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Bread Making in the Modern Bakery.

By Robert S. Billups, of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics.

IN JULY and August, 1923, the United States Department of Labor, through its Bureau of Labor Statistics, made a study of bread making as it is done in the modern bakery, for the purpose of showing the average customary or regular full-time hours per week, average number of pounds of bread produced per man per hour, average earnings per hour of employees actually engaged in the production of bread, and average labor or production cost per pound of bread. This study also included baking machinery, processes, and occupations.

The figures presented in this article are limited to the productive employees in the bread-making department of the bakery, beginning with those who receive the flour and other ingredients as they are delivered to the bakery, and ending with those who pack the baked bread in baskets or boxes, or on bread racks ready for drivers of the wagons or for shipment from the bakery. Figures covering bakery officials, clerks, and other office employees, salesmen, bread wagon drivers, maintenance and repair employees, and employees of cake, pie, and pastry departments are excluded.

This study is limited to 3 representative bakeries, with 135 employees, in Baltimore, Md.; to 9 bakeries, with 733 employees, in New York City; to 5 bakeries, with 451 employees, in Philadelphia, Pa.; and to 4 bakeries, with 300 employees, in Washington, D. C. Thus a total of 21 bakeries and 1,619 productive employees is covered.

Agents of the bureau visited the bakeries mentioned above and, selecting a representative weekly pay-roll period in 1923, obtained from pay rolls and other records the occupation of each employee, the number of hours he actually worked and earnings he actually made, and the number of pounds of bread and rolls produced during this particular pay-roll period. These figures were used as the basis for the averages presented in this article.

Customary or regular full-time hours per week are the number of hours that a bakery under normal conditions is in operation in a week, or the number of hours that the employees may expect work each week. The customary or regular full-time hours per week for employees of each of the bakeries covered in Baltimore are 54; in New York and Washington 48; in Philadelphia the hours per week of the different bakeries range from 50 to 55, averaging 51.1 for the employees of all the bakeries covered.

[1225]

Overtime is time worked in excess of customary or regular full-time hours per week. Practically all the bakeries studied have some overtime work each week, usually on Friday when it is necessary to produce sufficient bread for Saturday and Sunday. In this industry Saturday is the day of rest instead of Sunday, as in other six-day week industries. Overtime is paid for at the regular rate by the bakeries in Baltimore, New York, and Philadelphia, and at rate and one-half by those covered in Washington.

In Baltimore the average number of pounds of bread, including rolls, produced per man per hour ranges from 70 for the bakery with the lowest production to 103 for the bakery with the highest, with an average of 92 for all employees covered; in New York the range is from 52 to 95, with an average of 73; in Philadelphia, from 52 to 68, with an average of 62; and in Washington, from 48 to 72, with an

average of 63.

The highest production per man per hour was made in a bakery in which there are very few bench hands, no machine hands except at the divider and one at the molder, and no oven men. This bakery is fully equipped with the best machinery, including traveling ovens, and is modern in every way. Here 90 per cent or more of the dough is carried directly, by machinery operated by electric power, from the fermenting room to and through the divider, rounder, first or preliminary automatic proofer, molder, final automatic steam proofer, and traveling oven.

The lowest production per man per hour was made in a bakery in which there are machine hands at the divider, rounder, revolving proofing cabinet, and molder; in which helpers shove racks loaded with pans of molded dough into the steam proofer and from the proofer to the ovens; and in which there are also bench hands and oven men. In this particular bakery the employees in these occupations form a larger per cent of the total employees than in any other bakery for which averages are presented. It is, therefore, manifest that very large production per man per hour can be obtained only by a bakery having efficient machinery and efficient organization.

Average earnings per hour of employees of bakeries in Baltimore range from 49.7 cents in the bakery with the lowest average to 53.8 cents in the bakery with the highest, with an average of 50.9 cents for all employees covered; in New York the range is from 56.1 to 71.6 cents, with an average of 63.6 cents; in Philadelphia from 50.2 to 60.4 cents, with an average of 56.4 cents; and in Washington from 67.4 to 77.6 cents, with an average of 74.1 cents. averages for Washington, as compared with those of other cities, are higher, for two reasons: (1) The basic rate per hour in Washington for mixers, bench hands or hand bakers, dividers or scalers, rounders, cabinet men, molders, and oven men is \$1 per hour for day work and \$1.10 per hour for night work, as compared with rates of 50 to 74.1 cents for these occupations in Baltimore, 50 cents to \$1.042 in New York, and 47.9 to 80 cents in Philadelphia; and (2) overtime is paid for at the rate of time and a half, or \$1.50 per hour for day work and \$1.65 per hour for night work, in Washington, while in other cities all overtime is paid for at regular rates by the bakeries covered. Further, as work in most of the bakeries in Washington begins about

2 p. m. and ends about 10 p. m. or after, practically all overtime

is paid for at the night overtime rate of \$1.65 per hour.

