small population. It is considered congestion in Finland if more than two persons are living in one room. The census taken shows that 30 to 50 per cent of the population in large cities are living under crowded conditions, while in the larger towns 10 to 30 per cent and in the smaller ones less than 10 per cent are living in that manner. In centers having a large population, but not cities, the congestion is even more acute, 50 and even 70 per cent of the total population living under congested conditions.

Housing Measures in Paris.

THE September, 1921, number of Garden Cities and Town Planning has an article by M. Henri Sellier upon the housing situation in France, which gives some details of the efforts made by the city of Paris to relieve the prevailing shortage of dwellings. The work is being carried on by Departmental, municipal, and public offices, whose interrelation is not explained, but which seem to work harmoniously along well-defined lines. The Departmental office makes a specialty of garden cities, and has acquired land on all sides of Paris with the intention of regulating both the direction of the city's growth and the distribution of its population. The munici-

pality itself is building workmen's houses within the city limits where suitable sites can be obtained. The area available is limited, and eventually the city proposes to demolish insanitary blocks for the sake of providing room for healthful dwellings. In the present shortage of accommodations, however, that step is deferred. The public office for workmen's dwellings, to which the city has made grants totaling fifty million francs (\$9,650,000, par), has 978 dwellings under construction and is preparing plans for more. In addition, all three of these agencies, with a view to hastening matters, have been buying partially finished houses on which work was suspended when the war broke out, and hurrying them on to completion. The Poor Law Authorities constitute a fourth agency working on this problem. These hold certain property which is to be used "to lighten the burden laid upon the general public for the help of the poor," and conceiving that to supply housing is one means of doing this, they are actively engaged in building working-class dwellings. M. Sellier sums up the situation thus:

We see that, though the situation with regard to housing is decidedly serious in the Department of the Seine, yet real efforts have been made for its improvement. When the work in hand is completed—which will require, according to circumstances, a period either of some months or of a few years—we shall have within the entire Parisian area, a total of 5,779 dwellings, thus distributed: 2,872 for the city of Paris, 1,120 for the municipal office, 1,026 for the Departmental office, 761 for the Department itself. The execution of schemes at present under investigation would add to this total 2,092 dwellings for the city of Paris and 451 for the office of the Department, bringing up the total of new dwellings to 8,322 within the whole Parisian area. The best illustration of the great scale of this building enterprise is a statement of the costs already involved in the work in hand, representing 236,010,949 francs (\$45,550,113, par); the further sums to be invested, in virtue of decisions already made, amount to 109,866,000 francs (\$21,204,138, par), that is, a total of 345,876,949 francs (\$66,754,251, par).

Norwegian Experiments in House Construction.

THE United States vice consul at Trondhjem, Norway, reports that the Norwegian Technical University, with grants from the general Government and the municipality, has been conducting a series of experiments to determine the relative value of the types of house construction in common use. Two points were especially under investigation, which type was cheapest to erect, and which was most economical in the matter of heating after erection. test these points 24 experimental houses were built upon an exposed hill, identical in all respects except as to wall construction, and each provided with an electric heating apparatus capable of heating the whole house to over 100° F. above the outside temperature. thermoregulator allowed the maintenance of an even temperature in all the houses, and the consumption of electric current required for maintaining this temperature was carefully measured. ferent houses the walls were made of stone, of brick, of cement, and of wood, and of various modifications and combinations of these materials, with and without sheathings of different kinds, and, where double walls were used, with different materials for filling the cavity.

Full details as to the experiments are to be given in a book which is to appear, in Norwegian and in English, next spring, but meanwhile a few general conclusions are given. The most satisfactory results HOUSING. 159

were obtained from the type of construction used in house No. 21, which is described as a "frame house with sheet panel and asphalt pasteboard on each side, intermediate space filled with dry, well-packed sawdust."

The experiments proved that not only were wooden houses the cheapest to construct in Norway, but that they were by far the best as to heat retention. House No. 21, with walls filled with sawdust, ranked the highest of all types in this respect. At Hedemarken such houses are built almost exclusively, and also a number in Hamar. They are "unexcelled as to durability and heat" and more fire resisting than frame houses. Arrangements must be made to fill the walls a second time after original filling has sunk.

In Iceland they have recently discovered that the best walls they can build are two concrete walls filled with peat straw. This filling, but with wooden walls, in house No. 22, gave excellent results, and is preferred where peat is more easily obtainable

than sawdust. Moss peat, and not fuel peat, is the better. *

Attempts have been made to introduce into this country a German system called "Thermobaum." By this system the house is built of hollow wooden blocks. The blocks are divided into small compartments by cardboards and are delivered ready for assembling. The outer wall is given a thin coating of hard cement. While this system is too expensive in labor cost for Norway, it is said to be excellent for insulation, as the air chambers are so small and dry the air can not circulate. It is an adaptation of the system used in the walls of refrigerating compartments on the former German trans-Atlantic liners.

House-Rents Law of June 20, 1921, Uruguay.

THE provisions of the house-rents law¹ of June 20, 1921, apply to the rent of dwellings in the towns and cities of Uruguay. The rent rate on December 31, 1919, becomes the legal maximum rate for a period of three years from the date of promulgation of the law. In case a dwelling was not occupied on that date, the rate for the last preceding month in which the house was rented, back to and including June, 1919, becomes the legal maximum. Anyone attempting to collect a larger amount will incur a fine equivalent to three months' rent, which goes to the public assistance funds. Any landlord who considers the rent too low, or any tenant who considers it still too high, may appeal for a revision to the rent commission of his city or town. The rent commissions provided by this law are authorized to settle all such complaints. Their decisions are final and may not be revised for 12 months. In Montevideo the rent commission consists of three members, one each being appointed from their respective members by the National Administrative Council, the High Court of Justice, and the Departmental Council of Montevideo. Auxiliary commissions may be appointed if necessary.

New buildings intended wholly or in part for residential use, which are begun after the promulgation of the law and will be completed during its three-year term of operation, will be required to pay only 50 per cent of the property tax due, for a period of 10 years from the time they are completed. Furthermore, new dwellings built after the date of the law will be exempt from all customs duties on imported materials—that is, upon completion of the building, application may be made to the Ministry of Finance for reimbursement of duties paid. These provisions apply also to rebuilding and enlargements.

Diario Oficial de la Republica Oriental del Uruguay. Montevideo, June 23, 1921.

A clipping on this subject sent in a consular report under date of July 1, 1921, points out the need of an amending law to clear up doubtful points and to make the law applicable also to lodgers and subletting. Furthermore, there is need that the law be amended to include buildings used for office, trade, and industrial purposes, as tenants of such buildings also require relief.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS AND HYGIENE.

Iron-Mine Accidents in the United States in 1920.

PRELIMINARY statement received from the United States Bureau of Mines summarizes a bulletin soon to be issued by that bureau on iron-mine accidents in the United States in 1920. According to this announcement, 45,990 men were employed in the iron-mining industry in 1920, working a total of 13,574,788 shifts, practically the same as in 1919. The average number of working days per employee was 295, three more than in the previous year. A notable feature of the year's activities was a gain of about 46 per cent in the extent of open-pit mining operations, in which there were 2,636,253 shifts. The United States Geological Survey estimates the production of iron in 1920 at 69,000,000 gross tons, an increase of about 13,000,000 over 1919. Reports from the iron mine operators throughout the country showed that accidents in 1920 resulted in 106 deaths and 9,072 nonfatal injuries, representing decreases of 33 fatal and 26 nonfatal accidents as compared with the previous year. These figures indicate a fatality rate of 2.34 and an injury rate of 200.49 per 1,000 men employed (300-day workers).

Of the 106 fatal accidents during the year, 76 occurred underground, 10 in shafts, 6 at open-pit workings, and 14 in surface shops and yards. Of these, 42 occurred in Minnesota, 27 in Michigan, 25 in Alabama, 6 in New York, and 1 each in New Jersey, New Mexico,

Virginia, and Wisconsin.

Of the 9,072 nonfatal accidents, 6,565 occurred underground, 169 in shafts, 1,010 at

open-pit mines, and 1,328 at surface shops and yards.

In the number of men injured, Michigan led the list with 3,202, followed by Minnesota with 2,943, Alabama 1,539, New York 862, Wisconsin 150, New Mexico 98, New Jersey 90, Virginia 50, Tennessee 45, and Georgia 13.

The principal causes of nonfatal accidents underground were: 1,441 by falls of

rock from roof or wall, 1,157 while loading at working face, 1,101 haulage, 983 timber or hand tools, 386 drilling, 154 stepping on nails, 133 falling down chute, winze, etc.; 123 run of ore from chute or pocket, 117 machinery, 97 explosives, 29 suffocation from natural gases. In shaft accidents 22 persons were injured by falling down the shafts, 44 by objects falling down shafts, and 67 by skips or cages. Of the injuries at open pits 145 were due to falls or slides of rock or ore, 129 to haulage equipment, 128 to hand tools, 125 to steam shovels, 71 to falls of persons, 36 to machinery, 28 to explosives, and 11 to falls of derricks, booms, etc. Of those injured at surface shops and yards, 214 were hurt by hand tools, axes, bars, etc.; 175 by falls of persons, 123 by machinery, 96 by railway cars, 91 by mine cars or aerial trams, 89 by stepping on nails, 22 by electricity, and 20 by run or fall of ore in or from ore bins.

Of the major causes of accidents, the principal decreases in those occurring under-

ground were in falls of rock from roof or wall, timber or hand tools, and falling down chutes, winzes, etc. There was an increase in accidents which occurred while loading ore at working face, and in those due to drilling, haulage, run of ore from chute or pocket, machinery, and explosives. Shaft accidents showed an increase in the number due to persons or objects falling down shafts, while the number caused by cages and skips was the same as for the previous year. All classes of open-pit accidents showed an increase over the preceding year except in the case of accidents caused by steam shovels, which decreased from 160 to 125. Surface accidents due

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to mine cars, falls of persons, and hand tools, axes, etc., decreased in number, but there was an increase in accidents caused by railway cars, run or fall of ore in or from ore bins, stepping on nails, electricity, and machinery.

Relation of Lead Poisoning to Mining in Utah.

THE United States Bureau of Mines has issued a report (Serial No. 2274, August, 1921) of an investigation by Dr. Arthur L. Murray of the relation between cases of lead poisoning in Utah and the metal mines industry. The study was prompted by the large number of cases of lead poisoning met with in the course of the writer's work while serving as surgeon with one of the rescue cars of the Bureau of Mines. A study of the records of the State board of health showed only 21 deaths ascribed to lead poisoning in the 10-year period, 1910-1919, which would seem to indicate a fairly low case rate until it is remembered that lead poisoning is rarely an immediate cause of death, although it starts a long train of troubles in which the initial cause, lead poisoning, is frequently lost sight of entirely. The study was conducted with the aid of physicians and dentists who reported cases of lead poisoning coming to their attention in 1919 and 1920. All the physicians and dentists practicing in the State were requested to furnish information, and 256 practitioners, or 65 per cent of the total, submitted returns. Every section of the State was covered, and the aggregate population of the localities covered was 70 per cent of the total.

In 1919, 371 cases were reported and in 1920 there were 224 cases, which gave rates for the entire population of the State of 0.83 and 0.50 cases per thousand, respectively, strikingly high rates for a population principally engaged in agriculture and stock raising. In 1919, 81.7 per cent of the cases and in 1920, 89.2 per cent were in metal mining and smelting communities, while 3.8 per cent and 4.9 per cent were in agriculture and stock raising districts, and the remainder were found in Salt Lake City, the medical center for the State. The cases from agricultural districts were for the most part those of men who had contracted lead poisoning in mines or smelters, as many men who follow farming during the summer go into the mines during the winter, and it is probable that if all cases could be traced to the source where contracted at least 90 per cent would be found to have

originated in the metal mines.

The fact that the dust in the atmosphere, the dryness of the mine, and the nature of the lead ores mined have great influence on the number of cases of lead poisoning produced is shown by the tabulation by districts. Carbonate and oxide ores are much more likely to cause lead poisoning than sulphide ores, and the district in which only sulphide ores are produced and where the workings are deep and wet had but one case of lead poisoning in 1919 and none in 1920, while the number of cases in the other districts increased proportionately to the increase in carbonates and the dryness of the levels. The highest number of cases, 170 in 1919 and 273 in 1920, was found in the section in which the ore produces a larger proportion of carbonates to the total ore mined than any other district and where the mines are exceptionally dry and dusty.

Influence of Fatigue on Health and Longevity.

IN THE July, 1921, issue of The Journal of Industrial Hygiene an article (pp. 93–98) on the effects of fatigue on the health and longevity of workers by Dr. H. M. Vernon summarizes the results of a study of sickness and mortality records in the British iron and steel trade with a view to determining the degree to which fatigue is an element in causing sickness or death. The sickness and mortality records of about 24,000 iron and steel workers for a six-year period, 1913–1918, were tabulated according to occupation, five clearly defined groups of skilled workers being obtained, while a certain number of skilled men too small to form a separate group were thrown into the general group composed largely of laborers.

The number of working days lost per year for all causes, sickness and injuries, for all the groups combined averaged 6.5 days. Not included in this figure is about 0.6 day which is not compensated for under the insurance act. The greatest number of days lost is among the group of steel melters, teemers, and pitmen, who lost 23 per cent more time than the average. Puddlers came next with 20 per cent excess; then tin-plate-mill men, with 12 per cent; rolling-mill men had an 8 per cent excess, while engine, crane, and locomotive men, and the miscellaneous group were 8 and 9 per cent, respectively, below the general average. The first four groups of men all work under trying conditions of temperature, while the last two groups work generally under ordinary conditions. At first sight, the author states, there would seem to be a clear relationship of cause and effect, but an analysis of the time lost under the various categories of sickn ss, rheumatism, respiratory diseases (excluding tuberculosis), injuries, and sickness from other causes, shows that although the work of tin-plate-mill men is practically as hot and heavy as that of puddlers the former do not show an excess of rheumatism and respiratory diseases and the latter do. This is accounted for by the fact that puddlers alternate periods of about 20 minutes of very strenuous puddling with an equal period of rest or of very light work in which, after being much overheated at their work, they are likely to sit about in a draft and thus render themselves very liable to chills, while tin-plate-mill men work continuously, except for very short rest periods, throughout their six or eight hour shifts. Most of the extra sickness among tin-plate-mill men is due to "other causes," and it is considered that this very definitely suggests a fatigue effect. Steel melters showed a high sickness rate from all causes, and it is suggested that this is due not only to their liability to chills but also to lowered bodily resistance due to fatigue.

In a study of the mortality records of the 20,670 steel workers and 3,540 blast-furnace men the total deaths recorded among these workers were compared with those of all males (occupied and retired) in England and Wales in the years 1910–1912. All the occupations of the steel workers showed a high mortality rate from respiratory diseases, the rate for the actual number of deaths from these diseases over the expected number among all the groups being 102 per cent. For all causes combined only the steel melters showed an excess—20 per cent—and for all workers combined the rate was 5 per cent less than the expected number based on data furnished by

the Registrar General for 1910–1912. This can not be taken to indicate that steel manufacture is a healthful occupation, however, because the group with which the comparison is made, "all males, occupied and retired," includes many who are unfit for any trade or fit only for light work, while steel workers are ordinarily healthy men of good physique. Also the mortality figures of steel workers must be considered to be an underestimate since there is a continual weeding out of the workers, especially in the heavy occupations, resulting in lowering the death rate in the trade. The blast-furnace men showed a considerably higher mortality rate than the steel melters, suggesting that "moderately heavy work, if carried out under ordinary temperature conditions but with exposure to all kinds of weather, is more fatal than very heavy work carried out at high temperatures but with shelter from the elements." In conclusion the report states:

The data as a whole appear to indicate that in men of good physique the fatigue of heavy work has, as a rule, but little direct effect on sickness and longevity. It is probable that the excessively exhausting work of the steel melters forms an exception to this dictum, but it seems highly probable that the heavy work of the iron puddlers, of the tin-plate-mill men, and of the rolling-mill men has no injurious effect on health except indirectly, when it induces the men to sit about in damp clothes.

Fatigue and Error in a Mental Occupation.

THE results of a study by J. P. Baumberger of the effects of fatigue in a mental occupation is reported in the Journal of Industrial Hygiene, September, 1921 (pp. 149-153). In this study, made in the auditing department of a railroad company, the output rate and error in a normally recurring routine operation of short duration are used as the measure of fatigue. The operations studied were the writing in of names on pay checks with pen and ink and the typing in of amounts, names, and amounts being obtained from the pay roll. The records of 18 woman clerks, 6 of whom were engaged in writing in the amounts and 12 in writing in names, were studied. The records of these clerks for one month were copied from the company records, which show the time consumed in writing and comparing pay-roll vouchers, time commenced, time finished, minutes, and number of checks canceled. All checks are numbered consecutively and the numbers of all checks on which mistakes are made must be recorded. The time spent on this work amounted to a few hours each day for a part of the month only, the rest of the time being spent in the routine work of the auditing department.

The records of each clerk were grouped by hours and the output rate per hour was calculated for each hour of the day and compared with the grand arithmetical mean of the total hourly records of the clerk, the figures for the different hours being reduced to percentages of this number. This method eliminated differences due to skill and to the different speeds involved in the two processes. "The percentage output for each hour for the whole group was found by obtaining the true mean of a frequency curve in which the percentage outputs for the hour for each individual were the quantities, and the number of checks on which each quantity had been based were

the frequencies. This method was followed on the assumption that the percentage outputs having the largest number of checks as a basis were the most reliable."

A canceled check represented an error, so that a record of canceled checks for each hour and each person gives a record of the number of errors made. The percentage of errors was calculated for each hour for each individual and compared with the average errors for the day

considered as 100.

The highest point in the output curve was reached in the third hour, 10–11, when the percentage was 111. 1 as against 106.8 in the first hour of work and 94.2 in the last hour before lunch. In the afternoon the percentage started at 96.7, between 3 and 4 it reached 100, and the last hour was 98.8, the average for the morning being 103.1 and the afternoon 97.5 per cent.