Average labor or production cost per pound of bread in bakeries in Baltimore ranges from 0.48 cent to 0.77 cent, with an average of 0.55 cent for all bakeries covered; in New York the range is from 0.62 cent to 1.18 cents, with an average of 0.87 cent; in Philadelphia from 0.85 cent to 1.11 cents, with an average of 0.91 cent; and in Washington from 1.07 to 1.59 cents, with an average of 1.17 cents. The statement made regarding the efficiency of the production per man per hour likewise applies to the average labor or production cost.

It should again be emphasized that the figures presented above and in the tables following apply only to the production employees

of the bread-making department of the modern bakery.

Averages for "all employees" of all bakeries covered in each city as presented in the table below, have already been discussed. The averages for "bakers (mixers, bench hands, machine hands, and oven men)," are for the key occupations in bread making, the work of all other bread-making occupations being comparatively unimportant.

CUSTOMARY OR REGULAR FULL-TIME HOURS PER WEEK, AVERAGE NUMBER OF POUNDS OF BREAD PRODUCED PER MAN PER HOUR, AVERAGE EARNINGS PER HOUR, AND AVERAGE LABOR COST PER POUND OF BREAD, BY CITY, 1923.

Employees and city.	Num- ber of baker	Num- ber of em-	f full- wee	mary or retime hou	egular rs per	Average number of pounds of bread produced per man per hour.		
	ies.	ploy- ees.		High- est.	Average.	Low- est.	High est.	Average.
All employees: Baltimore. New York. Philadelphia. Washington. Bakers (mixers, bench hands, machine hands,	3 9 5 4	138 738 451 300	48. 0 50. 0	54. 0 48. 0 55. 0 48. 0	54. 0 48. 0 51. 1 48. 0	70 52 52 48	103 95 68 72	73 62
and oven men); Baltimore. New York Philadelphia Washington	3 9 5 4	48 348 189 117	48. 0 50. 0	54. 0 48. 0 55. 0 48. 0	54. 0 48. 0 51. 1 48. 0	138 101 87 116	427 266 162 189	155 146
Employees and city.	Av	erage (earnings	per hour	. tio			produc- ound of
		west.	Highest.	Average	. Lowe	est. H	ghe st .	Average.
All employees: Baltimore. New York Philadelphia Washington. Bakers (mixers, bench hands, machine hand		0. 497 . 561 . 502 . 674	\$0.538 .716 .604 .776	\$0.509 .636 .564 .741	\$0.00 .00 .00)62)85	0.0077 .0118 .0111 .0159	\$0.0055 .0087 .0091 .0117
and oven men): Baltimore. New York. Philadelphia. Washington.		. 548 . 643 . 573 1. 067	. 696 . 782 . 644 1, 090	.641 .717 .620 1.079	.00	024	. 0051 . 0073 . 0072 . 0093	. 0021 . 0046 . 0043 . 0065

In reading figures for "bakers" in connection with figures for "all employees" it will be observed that in Baltimore only 43, or 32 per cent of the 135 employees covered, are bakers; in New York, 345, or 47 per cent of the 733 covered; in Philadelphia, 189, or 42 per cent of the 451 covered; and in Washington, 117, or 39 per cent of the 300 covered, are bakers. The small percentage of bakers in Baltimore is due principally to the fact that all the bakeries studied there are well equipped with modern automatic machinery, from the dividing or scaling machine to the traveling ovens, while some of the bakeries covered in other cities are not so well equipped. These facts, together with the production of 307 pounds of bread per baker per hour in Baltimore, as compared with 155 in New York, 146 in Philadelphia, and 165 in Washington, and an average earning of 64.1 cents per hour in Baltimore, as compared with 71.7 cents in New York, 62 cents in Philadelphia and \$1.079 in Washington, seem to account for the very low labor cost of 0.21 cent per pound of bread for bakers in Baltimore compared with 0.46 cent per pound in New York, 0.43 cent in Philadelphia, and 0.65 cent in Washington.