The percentage rate of errors started at 86.1, fell to its lowest point, 76.6, in the second hour, and reached 110.3 the last hour in the morning, while in the afternoon it started at 111.8, fell to 99.9 in the next hour, and ended with 109.4, the average rate of errors for the morning

being 93.6 and the afternoon 105.3 per cent.

The study shows that production is maintained more evenly throughout the day than quality, since the difference between the highest and lowest percentage output hours is only 16.9 as compared with a difference of 35.2 in the percentage rate of errors. The author explains this difference by the fact that writing or typing is a more or less "automatic movement in which the individual is unconscious of the figures read, but conscious of the (voluntary) movements required to write the name or the number. In order to be aware of errors made, a higher form of consciousness—attention—is required. It would seem that the output is maintained by the lower type of consciousness, but the quality varies with the higher type of attention, which is more readily subject to fatigue."

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION AND SOCIAL INSURANCE.

Meeting of International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.

THE eighth annual meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions was held at Chicago, Ill., September 19-23, 1921. Twenty-two States, two Canadian Provinces, and the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics and Bureau of Standards were officially represented at the conference.

The sessions this year were devoted chiefly to round-table discussions of administrative problems. These included the following: Accident prevention, methods of rating permanent disabilities, court system of administration, methods of claim procedure, and medical problems. A special session was devoted to a discussion of administrative problems under State funds, including questions of assess-

ments, merit rating, reserves, etc.

In his presidential address Mr. Charles S. Andrus, formerly chairman of the Illinois Industrial Commission, outlined the progress of compensation legislation during the past year. The principal legislative proposals recommended by Mr. Andrus were the following: Compensation for occupational diseases; in permanent disability injuries, compensation for temporary total disability during the healing period in addition to the amounts provided for permanent partial disability; unlimited medical service.

In the session on State fund problems Mr. F. W. Armstrong, vice chairman of the Nova Scotia Workmen's Compensation Board, discussed the question of assessments—how they are determined, collected, adjusted, etc. Commissioner Kingston, of Ontario, described the system of merit rating in operation in his Province. Mr. C. A. Caine, manager of the Utah State fund, discussed the question of reserves. Mr. E. S. Gill, of Washington, in discussing the medical aid problem deprecated the contract hospital system in vogue in the State of Washington. Many of these hospitals provide inadequate service, and much better results could be obtained if the whole contract hospital system were abolished.

Accident Prevention.

THE cost of industrial accidents was the subject of a paper presented by Mr. S. J. Williams, secretary of the National Safety Council. Mr. Williams estimated that the annual cost of industrial accidents in the United States, including the wage loss of those killed or disabled plus the cost of medical treatment, amounted to \$1,014,000,000. Mr. John Roach, of New Jersey, emphasized the necessity of safety

166 [1110] education. Not only employers and workers but the public generally must be imbued with the safety idea before effective accident-prevention work can be expected. A survey of the work of the National Safety Code Committee in formulating uniform safety standards was presented by Mr. R. McA. Keown, safety engineer of the Wisconsin Industrial Commission.

Permanent Disability Rating.

THE formulation of an adequate and just compensation schedule for permanent disabilities is one of the most important problems confronting compensation commissions. Methods of rating such disabilities have been a subject for discussion at practically every meeting of the I. A. I. A. B. C. At the present meeting Commissioner Pillsbury, of California, outlined the system adopted by the California commission. Under the California system the compensation for each type of permanent disability is based upon the nature of the injury and the occupation and age of the injured workman. An elaborate schedule has been formulated by the commission showing the rating for each permanent disability for various occupations and ages. In practically all of the other American State compensation acts a fixed definite schedule is provided. The number of weeks' compensation for each type of permanent disability is uniform, neither occupation nor age being taken into account. A variant of the California system has been adopted by the Canadian Provinces. In British Columbia, for example, permanent disability ratings vary with the age and wage of the injured workman, but the occupation factor is disregarded. The California system was criticized by a number of delegates at the conference. Two principal objections were raised: (1) That the mentality factor was disregarded in determining the disability rating, and (2) that the California schedule was inadequate. The members of the association, however, were convinced that the flat schedule in effect in most States was unsatisfactory, and that some schedule similar to California's was desirable. The association therefore authorized the appointment of a special committee to study the whole subject and to formulate a permanent disability schedule free from the objections of present schedules.

Compensation Administration and Safety.

ONE of the most spirited discussions of the meeting concerned the question whether compensation commissions should administer accident-prevention and other labor laws. A striking tendency in the direction of consolidation of administrative departments was evident during the past year. Consolidation of labor-law-enforcing agencies and reorganization of industrial commissions were effected in the States of New York, Ohio, Michigan, Minnesota, and Washington. That the prevention of accidents should be an important function of compensation commissions was strongly held by Commissioner Pillsbury, of California, and Commissioner Wilcox, of Wisconsin. Mr. Ethelbert Stewart, United States Commissioner of Labor Statistics, stated that the ultimate goal of compensation commissioners should be to put themselves out of business; in other words, the elimination of industrial accidents would, ipso facto, obviate the need of

compensation laws and commissions. Commissioner Sayer, of New York, advocated the consolidation of all labor-law-enforcing agencies under one administrative head. On the other hand, Commissioner Lee, of Maryland, pointed out that centralization may result in inefficient compensation administration. Accidents will not be eliminated for a good many years, he added, and to place under one commission all labor functions would result unfavorably to both compensation administration and accident prevention. Commissioner Duffy, of Ohio, stated that, moreover, the present predilection for consolidation was influenced in no small degree by political considerations and that while reorganizations are instituted on the basis of economy they invariably cost more money.

Court Administration.

THERE are still some eight or nine States which have no commissions to administer the compensation acts, the enforcement being left to the courts. The court system of administration has proved inadequate to secure justice to injured workmen and has been condemned practically everywhere. This inadequacy was pointed out in papers presented by Mr. J. P. Gardiner, secretary of the Minnesota Industrial Commission, Mr. F. E. Wood, commissioner of labor of Louisiana, and Mrs. M. B. Owen, of Alabama. According to Mr. Wood there have been many violations of the workmen's compensation act of Louisiana. There violations included "the nonpayment of just compensation, collecting for its operation, making 'lump-sum' settlements at outrageous reductions, and in many cases refusing to pay it at all, except to do so by an act of the court. * * * I have been confronted with so many matters not properly or promptly complied with I am skeptical of any good results at the hands of the courts, and do know many of them would never exist under the administration of an industrial commission, which I hope to see established in Louisiana in the very near future. We have tried the old way and found it wanting; we have sought redress without favorable results; we have watched other States operating under the industrial-commission form and are convinced this is not only the cheapest form for the employers but the best and only absolute protection to the injured, and incidentally a benefit for the State."

Medical Problems.

AT THE medical session the following papers were presented: Extent and Method of Medical Treatment, by Dr. P. B. Magnuson, formerly medical director of the Illinois Industrial Commission; X-ray Interpretation and Standardization, by Dr. H. E. Potter, consulting radiographer to the Illinois Industrial Commission; Concussion and Contusion of the Brain with Post-concussional Conditions, by Dr. S. C. Plummer, professor of surgery, Northwestern University; Neuroses—Their Handling from an Industrial Commission Standpoint, by Dr. L. J. Pollock, consulting neurologist, Illinois Industrial Commission; Can Breaking of Compensation in the Heart be Attributed to Accident? by Dr. W. H. Holmes, consulting internist, Illinois Industrial Commission; Medical Aspects of Women's Ills in Industry, by Dr. Clara P. Seippel.

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Methods of Claim Procedure.

PAPER on the methods of accident reporting and claim procedure under workmen's compensation was presented by Mr. Carl Hookstadt of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. Mr. Hookstadt compared the actual administrative practices of some 20 compensation commissions and funds investigated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and presented the merits and demerits of the various methods and systems. The following conclusions embody what seem to be the most efficient and adequate methods of procedure found in the States investigated:

1. What accidents should be reported?—All accidents which cause time loss or

require medical aid should be reported.

What accidents should be tabulated?—All "tabulatable" accidents, i. e., those causing time loss other than the day on which the injury occurred should be tabulated if the commission has sufficient clerical force to do the work properly; otherwise, it is preferable to tabulate compensable accidents only. In any case, the compensable and noncompensable accidents should be tabulated separately. As to method, the recommendations of the committee on statistics of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions should be followed as closely as possible.

3. What data should be called for on the employer's first report of accident?—The questions on the employer's first report of accident should be limited to data which are (1) important and necessary, and (2) which are obtainable. Such questions as "nationality" and "American or foreign" should be eliminated because they are too

indefinite and subject to several interpretations.

4. How soon should accidents be reported?—The more promptly an accident is reported the sooner positive action can be taken by the claim department. Usually, however, no action is possible until the commission knows whether the injury is a compensable one. In case of serious accidents this information is known at the time of the injury and such accidents should be reported immediately. The compensability of minor accidents, however, is not known until the expiration of the waiting period. If reported before that time, a supplemental report must also be made in each case showing when the employee returned to work. It would seem sufficient and desirable, therefore, assuming the statutory waiting period to be reasonably short, to report noncompensable minor accidents at the termination of disability and compensable minor accidents immediately after the expiration of the waiting period. This practice is not recommended for State funds. Where medical service must be furnished by the commission it is desirable that accidents be reported as soon as possible.

5. What reports should be required?—(a) Employer's report.—An employer's report should be required in every accident case. Such reports should be transmitted to the commission directly by the employer and not through the insurance carrier or any

other intermediary.

(b) Physician's report.—A physician's report should be required at least in all per-

manent disability and in all serious temporary disability cases.

(c) Employee's report.—It is extremely desirable that the commission receive some statement from the injured workman himself in order that the facts as reported by the employer, insurer, or physician may be verified. In the case of State funds, this is effected through the workman's claim. The voluntary-agreement system also answers the purpose to a limited extent. The merits and demerits of these systems are discussed in the following paper. If neither method is adopted, the commission, before final approval of the settlement of the claim, should request the injured workman to verify the expertial facts are reported by the symplectic that in the control of the settlement of the claim, should request the injured workman to verify the expertial facts are reported by the symplectic facts are reported by the control of the second facts are reported by the symplectic facts are reported by t man to verify the essential facts as reported by the employer.

(d) Physician's final report.—In all cases of permanent disability and serious temporary disability a final report should be required from the attending physician, stating the nature of the injury, degree of impairment, and the date the injured employee

is able to return to work.

(e) Employer's final report.—A final report should be required from the employer stating when the employee actually returned to work, and in case of permanent

disability, his subsequent occupation and wages.

(f) Insurance carrier's final report.—A final report should be required from the insurance carrier and the self-insured employer, stating the amount of compensation and medical benefits paid in each case.

(g) Receipts.—A monthly statement should be required from the insurance carrier and the self-insured employer showing each compensation payment made during the month, giving the amount, date, and check number of each payment.

The paper also discussed the several methods of indexing, numbering, and filing accident reports, together with the various systems of adjudicating claims, and pointed out the advantages and disadvantages of each system. Four methods of claim procedure are in use in the various compensation States. These are: (1) Claim system, (2) voluntary-agreement or direct-settlement system, (3) adjudication of cases on the basis of employer's and insurer's reports only, and (4) hearing system.

Business Meeting.

THE following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

President, Robt. E. Lee, chairman, Maryland Industrial Accident Commission. Vice president, F. A. Duxbury, chairman, Minnesota Industrial Commission. Secretary-treasurer, Ethelbert Stewart, United States Commissioner of Labor testing.

Executive committee: Robt. E. Lee, chairman, Maryland Industrial Accident Commission; F. A. Duxbury, chairman, Minnesota Industrial Commission; Ethelbert Stewart, United States Commissioner of Labor Statistics; Charles S. Andrus, exchairman, Illinois Industrial Commission; Lee Ott, West Virginia State compensation commissioner; Baxter Taylor, chairman, Oklahoma Industrial Commission; E. S. Gill, supervisor of industrial insurance, Department of Labor and Industries of Washington; Henry D. Sayer, industrial commissioner, Department of Labor of New York; and Fred W. Armstrong, vice-chairman, Workmen's Compensation Board of Nova

The resolutions adopted by the association included a reendorsement of a uniform Federal workmen's compensation act applicable to all maritime employments and employees, and an expression of appreciation of the valuable assistance given by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics to the association in the field of workmen's compensation legislation and administration.

The next meeting of the association will be held in Baltimore, Md. The date of meeting will be determined by the executive committee.

Recent Reports.

New Jersey.

Jersey for the year ending June 30, 1920, opened with a recommendation affecting administration. The law of 1918 authorized trials de novo in cases where appeals were taken to the court from a judgment of the compensation commissioner. This resulted in the introduction of new evidence, and even new witnesses with statements and figures altered from those submitted to the commissioner, indicating that the first trial was rather an attempt to draw out the points of the defense and make the hearing on appeal the real trial on the merits. An amendment was recommended, limiting the appeal to matters of law, the facts to be as found by the commissioner. It may be noted that this amendment was adopted by the legislature of 1921.

The report sets forth the methods in use to check up on direct settlements. To require all cases to be heard was regarded as not feasible, but the plan was adopted of withholding approval for one month after a proposed settlement had been submitted, giving the claimant this time in which to submit his case at one of the offices indicated for a review if he wished to do so. During 8 months such notices were sent to 10,541 injured workers, of whom 1,116 reported. Settlements were in the main correct, but 107 called for correction of shortages, ranging in amount from \$1.66 to \$1,800. The total shortage in the 107 cases was \$25,642.96, an average of \$239.65. It is observed that as the months pass the number of errors decreases, suggesting a closer conformity to the law in the original settlements.

Another advantageous feature noted is the close cooperation of the compensation bureau with the rehabilitation commission. Insurance carriers are advised to cooperate and meet the extra cost of rehabilitation, with the view of an ultimate saving on compensation. Settlements are deferred until the rehabilitation treatment has been determined upon. "In the majority of cases, the outcome is a net gain to everybody. The carrier pays out less as compensation and the injured is benefited in a way which can not be financially estimated."

Nonfatal accidents reported during the year numbered 15,557. Reports of 437 of these were not required by the law, disability not continuing for 10 days. Various other eliminations are noted, and the number of cases closed is reported as 13,912. Of these, 54 were under the employers' liability section of the law and 13,858, or 99.6 per cent, were under the elective compensation statute. There were 11 cases of total disability and 3,034 of permanent partial disability. Temporary disabilities numbered 10,813, and 13,855 required medical aid. Compensation was approved in 13,763 cases, the amount totaling \$2,038,607.59, or an average of \$147.11 per case.

There were 229 fatal accidents reported, 82 of which involved burial costs only. The total burial cost reported was \$32,161.17, or \$119.52 per case. There were 186 cases involving dependents, with an average of 2.9 dependents per case. Compensation awarded in these cases amounted to \$606,184.88, or an average of \$3,259.05. Besides the legal requirements there were gratuitous payments amounting to \$36,380.85 in the nonfatal cases, and \$5,978.33 in the fatal cases.

The Industrial Accident Bureau is a separate division of the Department of Labor from the Workmen's Compensation Bureau, and presents for 161 fatal and 14,100 nonfatal accidents in factories and workshops detailed tables showing cases by industries, results, number of investigations, etc. Less detailed accounts are given for building and construction, 31 fatal and 5,934 nonfatal accidents, mines and quarries, 7 fatal and 224 nonfatal, and miscellaneous, 86 fatal and 8,298 nonfatal, the total being 285 fatal and 28,556 nonfatal accidents reported in the State for the year.

Ohio.

THE Workmen's Compensation Department of the Industrial Commission of Ohio reports for the year ending June 30, 1920, an increase in the number of claims filed over the preceding year amounting to 14,614. Two reasons are assigned—first, the increased industrial activities of the State, and second, fuller reporting. The

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total number of claims filed during the year was 166,885, of which 880 were for fatal accidents. An interesting point is a decrease of 21 in the number of claims filed during the year where employers had failed to pay their premiums into the State fund, the number for the year being 109.

The number of claims finally disposed of was 167,007 as compared with 162,169 for the preceding year. Of these 1,221 were disallowed

for various reasons.

The department has made a special effort to facilitate the procedure so as to secure the promptest relief possible in cases of injury, and while further improvement is anticipated, satisfaction is expressed over the results obtained by the adoption of a new form which consolidates notice of injury, preliminary application, preliminary report of attending physician, and supplemental application. A check was kept on 3,340 claims handled during a period of two one-half months, and it was found that the average time for disposition was 15.33 days, counting the day of receipt of claim and the day of hearing. Tables show by months the claims filed, disposed of, pending at end of month, specially heard, disallowed, and dismissed; also the number of appeals taken and status of pending cases.

Statistics of accidents are not given in the report except a brief table showing causes. This table is based on 8 months' report, 4 months' exposure being determined by prorating. The table attributes to machinery 79,043 accidents, or 43.2 per cent of the total. The next largest number is charged to objects being handled, 45,194 accidents or 24.7 per cent of the total. Next come hand tools, charged with 7.3 per cent, and explosives, electricity, fires, and hot and corrosive substances, 6.8 per cent. The total number of acci-

dents reported for the year was 182,970.

The State fund, in which all insurance is carried excepting only self-insuring employers, shows a balance in the treasury as of July 1, 1919, amounting to \$19,056,230.76, which with the receipts for the year made a total of \$34,314,997.57. Disbursements for awards and refund vouchers amounted to \$6,597,358.98, which with interest paid out left a balance on June 30, 1920, of \$27,613,627.20. The assets in the employers' fund as of December 31, 1919, were \$23,685,509.45, with liabilities amounting to \$19,836,593.57. There was besides this the catastrophe surplus of \$1,135,158.11, and a general surplus of \$2,713,757.77. This surplus was sufficient to enable the commission to retain an adequate contingent reserve and also declare a dividend of 12 per cent on the year's business. This would amount approximately to one and one-third million dollars to be returned to subscribers.

A separate statement is just at hand showing the condition of the fund as of December 31, 1920. This disclosed assets in the employers' fund only amounting to \$34,549,930.92. The catastrophe fund at this time showed a balance of \$2,208,624.59 with other surplus sufficient to set aside for the payment of the 1921 dividend approximately \$2,000,000, which would be 15 per cent of the last year's premium paid by employers in such classifications as have produced the surplus. This amount would be distributed to qualifying employers on the first adjustment of premiums after July 1, 1921. A further saving was possible in regard to the amount set aside for the catastrophe

fund. Originally 10 per cent of the premiums were devoted to this purpose. Later the amount was reduced to 5 per cent, and on July 1, 1919, to 4 per cent. The present report shows that "the financial condition of this fund at the present time warrants a further reduc-

tion to 2 per cent."

The circular notes the amendments to the workmen's compensation law, calling particular attention to the inclusion of occupational dis-Notwithstanding this inclusion and a substantial increase in the scale of benefits, "it was not necessary to make a so-called general increase in rates, but on the other hand rate reductions have been made in approximately 300 classifications." However, some classifications, approximately 200 in number, required increases, while the remainder were left undisturbed.

South Dakota.

THE Industrial Commissioner of South Dakota embodies in his fourth annual report an account of the operation of the compensation law for the year ending June 30, 1921. A greater acceptance of the elective statute is noted, and "such slight opposition to the law as developed in the beginning has practically disappeared on the part of employers." The inadequate weekly allowance of \$12 as a maximum was increased to \$15 by the legislature of 1921, but the effort to increase the maximum allowance for death (\$3,000) was unsuccessful. The rate is said to be too low, and the matter will probably be brought up again at the next session. The subject of State insurance was only incidentally considered at the last session, but representatives of labor are expected to press the matter at

some future time.

Serious complaint is made of the failure of employers, especially of the small employers, to insure their liabilities under the compensation act. The law is of a very inclusive coverage, and many employers may be unaware of the obligation to insure. The law makes no provision by which insurance can be required and employers who are "judgment proof" permit the matter to drift along and when an accident occurs a worthless judgment or uncollectible award is the result, leaving the injured workman or his bereaved family no redress. A compulsory law is suggested, mention being made of the fact that States having no compulsory laws "are considering them even to the point of asking a constitutional amendment, if required, to secure this enactment." The commissioner directs attention to the im-The commissioner directs attention to the importance of cities and counties requiring contractors with them to have their employees insured lest the obligation fall back upon the municipality.

The statistical data are scanty. The amount paid out in compensation during the fiscal year was \$91,519.10, nearly \$2,000 more than for the preceding year. There has been an unusual uniformity in the number of fatalities since the act became operative, 20 for the first year, 22 for the second, 21 for the third, and 23 for the year covered by this report. The law provides a maximum of \$3,000 and a minimum of \$1,650. The general agreement is said to be for the maximum amount, the minimum having been agreed upon in cases of doubt as a matter of compromise to avoid test, although in some cases the wage

rate was low.

The number of nonfatal cases for which compensation was paid during the year was 1,394 as against 953 for the previous year. Of these, 355 received less than \$10 and 744 from \$10 to \$50; 157 received \$50 or more but under \$100, while 124 received from \$100 to \$1,000, and 14 received \$1,000 or over.

Medical relief is limited to \$150, but a number of cases are reported in which a larger sum was voluntarily paid, as a matter either of policy or of good will. Compensation benefits are obviously lessened by adequate medical treatment, and insuring companies have recognized this:

The total number of accidents reported for the year was 2,724, of which 2,221 were reported as closed. Of the accidents, 531 occurred in mining, 283 among laborers, 254 among packing-plant workers, and 165 among carpenters.

Health Insurance in Ireland, 1917 to 1920.

COME account has been given of the nature and purpose of the British National Health Insurance System in the Monthly LABOR REVIEW for January, 1920 (pp. 45 to 59), and for September, 1920 (pp. 1 to 11). As indicated in these accounts, there are separate administrative provisions for the geographical areas of the United Kingdom. The National Health Insurance Commission of Ireland reports for that country the operations of the national health insurance law for the period November, 1917, to March, 1920.

The original act of 1911 has undergone considerable amendment during the subsequent years, important changes having been made in 1920 to become operative from July 5 of that year. These changes, of course, do not affect the situation as reported on, but reference is made under the various headings as to the anticipated effects of these amendments. It is interesting to note, by way of contrast with the practical exclusion of such workers from the compensation laws of this country, that the health insurance provisions of the United Kingdom have special provisions to care for outworkers and migratory laborers.

While the central administration of the act rests with a commission, consisting of a chairman and two commissioners, the operations become directly effective through the agency of approved societies of various types. On December 31, 1919, the number of such societies was reported at 215 with a membership of 725,600. The distribution of these members in the various classes of societies is shown for a somewhat earlier date, June, 1918, in the following table:

MEMBERSHIP OF APPROVED SOCIETIES IN IRELAND, BY CLASSES OF SOCIETIES, FOR THE HALF YEAR ENDING JUNE, 1918.

Sex.	Friendly societies (branches.)	Friendly societies (centralized).	Industrial and collect- ing societies.	Trade- unions.	Employers' provident funds.	Total for all groups of societies.
MalesFemales	93, 931 41, 506	259, 282 127, 939	88, 836 66, 415	54, 224 7, 087	6,560 300	502, 833 243, 247
Total	135, 437	387, 221	155, 251	61, 311	6,860	746, 080

During the period covered by this report the commission has found its work and that of the local societies largely influenced by conditions arising from the war and the demobilization of the soldiers. Membership of societies has varied largely by reason of these conditions, and special provisions have been necessary to care for men in the service and for "invalided and impaired ex-service men." With regard to the latter group, provisions were made under which men have been treated ranging in number from 20,472 for the $5\frac{1}{2}$ months, October 15, 1918, to March 31, 1919, steadily increasing until during the quarter ending June 30, 1920, 43,557 persons were found entitled to treatment. During this last quarter the amount distributed among physicians rendering the services provided for, nearly 1,000 in number, received £7,977 9s. 1d. (\$38,822, par).

The benefits normally payable in Ireland are: Sickness, a periodical payment during the continuance of disease causing incapacity for work, commencing on the fourth day of such incapacity and continuing for a period not to exceed 26 weeks; disablement, being a periodical payment made in cases of disease or disablement after the 26 weeks' sickness benefit has been exhausted; and maternity, payable to an insured man on the confinement of his wife, also to the wife if she is insured, the benefit in all cases being the wife's property. Benefits are also provided for unmarried women giving birth to children. Besides this is a "Class K" benefit provided for women entitled to special benefits under the act on or after marriage. The following table shows the receipts and expenditures for various purposes of approved societies for the period covered by this report:

APPROXIMATE RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF APPROVED SOCIETIES FOR THE YEARS 1917 TO 1919.

[1 pound at par=\$4, 8665.]

	1917	1918	1919
Receipts.			
From National Health Insurance Fund (Ireland)	£531, 685 13, 619 26, 563	£589, 890 16, 356 28, 423	£630, 089 23, 018 9, 696
Total	571, 867	634, 669	662, 803
Benefits (net): Payments. Sickness— Men. Women. Disablement— Men. Women. Maternity— Men. Women. Class K. Other charges to benefit fund, including married women's credits	183, 534 91, 629 52, 841 33, 165 55, 340 7, 920 2, 493	225, 009 104, 609 63, 421 40, 392 57, 226 7, 989 490 2, 761	204, 125 93, 853 59, 257 44, 178 60, 260 9, 632 1, 837 10, 392
Total benefit payments. Administration. Balances (net) December 31.	426, 922 116, 522 28, 423	501, 897 123, 076 9, 696	483, 53 150, 371 28, 898
Total	571, 867	634, 669	662, 803

LABOR LAWS AND COURT DECISIONS.

Status of Children Unlawfully Employed.

HE compensation laws of the different States vary in their provisions as to children employed in violation of the child labor laws of the States. Thus the Texas statute explicitly excludes them, leaving the employer subject to suit for damages: this is true also in West Virginia (MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, June, 1921, p. 128). The provision of the Wisconsin statute, awarding threefold damages in the case of children unlawfully employed, was considered in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for March, 1921 (p. 179). Practically identical provisions receive contradictory constructions by the courts of the different States, while within the State of New York the subordinate courts have rendered decisions diametrically opposed. Thus in Ide v. Faul & Timmins (166 N. Y. Supp. 858) compensation and not a damage suit was held to be the available remedy where a minor was injured while employed at a prohibited dangerous machine. Similar conclusions were reached in Robilotto v. Bartholdi Realty Co. (172 N. Y. Supp. 328), and Kenny v. Union Railway Co. (166 App. Div. 497, 152 N. Y. Supp. 117). The opposite view was taken in Wolff v. Fulton Bag & Cotton Mills (173 N. Y. Supp. 75), in which the foregoing cases were cited, but the conclusion therein was held to be wrong. It was said that a suit for damages was the proper remedy, therein according with the position of the New Jersey Court of Errors and Appeals (Hetzel v. Wasson Piston Ring Co., 89 N. J. Law 203, 98 Atl. 306), and the Supreme Court of Washington (Hillestad v. Industrial Commission, 141 Pac. 913), the laws in both States closely resembling that of New York.

The point is now set at rest for the State of New York by a decision of the court of appeals (Noreen v. Wm. Vogel & Bros., 132 N. E. 102). It was here held that the child was an employee irrespective of the fact that he had secured employment by misrepresentation as to age, and that the employer had failed to exercise due diligence to ascertain the age. It was pointed out that the injured boy could have brought no suit at common law except as an employee, and only as such would he be entitled to assert the applicability of the rules of law relating to employer and employee; and since the compensation law declares that the liability of an employer as determined by the compensation act shall be exclusive of all other liability in such status, there is no remedy open to anyone in the employment relation except that

given by the compensation law.

Scope of Medical Treatment, California.

THE Industrial Accident Commission of California recently passed upon two cases involving the exhaustion of a claimant's rights to medical treatment on the basis of his choice of action. In one (Habishaw v. Southern California Edison Co.) the claimant had suffered the loss of several teeth, among other injuries, and in the course of his treatment requested that the teeth be replaced by a bridge. Attending physicians and dentists recommended a different treatment, but the claimant insisted and the appliance was furnished him under protest. It proved unsatisfactory and inadequate, and he demanded that the employer and its insurer furnish him the appropriate appliance.

The commission ruled that though a dispute as to the proper treatment should generally be referred to the commission for decision, it was proper to recognize the preference of the injured person within reasonable limits, and that when a treatment not unreasonable was insisted upon it might properly be allowed; but that as the action was taken after full explanation, no further liability attached to the employer, so that any further relief or treatment must be at the

expense of the employee.

The second case (Sweeney v. Moore Shipbuilding Co.) involved a different set of conditions, in that the attending physician suggested the probability of a successful treatment which would prevent the amputation of an injured finger, saying that the normal function might be saved. The employee, in accordance with this advice, submitted to the treatment, but it was unsuccessful and it became desirable to remove the finger, as it was an interference with the discharge of the claimant's duties as a machinist. In view of the circumstances, this second operation was held to be a proper charge against the employer, who was "bound to restore the employee to as great a degree of industrial efficiency as is possible," the original treatment having been accepted by the claimant on the representation of a successful outcome that was not realized. The amputation also involved a higher compensation rating, and this, too, was awarded the claimant.

Death Following Operation Not Due to Injury, Maine.

RATHER unusual condition was involved in a compensation claim under the law of Maine, in which a workman submitted to an operation to remedy a condition resulting from injury, but requested also an additional operation to remedy a preexisting condition. Jospeh Dulac suffered from a hernia in the course of his employment and when operated on therefor asked that the surgeon also operate for a separate, preexisting hernia. The result was that instead of a single operation of 30 minutes, the work was prolonged to nearly double that time. The patient died from "post-operative surgical shock," and the court found from the evidence that it could not be said that the operation necessitated by the recent injury was the cause of the death, so that the award in behalf of the widow was denied on appeal to the supreme judicial court of the State (Dulac v. Proeter & Bowie Co., 114 Atlantic 293).

Strike Investigation Act of Massachusetts Held Constitutional.

LAW of Massachusetts creates a board of conciliation and arbitration, to which is given the authority to investigate a strike or lockout, actual or threatened, involving twenty-five or more persons, if efforts at mediation or conciliation are unsuc-The board is to ascertain the cause of the controversy, and which side is the more responsible or blameworthy, and publish a report setting forth its conclusions (G. L. Ch. 150, sec. 3). The validity of the act was recently passed upon by the supreme judical court of the State in a case in which an employer sought an injunction against the board, restraining it from making an investigation of a strike, on the ground that the company was at the time undertaking to procure an injunction against the strikers, and would be prejudiced by such investigation (Moore Drop Forging Co. v. Fisher, et al., 132 N. E. 169). The law was said to be valid as directly connected with the public safety, health, and welfare of the State, on account of the public interest in the causes of strikes and in placing the blame and responsibility for their instigation and continuance. Disorder, violence, and economic waste are attendants of such events, in all of which the public is concerned. It must be presumed that the board will so proceed as not to violate the constitutional guaranties of personal liberty and freedom of the employer; nor will the investigation interfere with the conduct of the suit for an injunction against the members and officers of the union involved.

Death of Fireman Due to Unusual Exposure to Weather, Michigan.

CASE recently passed upon by the Supreme Court of Michigan involves the definition of the term "accident," and gives it a meaning that must appear rather restricted in view of the circumstances of the case. In January, 1920, Savage, a lieutenant in the city fire department of Pontiac, was in service from about 9 a. m. until 3.30 p. m., fighting two fires on a day of extremely low temperature. The water sprayed back on account of a high wind, and his clothes became wet and frozen. A layer of ice an inch in thickness formed on the back of his right ear and neck, "and his condition in that respect was worse than that of any of the other firemen."

This occurred on Saturday, January 31, but he continued to work until the following Wednesday, when be became ill and on going home that night went to bed and continued there until his death on February 21. The compensation commission awarded benefits to the widow, but the city appealed, securing a reversal of the award (Savage v. City of Pontiac, 183 N. W. 798). The court took the view that "no accident happened at either of the fires, and deceased suffered no exposure which was not suffered by the other firemen, and which was not an incident to his employment." The testimony of physicians differed, one giving pneumonia meningitis as the cause of the death, while a chiropractor attributed it to a contraction

of the muscles due to the formation of ice at the back of the neck, displacing the axis and atlas vertebrae, and producing pressure on the spinal cord with resultant paralysis and death. This would at least suggest the accident theory, and "this theory seems to have been the one adopted by the industrial accident board in its finding." However, the court regarded the wetting and exposure as an incident, "which from the very nature of the employment every fireman is subject to in Michigan during the severe winter weather," and held that the case was governed and ruled by its decision in Landers v. City of Muskegon (196 Mich. 750, 163 N. W. 43). This was likewise a case of a fireman who died after 12 hours' exposure on a winter day, illness following the next morning and death from pneumonia within two weeks. Here it was said that it was a part of the fireman's regular duties to work at a fire under circumstances that rendered it not unusual to get wet. A sudden rush of water from the upper deck of a boat which was on fire drenched the men who were working at that point, but this was held not to be significant in view of the fact that they were already wet through before this occurred. "We think this incident should be classed among the ordinary ones attending the duties of a fireman and not as an accident."

Reasserting its position as there expressed, the court in the present case regarded the death of Savage not as due to an accidental cause but to "an injury received in the course of his employment through purely natural causes where the employee was no more subject to

the injury than others similarly situated."

Two judges dissented, holding that "the fastening of the ice on the neck and the consequent injury to the spine" was "a most extraordinary mishap." Evidence was said to support the finding that the ice fastening to the neck caused a hurt to the spine of an accidental nature, so that the award should have been affirmed. However, the decision was against the claimant by a vote of 6 to 2.

British Railways Act, 1921.1

THE reorganization and the regulation of the British railways after the expiration on August 14, 1921, of the period of Government control is provided for in the Railways Act which

received royal assent on August 19.

The act provides for the amalgamation and rearrangement of the existing railway companies into six groups and the establishment of a tribunal to deal with the question of railway charges. This tribunal consists of three members—an experienced lawyer to act as chairman, and two members having experience, one in commercial affairs, and the other in railway business. The minister of transport has authority when it is considered necessary in any particular case to add two other members, one from a "railway panel" and one from a "general panel" of 36 persons, 22 of whom are nominated by the president of the Board of Trade to represent business

interests, 12 by the minister of labor after consultation with bodies representing the interests of labor and the passengers on railways, and 2 by the minister of agriculture and fisheries to represent agricultural interests.

The Central and National Wages Boards ¹ are to continue at least until January 1, 1924, during which time all questions relating to rates of pay, hours of work, etc., shall, in default of agreement, be referred to the Central Wages Board or, upon appeal, to the National

Wages Board.

The act also provides for the constitution of one or more councils for each of the railway companies consisting of officers of the railway companies and elected representatives of the workers. Each railway company may establish a similar conference for the police force of the company to which all questions of wages, hours, and conditions of service shall be referred which may be appealed to the central conference composed of representatives of the conferences of the separate railways. In case of disagreement an independent chairman shall be appointed who has the power to give binding decisions.

The Irish railways are exempt from the provisions of the act except

for the return of certain statistics.

Repeal of British Corn Production Acts.2

THE repeal act, effective October 1, 1921, of the British corn production acts of 1917 3 and 1920 received royal assent on August 19. The first section of the act provides for the repeal of these acts; the second deals with the payments to be made to occupiers of land for crops of the present year; and the third section allots a sum of £1,000,000 (\$4,866,500, par) for the promotion of agricultural development. The relations of employers and employed in agriculture after the abolition on September 30 of the National Wages Board, which has had the power to fix minimum wages, is dealt with in the fourth section. The main provisions of this part of the law are summarized in the Labor Gazette as follows:

It is finally provided that in place of the Agricultural Wages Board and district wages committees there shall be set up in various districts quasi-statutory conciliation committees to deal with wages, hours, and conditions of employment. Provision is made for some continuity between the old district wages committees and the new joint conciliation committees by constituting the representative members of the former as provisional or interim conciliation committees. Each such committee will consist of representatives of employers and workmen in agriculture, and each side will have one collective vote on any question. The agreements at which they arrive will be enforceable at law after confirmation by the minister of agriculture and advertisement in the districts to which they apply. There will be no central board and no appointed members to act as umpires between the two sides, but a committee may appoint an independent chairman, who will not, however, have the power to vote, except in respect to any particular matter as the committee may determine.

Scotland is excluded from the operation of the clause, with the exception of subsection (1), which gives power to the minister of agriculture for England and Wales and the Board of Agriculture for Scotland to form voluntary conciliation committees.

See Monthly-Labor Review, September, 1921, pp. 17, 18.
 Labour Gazette, London, September, 1921, pp. 453, 459.
 See Monthly Labor Review, January, 1918, pp. 97-100.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

Membership of the General Federation of German Trade-Unions.

THE Korrespondenzblatt (Berlin, June 4, 1921), the official organ of the General Federation of German Trade-Unions, to which all the social-democratic trade unions are affiliated, contains the following table showing the membership of this large central labor organization:

MEMBERSHIP OF THE GENERAL FEDERATION OF GERMAN TRADE-UNIONS, END OF FIRST QUARTER, 1921.

*		Membership.	
Federation.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Salaried employees	170, 347	154, 335	333, 68
Actors.	4, 999	2,790	7 78
Asphalt pavers.	2,093	-, 100	7,78 12,09
Bakers and confectioners	40,051	25, 897	65, 94
Building trades	458, 061 52, 908		458,06
Clothing workers	52, 908	76,713	2 129, 62
Miners	464, 920	1,922	466, 84
Coopers	12,400	555	² 12, 95 72, 90
Bookbinders	67, 547 24, 306	5,353	80,09
Printers	74, 000	55, 784	74, 00
Chorus singers	1,875	2,690	4, 56
Roofers.	10, 461	2,000	10, 46
Railroad workers	541,011	3,266	2 544, 27
Factory workers	463, 105	174, 351	637, 45
Factory workers. Employees of the film and moving picture industry	4,000	3,400	7,40
Dutchers	22, 584 7, 902 17, 090	1,269	23, 85
Barbers and hairdressers	7,902	1,348	9, 25
Gardeners	17,090	4,654	21,65
Municipal and Government workers	234, 319	58,951	293, 27
Glaziers	52, 597 3, 966	11,414	64, 01 3, 99
Auxiliary workers in the printing industry	14, 345	26, 805	41, 15
Domestic servants	366	19,648	2 20, 01
Woodworkers	338, 314	38, 562	376, 87
Hotel, restaurant, and café employees	36, 468	26, 911	263, 37
Hatters	7, 781	16, 125	23, 85
Coppersmiths	6,971		6, 97
Furriers	3,816	5, 347	9, 16
Agricultural workers	468,710	156, 225	8 624, 93
Leather workers	29,319	6, 230	35, 54
Lithographers	18,416	437	18, 85 54, 20
Painters Engineers	53, 820 88, 702	380 116	2 88, 81
Metal workers	1, 425, 483	179, 521	1,605,00
Musicians	44, 907	1,356	46, 26
Foremen on construction work	10,381	2,000	10, 38
Porcelain workers	32,531	21,170	59,70
Saddlers, upholsterers, etc	31,382	5,954	37, 33
Shipwrights	4,976		4, 97
Chimney sweepers	3, 324		3, 32
Shoemakers	53,632	36, 376	: 90,00
Doorkeepers	11,000 44,943	455 795	11, 45 45, 78
Pobacco workers.	25, 325	92, 915	118, 24
Cextile workers.	192, 424	358, 223	550, 64
Potters	10,700	596	11,29
Fransport workers	513, 107	75, 811	588, 91
Pavers (stone)	513, 107 10, 341		10,34
Carpenters	87,024		87, 02
Total, first quarter, 1921	4 6, 308, 000	41,660,590	47, 968, 59
Total, first quarter, 1920	6,003,248	1,694,840	7,698,68
Total, second quarter, 1920.	6, 291, 319 6, 362, 643	1,727,849	8, 019, 16
Total, third quarter, 1920	6, 362, 643	1,674,072	8,036,71
Total, fourth quarter, 1920.	6, 315, 303	1,691,132	8,006,43

¹ Figures for third quarter, 1920. Figures for fourth quarter, 1920.

² Figures for fourth quarter, 1919. ⁴ Preliminary figures.

German Trade-Unions and the High Cost of Living.

IN VIEW of the renewed upward trend of prices of many commodities in Germany during the last few weeks the directorate of the General Federation of German Trade-Unions has issued the following declaration:

A new great wave of high prices is engulfing the German people. At present it finds its most visible expression in the enormous increase in the price of bread. Various other price increases that have taken place during the last few weeks are not less felt than that of the price of bread, and people of small means look forward with greatest apprehension to an enormous increase of their burdens which the next few weeks and months will bring without fail.

During the last winter the trade-unions were strenuously endeavoring to bring about a reduction of prices but they failed in this endeavor. The General Federation of German Trade-Unions has repeatedly used its influence to prevent an increase in the

price of bread. It also failed in this respect.

The trade-unions can, therefore, not be blamed for it if the workers in all industries are now compelled to make renewed demands for considerable wage increases and

enforce these demands with all the means available to organized labor.

As early as April 1 the trade-union representatives in the Central Joint Industrial League had requested the employers' representatives of the same body to take joint action against the impending increase in the price of bread. The employers' representatives could not make up their mind to do so but issued a declaration that "if the price of bread should go up wages would have to be regulated correspondingly unless other necessaries of life have meanwhile fallen in price sufficiently to make up for the increased cost of bread."

Such a fall in prices has, however, failed to materialize; on the contrary, a great increase in prices has either already taken place or is immediately impending.

The trade-unions are fully aware that the wage increases which now have become necessary will once more have the effect of further raising prices. At an earlier date they already energetically emphasized their repugnance against taking an active part in bringing about such a vicious circle. Their efforts to influence the development of matters in such a manner that this vicious circle will finally be broken will be continued with increased energy.

ued with increased energy.

Until, however, this has been effected, there is no other way open to the working people than that of seeking compensation for the progressive rise in prices through sufficient wage increases. The worker must be enabled to live if he is to work. Everybody interested in the conservation and increase of German productive man power should, therefore, actively support the workers and their organizations in their

struggle for a living wage.

Commenting on the above declaration Soziale Praxis says:

In conformity with the above announcement demands for wage increases are being made everywhere not only by manual workers but also by private and public salaried employees. We are gratified and consider it a progress that the social-democratic trade-unions are fully aware that renewed wage increases will cause a further rise in prices and hope that previous experiences in this respect will bring it about that demands for wage increases are not made too frequently and that these demands will be characterized by moderation. We have repeatedly declared that we consider restoration of a fair relation of the wages of the individual occupational groups of the working forces urgently necessary. We consider it, however, our duty to remind the trade-unions once more that they fail to appreciate the seriousness of Germany's economic condition if they do not make it plain to the workers at every suitable opportunity that owing to Germany's defeat in the war they can no longer expect to maintain a prewar standard of living or attain it in the near future. The sooner the masses become cognizant of this grievous truth the surer will German economic and national life be spared disturbances which would only increase the distress of the masses. Germany is to-day staggering into conditions similar to those existing in Austria and Poland, while in England, in spite of general wage reductions, the standard of living of the working classes is much higher than in Germany. Rehabilitation of Germany can only be achieved through great economy and privation. These obvious truths should be drummed into the heads of all workers. No responsible labor leader should to-day act as the sponsor of demands the granting of which would acknowledgedly

¹ Soziale Praxis und Archiv für Volkswohlfahrt. Berlin, Aug. 17, 1921.

make still more disastrous the vicious circle, without at least impressing these truths on the minds of the workers. Instead it frequently happens that labor leaders support the well-paid unmarried workers when they submit computations as to the absolute minimum wage required for their existence.

At the meeting on August 10, 1921, of its executive committee the Union of German Employers' Federations (Vereinigung der Deutschen Arbeitgeberverbände) has considered the above declaration of the General Federation of German Trade-Unions and resolved the following widely circulated statement: 1

It is not correct that the impending increase in the price of bread has caused such an increase in the cost of living that collective wage agreements now in force must be broken, especially since the employers have abstained from demanding a reduction of wages when the cost of living was decreasing and the wage agreements now in force were largely concluded with consideration of a higher cost of living (in January, 1921) than the present.

It is also not true that the increase in the price of other necessaries has been so intensive as to justify the immediate cancellation of collective wage agreements and

the new demands for wage and salary increases.

After acceptance of the ultimatum of the entente the German economic system can no longer maintain a wage policy which is based solely on the cost of living. If on the renewal of collective agreements conditions seem to justify a revision of wage rates there must above all be considered our serious economic situation as it has developed and will still further develop under the pressure of the ultimatum. Among large circles of the population and especially among the working classes there is, however, still lacking a clear understanding that the pressure exercised by the ultimatum of the entente upon German economic life is also lowering the prewar standard of living of the German nation and that without an increase in the output of the individual worker our present standard of living can not be expected to improve for the individual German citizen or for the nation as a whole.

In the future the German economic system will be able to pay higher wages only if simultaneous increase in individual output takes place and the wage policy as well as that of collective bargaining is freed of all regulations restricting production.

Trade-Union Congresses in Great Britain.²

Trades-Union Congress.

HE 53d Annual Trades-Union Congress of the United Kingdom was held at Cardiff, September 5 to 10, with 823 delegates present representing 6,389,123 members, a decrease of more than 100,000 from the membership represented at the 1920 congress.

The main subject for discussion was the question of unemployment, and a composite resolution embodying the main points of the many resolutions on the agenda was carried unanimously. On the ground that it is the duty of the State to provide work or adequate maintenance for every willing worker, the resolution asked that Parliament should immediately be summoned to introduce schemes of work and to remove the inequalities of rating in the London area. Cooperation of the new general council with the political side of the labor movement in order to secure these objects was ordered by the resolution.

A resolution indorsing the coming Washington conference on the limitation of armaments was passed. The congress also expressed sympathy with the Russian people and the general council was authorized "to use the whole power of organized British labor" to prevail

Soziale Praxis und Archiv für Volkswohlfahrt. Berlin, Aug. 24, 1921.
 Labour Gazette, London, September, 1921, pp. 456, 457.

upon the Government to furnish them with medical supplies, raw materials, and money credits. Other matters relating to the internal organization of the trades-union movement, such as the central control of industrial disputes and disputes between different unions and the demand for an inquiry into the failure of the Triple Alliance to act in the coal strike, were either rejected by the congress or were not brought up for discussion. The constitution of a national joint council, representing the general council of the Trades-Union Congress, the executive committee of the Labor Party, and the Parliamentary Party was approved.

Miners' Federation Conference.

THE annual conference of the Miners' Federation was held at Llandudno August 17 to 19. The principal topic for discussion was the recent coal strike and the failure of the Triple Alliance to assist the miners. Resolutions were passed urging the enactment of workmen's compensation legislation on the lines of the "Holman Gregory report"; the nationalization of the coal-mining industry; the necessity for pit-head baths; and the introduction of a two-weeks' vacation with pay. Other demands for a maximum working week of five shifts, a national 6-hour day, and abolition of the piecework system were abandoned for the present owing to the economic condition of the industry.

Other Conferences.

THE annual conference of the National Federation of General Workers was held at Blackpool August 18. In connection with an address dealing mainly with the coal strike, Mr. J. R. Clynes, M. P., president of the federation, agreed with other trades-union leaders in expressing belief in the futility of strike action at the present time. The most important resolutions passed by the conference were those advocating the eventual formation of one large union for all workers, and pledging the assistance of the conference in the efforts of the agricultural workers' unions to maintain the Agricultural Wages Board.

The Municipal Employees' Association at its conference in London the last of August passed a resolution to the effect that the utility and continuance of industrial councils depended upon the whole-hearted cooperation of employers and employees and the complete observance by both parties of the decisions and agreement.

International Congresses.

Ninth International Congress of Metal Workers.1

THE international congress of the Metal Workers' Federation was held at Lucerne, Switzerland, August 8 to 14, 1921. There were 62 delegates present, representing 15 nations and approximately 3,260,000 workers. Prior to the war the federation, which had been first under English domination and later under German, had

¹ L'Information Sociale. Paris, Aug. 28, Sept. 1, 4, 8, 1921.

grown rapidly, although it had up to that time confined itself exclu-

sively to the administrative field.

During the war an attempt was made to transfer the seat of the federation to a neutral country, but this attempt failed, and all relations between the different national metal workers' organizations became impossible. International relations were resumed in August, 1920, at the Copenhagen congress of the federation, where 11 countries

were represented.

During the past year voluntary contributions have been taken among the different member organizations for the assistance of members in countries in which the metal workers were engaged in widespread labor conflicts. These subscriptions amounted to 254,572 marks (\$49,132, par) for Finland, 3,358,137 crowns (\$680,359, par) for Hungary, and smaller contributions for workers in Luxemburg, Norway, and Denmark. The question of voluntary subscriptions raised considerable discussion in the congress, a resolution favoring an appeal by the central bureau to all national federations when strike movements were in danger of losing because of lack of funds being especially opposed by the English delegates, who objected to the provision on the ground that it was necessary to submit it to their members for a vote and also because, through the widespread unemployment, the English unions were already in a critical condition. The resolution as finally passed provided that such a levy should be made in any strike or lockout which included 40 per cent of the workers in a national organization if two-thirds of the international secretariat were in favor of it. The English were temporarily exempted from this provision pending the result of a vote upon the question by the various unions affiliated to the national organiza-The amendment to the constitution placing the international organization on a definitely militant footing was adopted after much discussion. This article stated that the purpose of the federation is to develop solidarity and unity among the metal workers of all countries in order to obtain the most favorable wages and working conditions possible as well as to prepare the working class to take possession of production.

A resolution was adopted protesting against the course adopted by the Hungarian Government, which obliged Hungarian workers who had occupied public office under the régime of Bela-Kun and who were released under the general amnesty to political prisoners, to reside in Russia. A resolution in regard to the eight-hour day urged national organizations to insist upon the eight-hour day as the maximum and to oppose all overtime and also advocated a "systematic scheme of education among adhering organizations upon the necessity of replacing the capitalist system by a socialist order of society, since it is only by the introduction of a socialist system that

the miseries of the working class can be brought to an end."

The resolution carrying with it the most far-reaching possibilities, however, was the one proposed by the American International Association of Machinists and the Italian Metal Workers' Federation. The resolution which was unanimously adopted is as follows:

The Ninth International Congress of Metal Workers calls the attention of all affiliated organizations in all countries to the resolution passed on August 23, 1920, by the Eighth International Congress of Metal Workers, which defines their duty in case of war as follows:

Recognizing the community of proletarian interests and necessity for solidarity of

action with the Amsterdam International:

The Eighth Congress of Metal Workers urges all countries to prove their active solidarity with their class comrades by refusing to manufacture arms, munitions, or war materials of any kind, by watching the carrying out of orders and supporting the

transport and railway workers in their refusal to transport troops, arms, and munitions.

The ninth congress in session at Lucerne, August 10, 1921, confirms this part of the resolution of Copenhagen and urges all metal workers of all countries to pursue, in strict union with all the working class, the struggle against capitalism and militarism in order that workers engaged in the manufacture of munitions or materials of war may be occupied in work serving the good of civilization and the interests of the working

For this reason the congress makes it obligatory on all affiliated organizations to intensify the propaganda having for its purpose the gradual transformation of manufactures of war into those of peace. It authorizes the international secretariat to make a statistical investigation into the actual number of workers in each nation

engaged in the manufacture of arms, munitions, and other war materials.

The ninth congress makes it an obligation for each nation to furnish such information to the international metal workers' secretariat, specifying the kind of goods manufactured, ammunition, guns, cannon, airships, warships, etc., and indicating the number of workers occupied in each of these industries and the strength of their

organization.

Also, the minth congress recalls that the Copenhagen resolution urges metal workers of the entire world to respond to every appeal of the Amsterdam International Federation of Trade-Unions in favor of action against war. The congress reaffirms this resolution, convinced that only the unity and determination of the working class can prevent future war.

International Congress of Nonmanual Workers.1

THE International Federation of Nonmanual Workers met in Vienna, August 10 to 12, with delegates from 11 European countries present. This federation, formerly the International Secretariat of Commercial Employees, was founded in 1904 and has developed since the war into a federation affiliated to the Amsterdam International. Labor legislation and the protection of workers were the principal topics before the congress for consideration. A resolution concerning the position of unions of nonmanual workers in private enterprises in Jugo-Slavia and another in favor of international action for the assistance of the starving Russians were passed. Resolutions on the unification of labor legislation in all countries and on the question of emigration were referred to the federal committee for report at the next congress.

International Congress of Intellectual Workers.1

THIS congress met at Brussels on August 20, being the opening congress of the Brussels International Fortnight. Questions considered were the international organization of intellectual work with a view to assisting intellectual workers in all countries in their personal work and in promoting the progress of science and the organization of intellectual workers for the defense of their economic

The congress also considered measures for securing the support of the League of Nations and instructed the Union of International Associations to approach the League with the view of developing the organization of intellectual work on an international scale.

¹ International Labor Office. Daily Intelligence. September 2, 1921, p. 3; September 6, 1921, pp. 4, 5; September 9, 1921, pp. 6, 7.

representative of the International Labor Office who was present stated to the congress that there was nothing in the constitution of the international labor organization which would prevent its dealing with intellectual workers, although he made the statement under reservation of the opinion of the Governing Body, which has not yet defined its attitude. A resolution passed by the congress instructed the Confederation of Intellectual Workers to organize propaganda in the various countries with the view to constituting in every country an international organization of intellectual workers affiliated to the International Confederation and also instructed the Union of International Associations to communicate immediately with the League of Nations and the International Labor Office in regard to such organization.

International Congress of Stone Workers.1

THE national federations affiliated to the International Secretariat of Stone Workers held their first international congress since 1913 at Innsbruck, August 21 to 23, with eight countries represented. A resolution submitted by the Italian delegation favoring fusion with the International Building Operatives' Federation was rejected and admission of a Russian delegation was refused, after which the Italian delegation withdrew from the congress in accordance with a resolution adopted previously at a congress of the Italian Workers' Federation.

The congress adopted a resolution instructing the national organizations to request their Governments to issue special regulations at once for the protection of stone workers, including compulsory medical examination of apprentices, prevention of dust, prohibition of the employment of young persons or women on certain kinds of stone cutting, introduction of rest periods and vacations with pay, abolition of piecework or at least its regulation with the guaranty of a minimum wage. Other resolutions advocated strict observance of the eight-hour day and Saturday half holidays, no overtime, and supply of tools by employers free of charge, and favored the present system of the federations of concluding national labor agreements, which the congress recommended should be for a period of at least one year.

¹International Labor Office. Daily Intelligence. September 2, 1921, p. 3; September 6, 1921, pp. 4,5; September 9, 1921, pp. 6, 7.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.

Industrial Disputes in India.

A recent report from the American consul at Calcutta, India, contains statistics regarding industrial disputes in India for the first quarter of 1921 as prepared by the recently established Indian Labor Bureau. By way of explanation of the figures submitted it should be pointed out that while every endeavor was made to secure accuracy, means for absolutely reliable statistics taking are not yet operative in all Provinces. For this reason the figures regarding persons employed and days lost are only approximate in many cases. The demands in each dispute are based upon the main demand made. Strikes listed under "personnel" include those which had for their chief object the reinstatement or dismissal of an employee. Disputes are shown as successful if the workers' demands were granted in full. In the strikes for higher wages, however, the workers frequently demanded more than they expected to secure, and therefore a large number of the compromised strikes should be regarded as successful.

NUMBER OF INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES IN INDIA, JANUARY TO MARCH, 1921, PERSONS INVOLVED, DAYS LOST, DEMANDS, AND RESULTS, BY INDUSTRIES.

					I	emai	nds.		Results.				
Industry.	Num- ber of dis- putes.	Days lost.	Pay.	Bo- nus.	Per- son- nel.	Leave and hours.	Oth- ers.	Suc- cess- ful.	Partial- ly suc- cess- ful.	Un- suc- cess-	Not known.	In progress	
Cotton and woolen													
mills	27	35, 434	394, 308	9	7	10		1	9	4	13		1
Jute mills	9	38, 300	168,700	2		3	2	2	1	3	4	1	
Engineering works.	13	18,011	345, 365	11	1			1		5	7	1	
Railways (includ-				-							-	-	
ing workshops)	10	27, 310	805, 710	7				3		1 7	5	1	
Mines	8	15, 812	82,058	8						1			
Framways, taxis,	-	0 170	140 000	0	2			0		5	2		
and carriages	7	8,170	146, 850	3 3	2			3		6	2		
Municipal	6 5 5 5	5, 406	16, 518					1		1			
Printing presses	5	1,366	43, 578	4 4 3 1				1	1	1	1		
Shipping and docks.	b	6,340	33, 734	4	1				2	1	3		
Unskilled laborers	5	2, 199	2, 249	3	1		1		2		0		
Tanneries	3	4, 225	121, 250		2					1			
Oil works	3	10,743	145, 820	2	1					2	1		
Posts, telegraphs,			20 000					0		0	4		
and telephones	3	925	20, 355	1				2 2		2	1		
Ordnance factories.	2	6,500	205,000					2			1		
Digarettes and birus						M 3							
makers	2	1,300	24,700	2 4						2 2			
Miscellaneous 1	8	3, 210	34, 130	4	2	1		1		2	3	3	
Total	116	185, 251	2, 590, 325	64	17	14	3	18	13	42	42	6	13

⁴ Includes a sugar mill, a paper mill, three rice mills, a shellac factory, and a tailoring establishmen.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION.

Industrial Court of Great Britain.

An article published in International Labor Review, July-August, 1921, the president of the British Industrial Court, Sir William Mackenzie, declares that the purpose of the Industrial Courts Act of 1919 in providing arbitration facilities seems to be to give the parties in controversy as much leeway as possible regarding the kind of tribunal to which their differences should be referred. Under the act a dispute may be submitted to the Industrial Court or to one or more persons appointed by the minister of labor, or to a board of arbitration formed for this purpose, consisting of one or more persons nominated by the employers and a similar number nominated by the workmen, with an independent chairman nominated by the minister. These last two methods were already open to industrial disputants through the provisions of the Conciliation Act. The unique feature of the Industrial Courts Act is the provision for a permanent industrial tribunal.

The Industrial Court at present consists of thirteen persons. Of these, four, including the president, are designated as "independent persons," others as "representing employers," others as "representing workmen," while two are women members. It is not the practice for the whole court to hear any one case. The usual procedure is for each case to be heard by a division of the court, consisting of the president or a chairman as an "independent person" and other members "representing employers" and "representing workmen" respectively. If women are, or are likely to be, affected, a woman member is also usually added. This system is subject to variation with circumstances, and cases are not infrequent where a member of the court will sit alone. The constitution of a division of the court is in the discretion of the president.

The minister of labor appoints the members of the court, which, however, is a wholly independent body, subject to neither Government control nor influence. London is the chief seat of the court, but sessions are also held from time to time in other industrial centers in England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland.

The court functions in an advisory and consultative capacity as well as judicially. The minister of labor may refer matters to this

tribunal for opinion whenever he deems advisable.

In addition to the previous broad experience of some of its members, the court accumulates most valuable knowledge of industrial affairs, and consequently is generally able to understand the technical problems brought before it. The aid of assessors is sometimes invited by the president, and they are usually nominated by the parties to the dispute. These assessors deliberate with the court after the case is heard, but do not share in the responsibility of the court's decisions. Their services have been exceedingly valuable in highly technical cases.

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¹ See Monthly Labor Review, February (pp. 41-46), March (p. 201), and May (pp. 54-62), 1920.

No fees are charged by the court, and it awards no "costs." The opposing sides may be allowed legal representatives, but ordinarily the case is stated by the interested parties or by an official of the employers' association or trade-union. Oaths are not required in giving evidence, and witnesses are not forced to attend as in the civil courts.

The court has handed down approximately 650 decisions from the date of its creation, December, 1919, to the close of May, 1921. The cases involved various classes of workers from railway employees to makers of canvas hose pipe and from town clerks and other local Government officials to bobbin and shuttle makers. Cases covering the engineering and shipbuilding trades, the iron and steel trade, the building trades, and transportation predominate in numbers. Even some cases in the cotton and woolen and mining industries, which have their own highly-developed methods for the adjustment of labor controversies, have been referred to the court.

Straightforward claims for wage increases or reductions constitute the chief matter for the court's adjudication. However, other questions, frequently of a very complex nature, concerning working conditions and interpretation of trade agreements and such subjects, are also submitted for decision.

Both parties to the controversy voluntarily agree to refer their difference, and the carrying out of the award depends upon their "honor and civic sense." The number of awards repudiated by the losing side has been "almost negligible." Parliamentary debates on the bill for the industrial court are evidence that in normal times public opinion in Great Britain "holds the disadvantages of compulsory arbitration to be greater than the advantages." The president of the court says:

There is no doubt that liberty to settle, even by means of strikes and lockouts, the terms on which labor shall be employed is jealously regarded; but even if this highly valued right were given up, there still remains the difficulty of devising satisfactory sanctions or penalties which compulsory arbitration implies. Experience during the war shows that it is not always easy to translate the penalties attaching to industrial obligations from paper to practice.

Attention has already been called to the permanent character of the court. The defects of the previous system of appointing single arbitrators as occasion demanded were suggested by Sir Robert Horne, when minister of labor, in the following statement made in connection with the industrial courts bill:

"You want indeed," he said, "a body of people who are able to take a comprehensive view of the labor question and, in particular, who are able to take a comprehensive view of the wages question. Every set of wages in every trade is related in some degree to every set of wages in every other trade. You can not dissociate what is decided in one case from what may be asked in another case. Therefore, it would be futile to have a court ad hoc for each case that might come up, because then you would get a series of dissociated judgments, which would have no relation to each other and which would tend to cause confusion where you hoped for harmony."

While arbitration would be unacceptable if the parties in dispute thought their particular case was not to be decided on its merits but on some remote precedent of which they had no knowledge, yet the award's reactions and direct consequences must be kept in mind in making a decision if some semblance of industrial peace is to be reached. "It may be well said that a standing tribunal is likely to

be more conscious of this fact than a single arbitrator."

The president of the court considers industrial arbitration "a plant of tender growth." He believes, however, that the industrial court may reasonably be expected to shape and express the increasing sense of social justice and "to establish a recognized body of principles by which industrial questions can be judged." He warns, however, "that ambition may easily overreach itself in this matter," and concludes with the following statement:

All law is the result of a process of crystallizing the good sense of mankind into definite rules. But what has been so slow in the matter of the common and criminal law can not be effected by hasty generalizations in the sphere of industrial relationships, where the matters at issue often represent a tangle in which law, ethics, economics, and politics are inextricably interwoven.

COOPERATION.

Progress of Cooperation Abroad.

Canada (Saskatchewan).

N ADVANCE account of the annual report of the cooperation and markets branch of the Saskatchewan Department of Agriculture for the year ending April 30, 1921, is contained in the August, 1921, number of the Public Service Monthly. According to this account, the year 1920 was one of the hardest on cooperative associations in the whole history of the movement. But notwithstanding the difficulties, the total turnover of the associations showed an increase and in practically every phase of the activities of the societies progress was made. The number of shareholders in the agricultural associations of the Province is now 18,894. paid-in capital has increased from \$362,252 in 1920 to \$466,009 in the year under report. During 1921, 54 associations marketing live stock shipped 912 cars, the receipts from which amounted to \$1,429,309. The value of farm products marketed through the associations amounted to \$80,220, a decrease from the preceding year, due to the slump in the prices of all farm products. The total value of the supplies sold amounted to \$5,885,386, while the aggregate turnover of the associations, including live stock, increased from \$6,189,591 to \$7,314,695.

Czechoslovakia.

THE annual report for 1920 of the Czecho-Slovak Wholesale Society is summarized in the July-August, 1921, number of the International Cooperative Bulletin. According to this summary the membership of the wholesale society numbered 722 retail societies, having 585,131 individual members and supplying 2,260,644 persons. The majority of the cooperators are of the working classes.

Economic difficulties, including a shortage of foodstuffs, hampered the society during the year. In spite of this a considerable amount

of business was done, as is shown in the following table:

GROWTH OF CZECHO-SLOVAK WHOLESALE SOCIETY, 1912 TO 1920.

[Crown at par = 20.3 cents.]

Year	Amount of business.	Share capital.	Deposits.	Net profit.	Dividends returned.
1912	Crowns. 8, 493, 634 23, 242, 576 1, 345, 521, 022 4, 195, 048, 677	Crowns. 95, 761 200, 000 816, 332 3, 698, 357	Crowns. 200, 884 309, 166 1, 067, 856 4, 655, 082	Crowns, 23, 900 66, 236 2, 145, 333 2, 385, 620	Crowns. 9,071 21,715 1,087,192

The cooperative productive societies of the country supplied the wholesale society with goods to the amount of 542,887 crowns (\$110,206, par). These supplies were supplemented by goods produced by the wholesale itself. The society operates a spice mill, a broom factory, and a factory for producing coffee substitutes. Its clothing factory produced clothing, during the year, exceeding

5,000,000 crowns (\$1,015,000, par) in value.

Further, the society has a special coal and textile department. It does not own any mines but arranges the supply of coal to the cooperative bakeries. The coal department has not an unrestricted supply of coal, since this is distributed by the State. Hence it could not satisfy all the demands of the cooperative societies in question. During the last period these demanded 11,304 tons of coal and were supplied with only 4,613 tons. The remainder was obtained privately.

As it was impossible to obtain all necessary goods in Czechoslovakia, the stocks were supplemented by imports. But the unstable exchange conditions and high prices did not allow the society to buy a sufficient quantity of produce from abroad, and therefore it

restricted itself to the most necessary things.

Union of German Provident Societies.

Of the 3,500,000 Germans living in Czechoslovakia, it is stated, 1,500,000 are supplied by the Wholesale Society of the Union of German Provident Societies at Prague. The business done by the society during the calendar year 1920 reached the sum of 403,453,635 crowns (\$81,901,088, par).

The following table shows the statistics of operation for the fiscal year 1919–20 of the societies in membership with the Union of German Provident Societies in Czechoslovakia, as compared with the

year before:

STATISTICS OF OPERATION OF MEMBERS OF UNION OF GERMAN PROVIDENT SOCI-ETIES IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA, 1918-19 AND 1919-20.

[Crown	at par=	20.3	cents.
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Item.	1918-19	1919-20
Number of societies	194 182, 336 166, 341, 829 5, 125, 397	219 236, 174 331, 405, 465 9, 475, 275

France.1

DURING the last year the cooperative movement in the devastated regions of France has made considerable progress; in fact, at the present time the greater part of reconstruction work is executed by such societies. Both the Government and the population of the devastated localities have found these methods of the greatest practical value. Furthermore, the Government encourages their organization and development.

¹ From U. S. Commerce Reports, Washington, May 6, 1921, p. 737.

Since the beginning of 1919, 203 cooperative societies have been organized in the Department of the Meurthe-et-Moselle. They have already obtained important results. On December 31, 1920, urgent repairs had been made on approximately 12,000 buildings. The sums disbursed for these repairs amounted to 124,430,000 francs (\$24,014,990, par), or 81 per cent of the total sum paid out for this purpose in the Department. In 1920 the cooperative societies commenced the building of 621 farm buildings, or 88 per cent of the total in the Department. The sums disbursed for the above purposes amounted to 20,250,000 francs (\$3,908,250, par), or 95 per cent of the total.

Poland.

A CCORDING to an article in the April, 1921, issue of the International Labor Review, one of the first acts passed by the Polish Diet applicable to the whole of Poland as now constituted related to cooperation. This article shows that the number of societies rose from 100 in 1904 to 4,000 in 1920, and the number of cooperators from 10,000 to 1,300,000. "If we calculate that each member represents on an average a family of four, the 1,300,000 members of Polish consumers' cooperative societies represent a population of 5,000,000 persons obtaining their supplies from cooperative societies, i. e., 20 per cent of the population."

The cooperative societies are scattered, however, due to the "rural character of part of the movement" and the poor means of communication in Poland. An endeavor is being made, through written and oral propaganda to fuse small neighboring societies and to form large societies with branches. A number of these have already been

There are also about 30 local and district federations having in membership about 60 societies each, and in addition four national federations having a combined membership of 1,037 societies and maintaining relations with 1,960 other societies not members.

Sweden.

ACCORDING to a consular report of July 28, 1921, the cooperative movement in Sweden now includes 948 district societies, with an aggregate membership of 408,574. On December 31, 1920, the capital of the societies aggregated 25,840,000 kroner (\$6,925,120, par).

In 1920 the purchasing department of the union into which these societies are federated bought goods amounting to 69,500,000 kroner (\$18,626,000, par), an increase of 370,000 kroner (\$99,160, par) over 1919.

A year ago the union organized a factory for the manufacture of chemical products as well as an establishment for the packing of spices in small lots. A large margarine factory also is now in process of construction. The savings bank of the union had at the end of 1920 25,000 depositors—the total deposit at that time being 10,909,000 kroner (\$2,923,612, par).

In connection with similar organizations in Denmark and Norway, a federation has been organized whose province it is to buy directly in producing countries such foodstuffs as are needed by the various affiliated societies, its headquarters being at Copenhagen with a branch at London. Its purchases in 1920 amounted to 11,200,000 kroner (\$3,001,600, par). This federation, in addition to dealing in foodstuffs, likewise distributes needed agricultural implements to the members, besides seeking markets for their agricultural products. The Swedish Union with a subvention from the Government has been able to furnish fertilizers, seed, and cattle food to the members as well as to assist the dairy farmers to find markets for their products.

Switzerland.

FIGURES given in the 1920 report of the Union of Swiss Cooperative Societies 1 show that during the three years 1918, 1919, and 1920 the growth of the union has been as follows:

GROWTH OF UNION OF SWISS COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES, 1918 TO 1920.

[Franc at par=19.3 cents.]

Item.	1918	1919	1920
Number of member societies. Amount of share capital fr. Receive fund fr. Sales fr. Net surplus fr.	461 1, 342, 200 2, 500, 000 129, 719, 746 1, 053, 472	1, 428, 600 2, 800, 000 141, 441, 837 814, 608	1, 482, 800 3, 000, 000 172, 028, 668 345, 210

¹ Verband schweiz, Konsumvereine (V. S. K.) Basel. Rapports et comptes concernant l'activité des organes de l'Union en 1920. Basel, 1921.

WHAT STATE LABOR BUREAUS ARE DOING.

Massachusetts. 1

ASA result of the reorganization of State offices, the Massachusetts Board of Conciliation and Arbitration has been transferred to the Department of Labor and Industries, the powers, duties, and obligations of the board to be exercised by the three associate commissioners of the department. The functions of the board, which remain the same, are three in number—(1) conciliation, (2) arbitration, and (3) investigation. The jurisdiction of the board extends also to the matter of normality petitions and of hearings on the removal, suspension, and transfer of veterans in the employ of the State:

During its year's work the board considered a total of 386 arbitration and normality cases. Of the 25 normality cases filed, 24 were acted upon and 1 was abandoned. Decisions were rendered in 333 arbitration cases. In 2 instances recommendations were accepted in lieu of decisions; 12 applications are still pending; and 19 cases were settled by the parties, withdrawn, or abandoned.

A total of 60 conciliation cases were considered by the board: 31 of these were settled through conciliatory efforts of the board, 5 were submitted to arbitration, and the other 24 cases are still pending. In addition 59 cases have been filed.

The work of the board increased greatly during the year, especially in arbitration cases. The board attributes this increase to the fact that both employer and employee more and more recognize that arbitration offers a just and equitable method of adjusting differences.

In the arbitration cases handled by the board the following industries were affected and issues arbitrated: Baking (wages); bookbinding (distribution of work); box making (discharge); brewery (discharge); building (wages); gas and electric light plant (wages); hotel (wages); last making (wages); motors (wages, classification of employees); poultry dealers (wages and hours); shoemaking (wages, wages and hours, date of agreement, discharge, measurement of heels); tack making (wages).

The principal differences involved in the conciliation cases were as follows: Closed shop, distribution of work, discharge, discontinuance of a department, discontinuance of bonus, employment of nonunion men, factory conditions, hours, individual contracts, new agreement,

recognition of union, etc., refusal to negotiate, and wages.

In addition to the outline of the powers, duties, and functions of the board, and the summary of its activities during the year, the report contains a list of the petitioners in normality cases and the action taken in each case, together with a complete file of the board's decisions issued during the year.

¹ Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries, Board of Conciliation and Arbitration. Annual report, 1920. Boston, 1921, 212 pp.

New Jersey.

THE Commissioner of Labor of New Jersey, in the foreword to the report of the Department of Labor for the year ending June 30, 1920, states that the most notable development of the department's policy during the past year has been the establishment of a State Industrial Safety Museum in Jersey City.

In a building admirably constructed for the purpose, there is being installed one of the most comprehensive machine safeguarding, fire prevention, lighting, and industrial relations and welfare exhibits in the country. These, in conjunction with workmen's compensation hearings, and a rehabilitation clinic and employment service under the same roof, together with an auxiliary safety local lecture service throughout the State, promise unique facilities for this first clearing house for the reduction of State industrial and public accident and fire losses.

The museum is to have a complete technical and shop library service, which will be particularly valuable to foremen, engineers,

and factory managers.

The commissioner in his report emphasizes the need for the most stringent regulations relative to fire prevention in productive plants, and states that the department is "cooperating to the fullest with the National Board of Fire Underwriters to make the year 1920 show a marked decrease in the phenomenal fire losses of the past 18 months."

Protection of Women.

Attention is called in the report to the difficulty in discovering violations of the 10-hour law when there is collusion between the employer and employee to render official inspection futile. The commissioner urges "a prohibition of employment of women for more than a specified number of hours within a given maximum of hours, thereby eliminating all opportunity for an undue amount of overtime."

The whole question of the protection of women in the State of New Jersey shows no advance ¹ over the status which has existed for some years past, in contradistinction to the general trend of legislation in competing industrial States where the shorter working hour for women has proved itself of economic value. The Department can but repeat its appeal of the past five years for investigation by our legislature of the sound arguments advanced throughout the East and Middle West for the legal curtailment of the 10-hour law as being out of harmony with the best standards of competitive industry. The nearly uniform decrease of the working-day has been the result of experience as to better timekeeping and preservation of physical efficiency evidenced where the weekly tax upon the woman operative has been reduced. Since the war's excessive demands upon women's vitality, we have authoritative data to prove that the reduction of the workday need not be attributed either to false sentiment or indifference to the best interests of the manufacturer or employees.

Bureau of Hygiene and Sanitation.

In the report of the bureau of hygiene and sanitation it is stated that between 1909 and 1913, among hatters of all ages over 10 years, deaths from tuberculosis of the lungs constituted 29.7 per cent of the deaths from all causes; in the period 1914 to 1918 deaths from tuberculosis constituted 23.5 per cent, a decrease of 20.9 per cent. Among metal grinders of all ages over 10 years, for the same periods the percentages of deaths from tuberculosis were 39.2 and 29.1, respectively, or a decrease of 25.8 per cent.

¹The law was amended Apr. 8, 1921, to limit hours of work for women per week to 54.

Practically all kinds of dust-generating machines in the State now have dust removal installations. Nearly all of the commercial laundries and printing establishments have installed standard ventilation equipment. The department's general standards of ventilation "have been accepted with practical unanimity" by the incandescent lamp manufacturing corporations of the State.

During the year covered the following cases of occupational diseases

were reported to the bureau of hygiene and sanitation:

		-		-	ases.
Lead poisoning					
Mercury poisoning					
Anthrax poisoning	 				5
Nitro and amido poisoning	 				23

The practice of holding hearings on orders not complied with has been instituted by the above-mentioned bureau. During the year covered by the report approximately 400 persons were summoned to appear before the chief of the bureau to show cause for not having complied with department orders on sanitation and hygiene. It was found that in almost all cases employers were quite willing to cooperate with the bureau when the purport and extent of the ignored official orders were explained to them. The results of these conferences are reported as "most gratifying."

Among the other activities of the chief of the bureau of hygiene and sanitation has been the organization of safety locals in different parts of the State and service on the joint committee on safety codes, which was organized by the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, the United States Bureau of

Standards, and the National Safety Council.

In the year ending June 30, 1920, "not a single operative employed in or about a mine lost his life during the course of his employment." In the preceding year 17 miners lost their lives in the course of their employment. The report states that "such a decided change in working conditions is not the result of chance and must be attributed to the safer operation of the mines."

Industrial Accidents.

The report of the workmen's compensation bureau, which deals with industrial accidents, is summarized on pages 170 and 171.

Employment Service.

At the time the report was made the department of labor was planning the coordination of the work of the compensation administration, the rehabilitation commission, and the employment service, and the establishment in each industrial community of a center where all the work connected with the industrial life might be promoted. During the year 1919-20, 219,677 placements were made by employment offices in 15 New Jersey cities. The support of the Federal Government was largely withdrawn in the year 1919-20, but through the "generous cooperation and the financial assistance of the cities of Newark, Jersey City, Perth Amboy, and Camden" the situation created by this withdrawal was considerably improved.

Child Labor Division.

According to the report from the child labor division, there were 19,639 age and schooling certificates issued during the year ending June 30, 1920. An examination of the figures in this connection for several previous years shows that about 20,000 children leave school annually to go to work. The records of the division show that for the above-mentioned period "the department ordered the discharge of 246 children working in manufacturing establishments, where the employment was not in accordance with the requirements of the law."

Negro Welfare Bureau.

The work of the Negro welfare bureau, which had no special appropriation, was limited to such voluntary cooperation as the bureau chief could secure, the employment service doing some work in this connection.

Ohio.

THE report of the Industrial Commission of Ohio for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1920, is included in Volume VI, Ohio General Statistics (1920), prepared and published by the secretary of state. The following data are taken from the section of the report which deals with the activities of the department of investigation and statistics of the commission:

YEARLY REPORT OF STATE-CITY FREE EMPLOYMENT OFFICES, JULY 1, 1919, TO JULY 1, 1920.

Sex.	New registrations.	Renewals.	Total applications.	Help wanted.	Referred.	Reported placed.				
MaleFemale	120, 787 19, 668	180, 915 103, 975	301,702 123,643	295, 294 129, 201	228, 125 103, 101	192,735 90,106				
Total	140, 455	284, 890	425, 345	424, 495	331, 226	282, 841				

Private Employment Offices.

A new law has recently given to the industrial commission authority "to regulate the fees to be charged by private agencies." The report states that no attempt has yet (June 30, 1920) been made at such regulation. The following figures as to licenses are submitted by the employment division:

New licenses issued	22
Renewals	38
Lapsed	10
Revoked	1
Denied	2
Total number of private labor exchanges in operation	60

Division of Mediation and Arbitrations.

The chief mediator or his deputies, during the period which the report covers, used their good offices in the settlement of 12 controversies. A local investigation was also made during the steel strike,

but because of the national character of this disturbance no attempt was made by the State office to bring about a settlement.

A number of agreements entered into between employers and employees stipulate that in the event that their grievances go to arbitrators, and the arbitrators appointed by the different parties involved fail to agree upon a third man, the Industrial Commission of Ohio shall, in that case, make the nomination. We have had five requests for this service which were granted.

Department of Inspection.

In the section of the commission's report which concerns the department of inspection it is stated that as a result of inspections made during the year by the force of field deputies 10,790 orders for changes and improvements relative to sanitation and safety in these establishments were issued. To bring about compliance with these orders, approximately 10,000 revisits and reinspections were required.

Child Labor.

During the period for which the report is made there were still numerous violations of the laws relating to the employment of children despite special efforts to enforce such laws. It is stated that the number of inspectors is inadequate for the work, and that there is a lack of cooperation on the part of school officials. There were 196 cases prosecuted during the year covered, for the following violations:

Employing minors under age	81
Employing minors without certificates	65
Employing boys and girls in excess of hours allowed by law	15
Employing minors before and after hours.	19
Miscellaneous	16

Female Labor

The new law prohibiting the employment of females in certain occupations in the State became effective September 5, 1919, and is reported as being fairly well observed.

During the year legal proceedings were found to be necessary in 22 cases for employing females for more than 9 hours per day and 50 hours per week and in 31 cases for employing females more than 6 days per week.

During the past year repeated complaints have been made regarding the long hours required of females in business offices. There are no restrictions in the present laws as to the hours of labor for females over 21 years of age employed in strictly office work and as a result the women engaged in these occupations are quite frequently compelled to work excessive hours, in some instances as high as 70 hours per week. As the working conditions of the office girl are no better in many cases than that of the factory girl, there is no reason why the law regulating the hours of labor for females should not apply to offices, and it is recommended that section 1008 of the General Code be amended so as to include offices and office work in the enumeration of establishments and occupations to which its provisions are applicable.

Division of Safety.

Within the fiscal year ending June 30, 1920, a lighting code was adopted by the commission as a standard for inspection for the division of workshops, factories, and public buildings; a code for the construction and arrangement of garages was compiled, copies of

which were mailed to the mayors throughout the State; a code on ventilation and sanitation was practically completed; the construction, chains, cranes, and emery wheel codes were worked on, and some preliminary steps taken in connection with the preparation of the fire prevention code, the electrical code, and the intraplant railroad code. "The department has also cooperated with various national agencies in the development of national codes."

The division of safety has taken steps to inaugurate the teaching of safety in the Ohio grade schools. Another important development of the work of the division is "the fostering of local councils of the National Safety Council in the larger communities of the State."

The bimonthly safety bulletin of the division not only keeps employers informed regarding code work and other work of the commission but points out their duty as to accident prevention and shows them how to carry on accident prevention work.

Division of Mines.

The division of mines reports 147 fatal accidents during the year ending June 30, 1920, which number in proportion to the tonnage produced was considerably higher than in the previous year. There were 41 fatal accidents in Jefferson County alone—20 of these occurring in the greatest mine disaster the State ever experienced.

Workmen's Compensation Department.

A digest of the report of this department of the industrial commission is given on pages 171 to 173 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

New Semiofficial Safety Publication in Oregon.

THE Oregon Safety News, published jointly by the Oregon and Columbia Basin Division of the National Safety Council, the State Bureau of Labor, and the State Industrial Accident Commission, made its first appearance in August, 1921. The object of the new organ is "to promote safety in the industries of Oregon." Through this cooperative enterprise it is hoped to come nearer to knowing what should be done than if the three above-mentioned agencies were each working alone.

Employers will have experiences and will solve problems in a way that others will be glad to learn; superintendents, foremen, and workmen, because they are in close touch with the actual working conditions, can be of the greatest assistance; the National Safety Council, which is simply a volunteer cooperative organization of employers who have joined in this common purpose, has a broader contact, and hence a wider experience than the individual has; the industrial accident commission and the labor commissioner are in position to digest the material received from all the industries of the State.

It is declared that by taking advantage of this cooperative movement Oregonians will save lives, limbs, health, material, and equipment, reduce insurance and production costs, and increase production. The initial number of Safety News carries a safety directory of employers who have notified the State Industrial Accident Commission that they will comply with the "provisions established for work in accident prevention as authorized by a recent amendment to the workmen's compensation law." Another section of the publication is devoted to the activities of the State safety committees. There is also a report of recent fatal accidents.

Texas.

THE Commissioner of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of Texas in a letter under date of September 20, 1921, transmitted, along with other information, the following statement regarding the work of his office during the first six months (Feb. 1 to Aug. 1, 1921), of the present administration:

Cities visited	105
Total inspections	1,850
Total employees in places inspected	
Orders issued for correction of violations	406

The bureau of labor statistics is collecting and compiling certain data regarding the present labor laws and the need for new ones. It is expected that these data will be available at the time of the convening of the next legislature.

CURRENT NOTES OF INTEREST TO LABOR.

Labor Clearing House at Spokane.1

A LABOR clearing house is being established in Spokane for the coming winter at the instigation of the chairman of the employment committee of the local chamber of commerce. In addition to the chamber of commerce the movement is backed by the city commissioners, labor unions, industrial organizations, labor agencies, employers' organizations, and various societies, lodges, and clubs. The city commissioners will direct the work.

It is proposed that employers shall register their need for help with the clearing house and all men and women in need of work will also be expected to register there and have their personal qualifications recorded. It is thought that there will not be sufficient work next winter for "an unlimited army of unemployed," so it is planned to furnish work only to Spokane citizens, the preference to be given to men with dependent families.

Trade Schools for Women in Argentina.2

THE recently organized Social Federation of Women (Confederación Social Feminina) in Argentina has for one of its chief objects the establishment of trade schools for women and girls in order to teach the elements of the manual trades, thus making more women economically independent and enlarging the sphere of their activities. Thus far it has organized two such schools, one of which has an attendance of 40 girls, who are learning to make men's and women's clothing, baskets, etc. All goods made in these schools are sold cheaply in the markets.

Workmen's Committees in Czechoslovakia.

A CCORDING to the Daily Intelligence of September 2, 1921, published by the International Labor Office, a bill establishing factory committees was passed by the Czecho-Slovak Senate August 12, the provisions of the law to become effective January 1, 1922. The new law, which does not affect workers in State undertakings, applies to all establishments employing regularly at least 30 persons and provides for much the same plan of organization as the works councils of other countries. In addition to their care of the social, economic, and intellectual condition of the employees, which includes assistance in making contracts in regard to hours and wages and supervision of the fulfillment of such contracts by the employer, they have the right,

Christian Science Monitor, Boston, Sept. 14, 1921, p. 8.
 Boletín del Museo Social Argentino. Buenos Aires, Aug. 10, 1921, p. 42.

in the presence of a representative of the employer, to examine the pay rolls of the concern. The committees also have supervision of the enforcement of arbitration decrees and other settlements and of legal regulations for the protection of employees, such as safety measures, and sanitary and hygienic regulations. They have the right to report infringements of the regulations to state inspectors and other authorities, and one of their members takes part in all negotiations with the State authorities in regard to these matters. In case of large-scale dismissals of employees not arising from working conditions or if an employee of three years' service is to be dismissed the committee has the right to assist in the settlement of the question. Other duties of the committee include the maintenance of good relations, not only between employers and employees but also among the ranks of the employees, and the management of philanthropic institutions connected with the concern unless the terms of their foundation expressly forbid it.

In establishments employing at least 300 workpeople or 50 clerks the committee can demand to see the accounts of the company each year, and in limited or other joint stock companies having a minimum capital of 1,000,000 crowns (\$203,000 par) the committee is entitled to one representative at directors' meetings and at the general annual meeting, although the committee representative is not entitled to vote. The provisions of this paragraph become effective July 1,

1922.

An arbitration commission consisting of six members, two members each representing the employers and workers, has charge of the settlement of disputes arising within the scope of this law and also has the power of issuing decisions, which must be enforced by the executive authorities.

Germany's First Chamber of Labor.1

BY AN act of July 17, 1921, a Chamber of Labor (Arbeiterkammer) was created in the free city of Bremen. The chamber, which is the first institution of this character in Germany, is composed of two divisions—one for manual and the other for nonmanual workers and is organized along the lines of the works councils. The chamber's 30 members "are elected by general, equal, direct, and secret ballot on the system of proportional representation." Every worker over 18 years of age has the right to vote and every worker over 24 years of age is available for election. "The representatives (secretaries) of the trade-unions are also eligible for election, provided that at least 20 members of the chamber are manual or nonmanual workers." The institution is to be managed by a chairman, vice chairman, and treasurer with the aid of a jurist as permanent adviser. The chamber will interest itself in the economic and cultural welfare of the Bremen workers and will not deal with political matters. It is planned to appoint trade committees to handle problems relating exclusively to isolated groups, which committees will report to the plenary assembly, in order to secure final decisions.

¹ International Labor Office Daily Intelligence, Geneva, Aug. 30, 1921, p. 7.

Provision will be made in the State budget for the expenses of the chamber. In case such expenses exceed the allotted sum, the tradeunion organizations concerned will be requested to make contributions, proportionate to their memberships, to meet the deficit.

It is expected that the Chamber's experience will be useful in perfecting "the scheme of economic councils provided for in the Weimar constitution, and at present under discussion in the Provincial

Federal Economic Council."

Education of Japanese Working People.

A CCORDING to the August 2, 1921, issue of Daily Intelligence, a publication of the International Labor Office, the president of the Japanese Confederation of Labor (Yuai Kai), who for some time past has been trying "to establish a systematic organization for the education of working people," has finally succeeded in setting up a night school at the confederation's headquarters in Tokyo, which is to be devoted principally to the training of labor leaders. A two years' instruction course is to be given. The management of an industrial continuation school, previously attached to the Tokyo higher industrial school and under the Department of Education, has been taken over by the Kyocho Kai (the Harmonizing Society). The purpose of the school will now be to train in the society's harmonization ideals young persons who are to take up the higher grades of work in industrial shops and factories.

Creation of Economic Commission in Porto Rico.1

THE Porto Rican budget for 1921–1923 provides for an economic commission to make a scientific study of the budget and of the financial and economic affairs of the Island and to readjust the wages of the employees. The commission will consist of 11 members of the legislature, to be appointed by the presidents of the two houses from both the majority and minority parties. Such appointees may choose substitutes to act for them if they so desire. The commission will report its conclusions and recommendations to the governor, who will call a special session of the legislature to act on them.

New Sections in the National Bureau of Labor of Uruguay.2

A DECREE of May 27, 1921, provides for the organization of two new sections in the National Bureau of Labor of Uruguay, the industrial accident section and the woman and child labor section. It will be the duty of the former to administer the provisions of the accident law, collect statistics on accidents and safety devices, and

¹ Justicia. San Juan, July 18, 1921. ² Boletín del Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores. Montevideo, June, 1921, pp. 632-634.

obtain approved models of safe apparatus to facilitate compliance with the law on prevention of industrial accidents on the part of the employers. It will also publish a list of industries passed by Government inspectors as safe, issue certificates, and make monthly and

yearly reports.

The woman and child labor section will have charge of inspecting places where women and children are employed to insure the enforcement of the laws relating to women and children in industry, especially that relating to the provision of chairs. It will make quarterly reports to the labor office.

Meeting of the International Emigration Commission at Geneva.¹

THE International Emigration Commission met at Geneva August 2 to 11, 1921, under the chairmanship of Viscount Ullswater, exspeaker of the British House of Commons, and the vice-chairmanship of Mr. de Michelis, the Italian commissioner-general of emigration. In addition to the Governments represented by the chairman and vice-chairman there was a delegate from each of the following countries: Brazil, Canada, China, Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Greece, India, Italy, Japan, South Africa, Spain, Sweden, and Switzerland.

Among the questions before the conference for resolution and recommendation were the following:

A. The protection of emigrants.

1. Supervision of emigration agents.

2. Supervision of collective recruiting of workers in one country for employment in another.

3. Control or prohibition of labor agreements containing provisions for the deduction from the wages of the emigrants of sums advanced for traveling expenses or otherwise

- 4. Adoption by all countries of measures prescribing that the various examinations to which emigrants are subject before entering the country of immigration should take place before emigration.
 - 5. Health of emigrants during the journey both on board ship and on the railways.

6. Insurance of emigrants during the voyage.

7. Finding employment for emigrants.8. Equality of treatment of emigrant workers and national workers.

B. Rôle of the International Labor Office.

1. Collection of documents concerning emigration and immigration.

2. International coordination of measures for the protection of emigrants.

Decisions requiring executive action were not within the province of the commission. Its report will be submitted to the Third International Labor Conference in October, 1921, and "that conference may decide or may ask the governing body to decide on what particular points further action by the International Labor Conference should be contemplated."

¹ International Labor Office. Official Bulletin. Geneva, August 24, 1921, p. 4.

Remittances of Italian Emigrants, 1920.

A RECENT issue of the monthly bulletin of the Italian Emigration Commission states that the remittances of Italian emigrants to their native country amounted to 980,756,383 lire (\$189,285,982, par) in 1920 as against 494,386,661 lire (\$95,416,626, par) in 1919. Of the total amount of the remittances made in 1920, 878,349,654 lire (\$169,521,483, par), or 90 per cent, came from the United States, 39,351,345 lire (\$7,594,810, par) from Canada, 33,854,994 lire (\$6,534,014, par) from Argentina, and 27,730,553 lire (\$5,351,997, par) from Brazil. All other countries contributed insignificant amounts to the total. The total amount of the remittances was twice as large in 1920 as in 1919. It should, moreover, be considered that while in 1919 the average exchange value of the dollar was 8.76 lire it was 21.18 in 1920.

¹ Bollettino della Emigrazione. Rome, June-July, 1921.

PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO LABOR.

Official-United States.

Illinois.—Department of Public Welfare. Children's committee. Report, December, 1920. Springfield, 1921. 157 pp.

The children's committee was appointed by the director of the department of public welfare in January, 1920, for "the purpose of setting forth a program of adequate child-care, of correlating efforts of existing boards and departments in the interests of children, of codifying the laws relating to children, and establishing throughout the State minimum standards of child welfare." The reports of the subcommittees include that of the committee on child labor, which made recommendations for raising the minimum age of employment from 14 to 15 years in 1921 and to 16 years in 1922, for minimum education and physical standards, and better enforcement of existing child labor laws.

Massachusetts.—Department of Labor and Industries. Board of Conciliation and Arbitration. Annual report for the year ending November 30, 1920. Boston, 1921. 212 pp.

For a digest of this report see page 196 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

— Department of Public Welfare. Division of housing and town planning. Annual report for the year ending November 30, 1920. Boston [1921]. 42 pp.

Contains the reports of the various town planning boards of Massachusetts cities for 1920, with a brief statement of the financial status of the housing experiment conducted by the State at Lowell.

- New Jersey.—Commissioner of banking and insurance. Annual report relative to building and loan associations, June 30, 1920. Trenton, 1921. x, 151 pp.
- Department of Labor. Report, July 1, 1919, to June 30, 1920. Trenton, 1920. 150 pp.

Excerpts from this report appear on pages 197 to 199 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

- New York.—Department of Labor. Court decisions on workmen's compensation law, January, 1920–June, 1921. Constitutionality and coverage. Albany, July, 1921. 302 pp. Special bulletin No. 106.

A summary of the result of this investigation, prepared for an advance notice, was given in the Monthly Labor Review, April, 1921 (p. 185).

Ohio.—Industrial Commission. Report for the year ending June 30, 1920. In Ohio general statistics for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1920. Volume VI. Columbus, 1920. pp. 281-315.

Extracts from this report appear on pages 199 to 201 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

South Dakota.—Industrial Department. Fourth annual report for the twelve months ending June 30, 1921. Pierre, 1921. 45 pp.

For review of this report see pages 173 and 174 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

UNITED STATES.—Congress. House of Representatives. Committee on immigration and naturalization. Labor problems in Hawaii. Hearings on H. J. Res. 158 and H. J. Res. 171, June 21 to June 30, July 7, 22, 27, and 29, August 1 to 4, 10, and 12, 1921. Washington, 1921. pp. 213-941. Serial 7, Parts 1 and 2.

These hearings of the committee on immigration and naturalization on joint resolutions providing an emergency remedy for the acute labor shortage in Hawaii and for immigration to meet this emergency include a large volume of testimony by the

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Hawaiian delegate to Congress, business men, labor leaders, and others from both Hawaii and the United States in regard to economic and racial conditions in the Territory of Hawaii with particular reference to the present predominance of Japanese in the population of the islands.

United States.—Department of Commerce. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Bolivia: A commercial and industrial handbook. Washington, 1921. 260 pp. Map. Special agents series, No. 208.

The section on labor conditions is summarized on pages 98 and 99 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Contains sections on living conditions, general conditions affecting national industries, and increase in prices of agricultural products.

- Department of Labor. Recent literature on unemployment with particular reference to causes and remedies. Compiled by Laura A. Thompson, librarian. Washington [1921]. 35 mimeographed pages.
- — Women's Bureau. Health problems of women in industry. Washington, 1921. 11 pp. Illus. Bulletin No. 18.

This pamphlet, which is a reprint of an article published in "The Nation's Health," discusses the standards which the Women's Bureau has set as necessary to insure the health and efficiency of women engaged in industrial work, stresses the need for special studies to determine the proper safeguards and regulations which should be introduced in monotonous, fatiguing, and dangerous occupations and also emphasizes the necessity for an adequate wage, the movement for which has been hampered by the old "pin-money" fallacy.

- — Women's wages in Kansas. Washington, 1921. 104 pp. Bul. No. 17. A summary of this report is given on pages 93 to 97 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.
- Federal Board for Vocational Education. An analysis of the railway boilermaker's trade. Washington, June, 1921. 24 pp. Bulletin No. 69. Trade and industrial series, No. 21.
- A survey and analysis of the pottery industry. Washington, June, 1921. 88 pp. Bulletin No. 67. Trade and industrial series, No. 20.

Official-Foreign Countries.

- Australia.—Bureau of Census and Statistics. Labor and industrial branch. Prices, purchasing-power of money, wages, trade-unions, unemployment, and general industrial conditions, 1919. Melbourne, October, 1920. 214 pp. Report No. 10.
- CANADA.—Department of Labor. Wages and hours of labor in Canada, September, 1920, and June, 1921. Issued as a supplement to the Labor Gazette, September, 1921. Ottawa, 1921. pp. 1217–1232. Wages and hours of labor report No. 2.

A table giving selected data from this report is found on pages 99 to 101 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Canada (Alberta).—Department of the Provincial Secretary. Mines branch. Annual report, 1920. Edmonton, 1921. 219 pp.

The accident statistics show 29 fatal, 53 serious, and 38 slight accidents during 1920 as compared with 21, 56, and 54, respectively, during 1919. The accidents are classified by coal fields in which they occurred, and by nature and cause. Other tables give the general wage schedule paid on December 31, 1920, for inside and outside work at mines and also at coke ovens.

France.—Ministère du Travail. Recueil de documents sur les accidents du travail. No. 51. Douzième rapport sur l'application de la loi du 9 Avril 1898. Années 1914 a 1918. Paris, 1921. 130 pp.

This report of the operation of State and private accident insurance funds in France covers the years 1914 to 1918. The payments to beneficiaries amounted to 22,133,053.84

francs (\$4,271,699, par) in 1914 and to 17,142,832.33 francs (\$3,308,567, par) in 1918. During the war years the funds were much affected by the loss of personnel to carry on their work and by the difficulty of administering the funds for occupants of the invaded regions so that in 1915 the payments amounted to less than half of those for the preceding year although after that year there was a gradual recovery.

France.—Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale. Direction du travail. Bulletin de l'inspection du travail et de l'hygiène industrielle. Vingt-septième année (1919). Numéros 3 à 6. Paris, 1919. pp. 233–573.

This volume contains the labor legislation enacted in 1919 and the decrees and circulars relative to labor questions issued in that year. Special reports by factory inspectors are included on such subjects as improvement of air in textile mills through artificial humidification, lighting of work places, and dust elimination.

Germany.—Reichsamt für Arbeitsvermittlung. Die Tarifverträge im Deutschen Reiche am Ende des Jahres 1919. Berlin, 1921. 45*, 58 pp. 23. Sonderheft zum Reichs-Arbeitsblatte.

This volume, published by the German National Employment Office, shows in what forms and in what directions collective bargaining has developed in 1919 in Germany. The contents of the volume are discussed in an article in the present issue of the Monthly Labor Review, pages 119 to 125.

— (Saxony).—Statistiches Landesamt. Statistisches Jahrbuch für den Freistaat Sachsen. 44. Ausgabe. 1918–1920. Dresden, 1921. 480 pp.

The forty-fourth issue of the Statistical Yearbook of the Free State of Saxony (formerly Kingdom of Saxony) covering the years 1918–1920. The volume contains the same kind of statistics as previous issues. Of interest to labor are the tables dealing with employment offices, strikes and lockouts, unemployment relief, wages, overtime work, social insurance, retail and wholesale prices, and cooperative societies.

Great Britain.—Board of Education. Report for the year 1919-20. London, 1921. vi, 101 pp. Cmd. 1451.

Chapter III of this report contains an account of technical and continuation schools in Great Britain, and of adult education in liberal subjects, including university tutorial classes for 1919–20.

— India Office. Statement exhibiting the moral and material progress and condition of India during the year 1920. London, 1921. xiv, 275 pp.

In addition to a detailed discussion of the public uneasiness occasioned by the movement for noncooperation the report presents in Chapter V an account of conditions prevailing among the people of India, included in which are cost of living, housing, trade-unions and their difficulties, strikes, welfare work, and the cooperative movement.

— Statistical abstract relating to British India from 1909–10 to 1918–19. Fifty-fourth number. London, 1921. viii, 260 pp. Cmd. 1425.

Of interest to labor are the statistics on cooperative societies, wages, current prices, and factory inspection.

— Ministry of Health. Committee on the high cost of building working class dwellings. Report. London, 1921. 68 pp. Cmd. 1447.

Data from this report were used in an article on pages 154 to 156 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

— Registrar of Friendly Societies. Reports for the year ending 31st December, 1919. Part D. Building societies. London, 1921. xvi, 133 pp.

Gives abstracts of the annual accounts and statements for the year 1919 of building societies in England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, with summaries of the situation by local groups and by periods.

—— (IRELAND).—National Health Insurance Commission. Report on the administration of national health insurance in Ireland, November, 1917, to 31st March, 1920. Dublin, 1921. vi, 80 pp. Cmd. 1147.

A brief review of this report appears on pages 174 and 175 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

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Great Britain (London).—County Council. Housing. Brief notes of the council's work since the war for the better housing of the working classes, with a summary of

public action in London since 1855. London [1920]. 32 pp.

This report was apparently prepared at the beginning of 1920, before the building program of the County Council had progressed much beyond the planning stage. A brief résumé is given of the housing work done by the London authorities in former years, followed by a description of the housing work projected. It was proposed to build 29,000 cottage dwellings, to clear slum areas at an estimated cost of £2,000,000 (\$9,733,000, par), and to provide new housing accommodations on the site of the clearances. It was estimated that the total cost would be upward of £30,000,000 (\$145,995,000, par), and that since it would be impossible to charge an economic rent if the dwellings were to house the working classes, there would be an annual deficit of approximately £1,200,000 (\$5, 839,800, par).

Education committee. Report by education officer on the census of young employees, 14-18 years of age, working within the administrative County of London in

June, 1920. London, 1921. 15 pp. Maps. No. 2069. With a view to determining the number of day continuation schools which must be provided under the Education Act, 1918, the London County Council took a census of young people between the ages of 14 and 18, and found that 104,769 boys and 102,945 girls between those ages were employed in the County of London, June 30, 1920. Of this number, according to the schedules returned, 77,550 boys and girls were doing technical work (workers and mechanics in workshops); 47,244 were clerical workers; 32,070, porters, etc.; 15,565, shop assistants; 34,606 in other occupations, and 679 unclassified. The ratio of boys to girls in the various classes and the absorption of young workers into the labor market are also considered.

(Scotland).—Board of Health. Committee of inquiry into the high cost of building working class dwellings in Scotland. Edinburgh, 1921. 32 pp. Cmd, 1411.

Data from this report were used in an article on pages 154 to 156 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

- India (Ajmer-Merwara).—[Registrar of cooperative societies, district of Ajmer-Mer wara.] Report on the working of the cooperative societies for the year ending June 30, 1920. Ajmer, 1920. 33 pp.
- (Burma).—[Registrar of cooperative societies, Burma.] Report on the working of the cooperative societies act for the year ended June 30, 1920. Rangoon, 1920. 42 pp.
- (CENTRAL PROVINCES AND BERAR). Agriculture Department. Report on the working of the cooperative societies for the year 1919-20. Nagpur, 1921. 45 pp.
- (Punjab).—[Registrar of cooperative societies, Punjab.] Report on the work of the cooperative societies for the year ending July 31, 1920. Lahore, 1920. 115 pp.

These reports contain an account of the general condition and administration of the cooperative societies in the district of Ajmer-Merwara, Burma, the Central Provinces, Berar, and the Punjab, and give detailed statistics for all types of societies for In every case agricultural credit societies are the most numerous.

International Labor Office.—International Labor Review. Vol. III. Nos. 1-2.

Geneva, July-August, 1921. 236 pp.

There are four special articles in this issue of the International Labor Review. An article on "The International Labor Office and the protection of children" reviews the historical precedents to the work of the International Labor Office, that is, the efforts made by Governments and voluntary associations previous to the formation of the present International Labor Office to enact labor legislation on an international basis, and outlines the work of the Washington and Genoa conferences and the activities of the International Labor Office in regard to the protection of women and children. An account of the principal labor laws enacted in France during the war is given by Roger Picard and an article on "The British Industrial Court," by Sir William Mackenzie, reviews the work of the court from the time it was instituted in December, 1919, up to the present time. In an article on "War and industrial diseases" the author discusses the industrial diseases which were common prior to the war and those which increased so enormously in the war industries and munitions manufacture during the war years. Other articles of interest are "The growth of trade-unionism since 1913," "Statistics as to occupied persons in the new Germany," "Conciliation and arbitration in collective labor disputes in France," and the "French Government bill on social insurance." An interesting article on the adjustment of wages to the cost of living gives an account of sliding-scale agreements in various industries in the different countries. Under the subject of cooperation an account is given of works councils in German consumers' cooperative societies, and under the heads of education and agriculture there are articles on workers' education in Italy and technical education in Polish agriculture. The usual statistical articles on unemployment, prices, and cost of living are included.

ITALY.—Cassa Nazionale d'Assicurazione per gl'Infortuni sul Lavoro. Bilancio consuntivo dell'esercizio 1919. Rome, 1921. [86 pp.] N. 27 bis

The financial report of the Italian National Workmen's Accident Insurance Fund for the year 1919.

Netherlands.—Ongevallenstatistiek. Betreffend het kalenderjaar 1913 en het kalenderjaar 1914 (tweede gedeelte); samengesteld ter voldoening aan de bepaling van art. 17 der Ongevallenwet. Amsterdam, 1921. xli, 247 pp.

Accident statistics for Netherlands for the years 1913 and 1914, compiled to comply with the provisions of article 17 of the accident law.

Norway.—Hovedstyret for Statsbanene. Norges jernbaner. Beretning for året 1 Juli 1919–30 Juni 1920. Christiania, 1921. 63*, 298 pp. Norges Offisielle Statistikk, VII, 16.

Report of operations of Norwegian railroads for fiscal year ending June 30, 1920. The report shows the number of accidents and contains statistics of the pension funds for State railroads.

— Statistiske Centralbyrå. Husholdningsregnskap Sept. 1918–Sept. 1919. Christiania, 1921. 31*, 117 pp. Norges Offisielle Statistikk, VII, 13.

Contains statistics from 82 household budgets gathered from 48 workers and 34 office employees, comprising 444 persons, of whom 231 were adults and the rest (213) children under 15 years. Household incomes varied from 2,173 kroner (\$582,36, par) to 18,250 kroner (\$4,891.00, par). The average income for all families was 6,500 kroner (\$1,742.00, par). The average yearly expenditure per family was 6,479.25 kroner (\$1,736.44, par). About one-half, or 3,103.92 kroner (\$831.85, par), of expenditures was for food; over 17 per cent, or 1,125.80 kroner (\$301.71, par) for clothes, about 7 per cent, or 424.55 kroner (\$113.78, par), for housing, and over 4 per cent. or 284.52 kroner (\$76.25, par), for light and heat. These four items covered over three-fourths of the total expenditure.

SWITZERLAND.—Caisse Nationale Suisse d'Assurance en Cas d'Accidents. Rapport annuel et comptes pour l'exercice 1920. [Berne] 1921. 74 pp.

This is the annual report of the Swiss National Accident Insurance Fund for the year 1920.

— Département Fédéral de l'Économie Publique. Rapports des gouvernements cantonaux concernant l'exécution de la loi fédérale sur le travail dans les fabriques 1919 et 1920. Aarau, 1921. 176 pp.

This volume published by the new Swiss Federal Economic Department contains the reports of the various cantonal governments on the enforcement of the new Swiss factory law during the years 1919 and 1920.

— (Zurich).—Städtisches Arbeitsamt. Geschäftsbericht für das Jahr 1919 [und 1920]. Zurich, 1920, 1921. 2 pamphlets of 9 pages each.

The reports of the Municipal Employment Office of the city of Zurich, Switzerland, as to its activities in 1919 and 1920. In 1919 the number of persons applying for work at the office was 32,381, the largest number of unemployed since 1910. In 1920 the

number of applicants was 21,646. The number of vacant situations registered with the office in the two years was 15,800 and 16,308, and the number of persons placed 12,546 and 14,074, respectively. In 1919 the office was subsidized by the Federal Government with 20,573 francs (\$3,970.59, par) and in 1920 with 27,929 francs (\$5,390.30, par). In addition it received each year from the Canton Zurich 3,000 francs (\$579, par), and from the Zurich Cantonal Federation for Relief in Kind of the Unemployed 750 francs (\$144.75, par).

Union of South Africa. —Office of Census and Statistics. Statistics of production.

Pretoria, 1921. 142 pp.

Statistics of factories and productive industries (excluding mining and quarrying) in the Union for the year 1918–19 (fourth industrial census, 1920). The number of persons of all races employed, together with their salaries and wages, and the average wage paid to persons of each race employed in each class of industry is shown.

URUGUAY.—Dirección General de Estadística. Anuario estadístico, 1918. Montevideo, 1920. xvi, 544 pp.

This issue of the statistical yearbook of Uruguay contains vital, migration, financial, agricultural, and commercial statistics for specified years, ending with 1918. Of special interest to labor are the data on industrial accidents, strikes, and the work of employment agencies, both public and private.

Unofficial.

ABEL, MARY HINMAN. Successful family life on the moderate income. Its foundation in a fair start. The man's earnings. The woman's contribution. The cooperation of the community. Philadelphia, J. P. Lippincott Co., 1921. xii, 251 pp.

ALEXANDER, MAGNUS W. Living costs and wage adjustment. Washington, D. C.,

Chamber of Commerce of the United States, 1921. 21 pp.

An address delivered by the managing director of the National Industrial Conference Board on April 27, 1921, during the annual meeting of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States at Atlantic City. The author stresses the distinction that should be made between real wages and money wages in making the wage adjustments that are called for at present. Charts and figures are based on studies of the National Industrial Conference Board.

American Association for Labor Legislation. The American Labor Legislation Review. New York, September, 1921. pp. 180–280.

This number of the American Labor Legislation Review contains an unemployment survey, 1920–21; an article by Dr. John A. Ryan on the need of legal standards of protection for labor; an address by Prof. Thomas L. Chadbourne entitled "Face the labor issue," delivered at the 14th annual meeting (1920) of the American Association for Labor Legislation, and a reprint of the report of the Pennsylvania Health Insurance Commission of 1920 regarding the operation of the British Health Insurance Act. Excerpts from the unemployment survey appear on pages — to — of this num er of the Monthly La or Review.

Ayres, Leonard P. Price changes and business prospects. Cleveland, The Cleveland Trust Co., 1921. 27 pp.

A discussion of wholesale and retail price changes, wages, and business cycles and their relation to business prospects at the present time.

Bournville Works. Publication department. A works council in being. An account of the scheme in operation at Bournville works. [Bournville, England, 1921.] 16 pp.

The three important factors in the success of this scheme are said to be: (1) An attitude of cooperation with rather than antagonism to trade-unionism; (2) the scheme was drawn up with the active cooperation of workers and management in equal numbers; and (3) the company adopted the scheme as an integral part of the factory organization.

Breckinridge, S. P. New homes for old. New York, Harper and Bros., 1921. 366 pp.

This volume, which is one of the Americanization series published under the supervision of the Carnegie Corporation, is a study of methods of Americanization among immigrant families. The report consists of an account of agencies actually engaged in this kind of work, their methods, and the conditions with which they are confronted, but it does not advance theories for dealing with the complicated questions involved.

Bunting, J. H. Is trade unionism sound? A suggestion for outflanking the power of capital. London, Benn Bros. (Ltd.) 1921. x, 98 pp.

This book, which was printed and circulated privately during the war by the Garton Foundation, was withheld from general circulation until now, since it was felt to be inadvisable to widen the area of controversy while the war was in progress. The publishers state that the book will be "misunderstood if it is regarded as an attack on labor. So far from that, it is an indirect attack on capital and is a fearless attempt to establish a permanent improvement in the lot of the workers." It challenges the tendency toward a fixed price either for work or commodities, which has been so marked in every direction in recent years, and holds that flexibility of price is necessary for improvement of economic conditions.

Davies, A. Emil, and Evans, Dorothy. Land nationalization. The key to social reform. London, Leonard Parsons, 1921. 159 pp.

An argument for nationalization of land in Great Britain based on the need for increased production of food.

Ensign, Forest Chester. Compulsory school attendance and child labor. A study of the historical development of regulations compelling attendance and limiting the labor of children in a selected group of States. Iowa City, The Athens Press, 1921. ix, 263 pp

This study starts with the colonial period and makes a special study of the legislation and conditions in Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin.

Fay, Charles Norman. Labor in politics or class versus country. [Cambridge, Mass.] Privately printed at the University Press, 1921. xv, 288 pp.

This book presents to organized labor the opinions of an employer, particularly in regard to the policies of restricted output, refusal of unions to assume legal responsibility, and the growing tendency on the part of labor to seek class legislation and to dominate political situations through class appeals.

International Association for Labor Legislation. Report of the eighth general meeting of the committee of the International Association for Labor Legislation held at Basel, July, 1920. Together with the annual reports of the International Association and of the International Labor Office, with 4 appendixes. London, 1921, 55 pp.

The report of the bureau of the International Association for Labor Legislation covers the period 1912 to 1920.

Japan Year Book. Complete cyclopedia of general information and statistics on Japan and Japanese territories for the year 1920–21. Tokyo, The Japan Year Book Office, 1921. lxiv, 810 pp.

A section of the yearbook, which covers all phases of the political, social, commercial and industrial life of Japan, is devoted to social politics and labor problems (pp. 290–306), in which are discussed social unrest and the labor movement, wages, working conditions, workers' mutual aid associations, and recent labor troubles.

Lane, Winthrop D. Civil war in West Virginia. New York, B. W. Huebsch (Inc.), 1921. 128 pp.

This is a brief summary of the labor troubles in the West Virginia mining districts with an account of the working and living conditions, methods of payment, and of hiring and discharge which have influenced the miners in the struggle for unionization.

The author believes the conflict will go on until the right of miners to join a union is recognized, until both the operators and the union abstain from provocative and extralegal acts, and until the workers are given a more direct control over their environment and the conditions which affect them most intimately.

Lipson, E. Increased production. London, Oxford University Press [1921]. 71 pp.

The fallacy of the idea that restricted output on the part of individual workers makes more work for every one is attacked in this book, which discusses the importance of increased production and the obstacles to it, the efficiency of labor and of management, the remuneration of labor, and unemployment and overproduction.

Lorenz, J. Zur Einführung in die Arbeiterfrage unter besonderer Berücksichtigung schweizerischer Verhältnisse. Zurich, 1921. 64 pp. Schweizer Zeitfragen. Heft 55.

A discussion of the labor problem with special consideration of conditions in Switzerland. After giving a historical review of the development of Swiss industry and showing how the labor problem arose the author discusses the living conditions of the working classes, the psychology of the workers, and the modern labor movement, and concludes with an outline of principles of social reform.

Mackinnon, James. The social and industrial history of Scotland. London, Longmans, Green & Co., 1921. viii, 298 pp.

This is a review of the labor and social conditions of Scotland from the beginning of the 18th century to the present time.

Management Engineering. The Journal of Production, Vol. 1, No. 1. New York, The Ronald Press Co., July, 1921.

The purpose of this magazine, of which this is the first number, is to assist in the solution of problems of management in the effort to secure maximum production. There are a number of articles on the general subject of management engineering. One, entitled "What is management in industry?" by C. E. Knoeppel, enumerates the past shortcomings in industrial management, analyzes the causes of industrial inefficiency and waste, and attempts to fix the proportional responsibility as between the different factors—men, plant equipment, and managers. Other articles of interest are "Training as a factor in reducing labor cost," by James F. Johnson; "The unexpected trend in accident prevention," by C. B. Auel; and "Existing courses in management engineering," by Collins P. Bliss.

McLean, Donald Alexander. The morality of the strike. New York, P. J. Kenedy & Sons, 1921. x, 196 pp.

In this book the various situations which lead to strikes are considered from the point of view of their justification or morality. In general, the author contends that the strikes are justified when the workers are treated "unjustly" but it is not always clear by what means this is to be determined in a matter which is always controversial. In the main the book seems to be a justification of the strike as an economic weapon.

Moon, Parker Thomas. The labor problem and the social Catholic movement in France. A study in the history of social politics. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1921. xiv, 473 pp.

France was selected from among the many countries in which social Catholicism has become a force because it is representative of the movement in its various phases and also because a powerful political party, the Popular Liberal Party, has as its platform the social Catholic program. The study, which is exhaustive, deals with the historical development, the organization, the methods, and the plan for the solution of the labor problem of the political parties which are a part of this movement or have been influenced by it, as well as a survey of groups opposed to it.

Murphy, H. M. Wages and prices in Australia. Our labor laws and their effects. Melbourne, George Robertson & Co. (Ltd.) [1917]. 144 pp.

A discussion of the defects of the Australian wage-fixing machinery, both Federal and State, and suggested remedies, together with a report on antistrike legislation in operation throughout the Commonwealth, and recommendations regarding such legislation for the State of Victoria.

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National Industrial Conference Board. Changes in the cost of living, July, 1914—July, 1921. New York, 10 East 39th St., August, 1921. vii, 25 pp. Research Report No. 39.

— Experience with trade-union agreements—Clothing industries. New York, 10 East 39th St., 1921. 134 pp. Research Report No. 38.

A summary of this report is given on pages 116 to 118 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

— Wages in Great Britain, France, and Germany. New York, 10 East 39th St., August 1921. Research Report No. 40.

The period covered by this report is, in general, from April, 1920, to April, 1921. Wage data are given for the principal industries and cost of living figures have been given also in connection with the wage statistics for the purpose of affording an estimate of the purchasing power of wages and also because the cost of living has figured largely in wage adjustments in all these countries.

National Industrial Council. Review of State legislation affecting industry enacted in 1918 and 1919. New York [1920?]. 70 pp.

This pamphlet makes a survey of the legislation of the years 1918 and 1919, summarizing such laws as the council selected as "affecting industry." The inclusiveness is rather broad, covering red flag laws, blue sky laws, requirement of instruction in English, vocational education, the State banking system of North Dakota, mounted police, etc. The report can hardly be relied on as complete, as is indicated by the statement that the vocational education act of the Illinois legislature of 1919 was "the only legislation affecting industry enacted in that State." On the contrary the Illinois legislature passed an act creating a commission to survey employment and living conditions of alien-born and immigrant residents of the State; a law as to the reemployment of discharged soldiers and sailors; one providing for the rehabilitation of physically handicapped persons; an amendment of the mine regulations; besides acts making minor amendments to the law on boycotting and blacklisting and one on free public employment offices, all of which are of the type of those noted in the pamphlet as having been passed in other States.

An appendix shows the number of bills introduced in each State and the number enacted into law, the total for the former for 35 States from which reports were received being 39,423, for the latter 13,429. An index by subjects and groups makes reference easily possible.

NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES. International obligations. Boston, F. W. Fazon Co., 1921. vii, 179 pp. Journal, vol. VII.

OREGON SAFETY NEWS. Vol. 1, No. 1. [Portland] August, 1921. 4 pp.

Published jointly by the Oregon and Columbia Basin Division of the National Safety Council, Portland, the State Bureau of Labor, Salem, and the State Industrial Accident Commission, Salem. Announcement of the first issue of this publication is made on pages 201 and 202 of this number of the Monthly Labor Review.

Page, Kirby. Industrial facts. Concrete data concerning industrial problems and proposed solutions. New York, George H. Doran Co., 1921. 32 pp.

This is a brief statement of various facts probably exact enough in themselves but which when taken together form a somewhat one-sided picture of the industrial situation.

Pasvolsky, I.eo. The economics of communism with special reference to Russia's experiment. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1921. xiv, 312 pp.

This dispassionate and analytical study of the theories of communism and the results of their application in Russia is not based upon the writings or testimony of opponents but on information drawn largely from official Soviet sources. The author considers that although much basic technical equipment has been destroyed, the real cause of the impending downfall of the Soviet régime is the fact that the Russian industries have been stripped of their man power, which is either abroad, in hiding, or passively resistant through refusing to give good work. While the flight of the work-

men to the rural districts is disastrous for the Soviets, it holds out the element of hope in the eventual reconstitution of the country, and the "three huge stumbling blocks in the path of the Communistic experiment, viz., the inability of the Soviet régime to maintain living standards for labor and to keep it at work; its failure to break up small-scale production; and its helplessness in the face of the peasant opposition, are really the keystone of Russia's future economic reconstruction."

Rockefeller Foundation. International Health Board. Seventh annual report, 1920. New York, 61 Broadway, 1921. xvi, 150 pp.

The important work being done by the board in the study of the prevalence, cure, and prevention of hookworm disease is described with considerable detail.

ROWNTREE, B. SEEBOHM. The human factor in business. London, Longmans, Green & Co., 1921. ix, 176 pp.

The author believes that although sufficiently satisfactory conditions as to earnings, hours of work, economic security during working years and old age, and generally good working and living conditions have not been provided under the capitalistic system, improvement must come through building on the present foundation. He has described in this volume the manner in which the directors of the Cocoa Works, York, have attempted to solve some of the human problems of business administration. The subject is dealt with under five heads: Wages, hours, economic security of workers, working conditions, and joint control.

Russian Economic Association. Labor conditions in Russia. The Russian Economist. London, P. S. King & Son (Ltd.) [1921]. 61 pp.

This report of the Russian Economic Association on the influence of Communism on labor conditions in Soviet Russia was made by a special commission who used all the available original Soviet publications and such non-Soviet publications as have given exact quotations from their Soviet sources. The material presented covers hours, wages and food supply, productivity of labor, protection of labor, social insurance, numbers of the proletariat, militarization of labor, participation of workmen in management and trade-union organizations. Very little comment is included, the quotations in themselves showing with sufficient conclusiveness the failure of the Communist experiment.

Simons, A. M. Personnel relations in industry. New York, The Ronald Press Co., 1921. xi, 341 pp.

Human nature has been made the basic characteristic in the plan of this book, "because that factor runs uniformly through all industrial problems. Industry exists only for, by, and through human beings and their relations." Industrial problems have been analyzed to determine the reactions of human nature to the conditions presented. These problems include those involved in the introduction of the worker into industry, such as sources of labor supply, training, interesting the worker, etc., as well as those involved in the maintenance of an efficient personnel. Adjustments, transfers, promotions, discharge, the wage relation, labor turnover, welfare work, joint management and democracy in industry—all are discussed with particular reference to the human and psychological problems involved.

Stone, Gilbert. A history of labor. London, George G. Harrap & Co. (Ltd.), 1921. 416 pp.

This is not, as might be considered from the title, a history of labor organization but rather a broad delineation of the forces which have worked for the progress and development of the masses from days of slavery to the present. It enables the reader to understand the underlying causes which have brought the working people to their present position of power, and stresses the fact that progress is evolutionary not revolutionary. The power which is now in the hands of the masses, the author believes, should be directed so that they will recognize not only their power and their rights but also their duties.

Tannenbaum, Frank. The labor movement. Its conservative functions and social consequences. New York, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1921. xviii, 259 pp.

This volume discusses the causes of labor organization, the methods and the consequences. The last section of the book points out the tendency toward socialization, which has been so pronounced in recent years, and the part which labor organizations have taken in this development. The publisher in a preliminary note calls attention to the fact that the book is restricted to consideration of the advantages secured by union organizations and ignores some of the phases of the labor movement which have tended to alienate the general public.

Transvaal Chamber of Mines. Thirty-first annual report, 1920. Johannesburg, 1921. 267 pp.

This report includes statistics regarding the industrial condition of both white and native labor in the Transvaal gold and coal mines. These include the number of both classes employed, wages and hours, health, unrest, and regulations regarding sick and annual leave.

Veblen, Thorstein. The engineers and the price system. New York, B. W. Huebsch (Inc.), 1921. 169 pp.

This is a general indictment of our industrial system with the final chapter, "A memorandum on a practicable soviet of technicians," embodying the author's idea of the manner in which the overturn of the present order may be brought about.

Verband Schweiz. Konsumvereine (V. S. K.) Basel. Rapports et comptes concernant l'activité des organes de l'Union en 1920. Basel, 1921. 121 pp.

Some of the more important statistics contained in this report of the activities of the Union of Swiss Consumers' Cooperative Societies in 1920 are given on page 195 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Walber, John G. Statement . . . before Senate committee on interstate commerce, Washington, D. C., June 1 and 2, 1921. Summary of wage orders issued during period of Federal control of the railroads. [Washington, D. C.] 1921. 18 pp.

This statement presents in tabular form the wage rates in effect on eastern railroads prior to Federal control, and during Federal operation of the railroads. The effect of the wage orders issued by the Railroad Administration upon wage rates is noted in detail.

Wallas, Graham. Our social heritage. New Haven, Yale University Press, 1921. 307 pp.

The social heritage of man considered apart from the "nature" of man, that is, those facts of structure and instinct inherited biologically, is analyzed in connection with the problem of securing increasing economy in its acquirement and use and efficiency in its criticism and improvement. The relation of our social inheritance to various plans of group, national, and world cooperation, such as guild socialism, professionalism, sovietism, and the League of Nations, forms the subject of several chapters.

Webb, Sidney and Beatrice. Industrial democracy. Edition of 1920, with new introduction. London, Longmans, Green & Co., 1920. xxxiii, 899 pp.

This edition of "Industrial democracy," which first appeared in 1897 and which has been reprinted several times since, is practically unchanged except for a new introduction calling attention to changes in the industrial situation in the past 20 years and some changes in the appendixes. The volume, which is an analytic description of British trade-unionism, deals in the first part with trade-union structure, in the second part with trade-union function, and in the third with a theoretical discussion of the present and future effect of trade-unionism on an economic organization.

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