The table below presents for each of the bread-making occupations (mixers, bench hands or hand bakers, machine hands, oven men, helpers, laborers, wrappers, packers, and other employees) the classified days worked, average full-time hours, average hours actually worked, average hours of overtime work per week, and average earnings, per week and hour. These figures are computed from data, obtained from the bakeries studied, for a one-week pay-roll

period in 1923.

Reading line 1 of this table it is seen that in the 3 bakeries covered in Baltimore there were 5 mixers who worked 6 days, or on all the days that there was work during the week covered; that the full-time hours per week were 54, that these mixers actually worked an average of 55 hours, and that they actually worked an average of 1 hour overtime during the week. Their earnings averaged \$37.10 for the week and 67.5 cents per hour. Line 2 shows that one of the 32 mixers in New York worked only 3 of the 6 days that the 9 bakeries were in operation. During these 3 days this mixer actually worked only 18 hours. This is the reason that the average hours actually worked (49.7) are less than the total (50.6) of the average full-time hours (48) and average hours of overtime (2.6). Line 3 shows that one of the 19 mixers in Philadelphia worked 4 of the 6 days the 5 bakeries were in operation, while 1 employee worked 7 days, doing work on one day when the bakery as a whole was not in operation. Other lines may be read in like manner and comparisons made between one city and another.

An inspection of the table shows that many of the bench hands or hand bakers and helpers worked fewer than 6 days or less than full time during the week covered, showing that a larger percentage of the employees in these occupations were much less regular in attendance than employees of other occupations.

EMPLOYEES CLASSIFIED BY DAYS WORKED AND AVERAGE HOURS AND EARN-INGS, IN ONE WEEK, BY OCCUPATIONS AND CITIES, 1923.

	Num- ber	Num- ber of	· in		ach s	peci	earn- earn-							
Occupation and city.	of bak- eries.	em- ploy- ees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Full time.	Actu- ally worked.	Over-	ings in one week.	
Mixers:														
Baltimore New York Philadelphia Washington	3 9 5 4	5 32 19 10			· i	1		5 31 17 10	····	54. 0 48. 0 51. 3 48. 0	55. 0 49. 7 50. 7 49. 0	1.0 2.6 .4 1.0	\$37.10 38.24 33.34 53.08	\$0.675 .770 .657 1.084
Bench hands or hand														
bakers: Baltimore New York Philadelphia	2 9 5	26 175 92	 4 1	1	3	1	 8 1	24 153 87	6 2	54. 0 48. 0 50. 9	52. 6 48. 2 50. 5	2.0 2.4	30. 98 33. 09 29. 82	. 589 . 686 . 591
Washington Machine hands:	4	74	3	2		2	21	46		48.0	43.8	.9	46. 97	1. 07
Baltimore New York Philadelphia	3 9 5	9 37 28 11					1 1 1	8 35 27 10	1 1	54. 0 48. 0 50. 1 48. 0	53. 2 51. 4 50. 7 48. 6	3.7 .6 1.2	29. 66 -33. 59 29. 65 52. 29	. 55% . 65% . 584 1. 07%
Washington	4						1		• • • • •			1.2		
Baltimore New York Philadelphia	1 9 5	3 101 50		1		1 2	3	3 94 46	2 2	54. 0 48. 0 52. 5	54. 0 50. 5 52. 8	3.3	34. 17 39. 24 35. 82	.63
Washington Helpers:	3	22				1	1	20		48.0	48.7	1.8	53. 39	1,09
Baltimore New York Philadelphia	3 9 5	48 152 87	4 7 1	4	3	1 3 6	3 5 5	40 130 69	5	54. 0 48. 0 52. 1	49.3 47.0 49.9	2.9	22.11 23.83 23.32	. 44 . 50 . 46
Washington	4	99	2	2	1	5	9	80		48.0	46.6	1.9	22.83	. 49
Laborers: Baltimore New York	3 9	12 85		1	5	3	1	10 67	9	54. 5 48. 9	51.0 49.7	3.0	23. 07 25. 22	. 45
Philadelphia Washington	5 4	74 37		1		1 3	2 2	69 25	7	50.7 48.0	49.9 48.5	.2	23.17 22.88	.46
Wrappers: Baltimore New York		14 28	i					14 27		54. 0 48. 9	59.1 50.1	5.1	20.99 26.26	.35
Philadelphia Washington	4	17	···i	1	2	1	1	12 6		49.6 48.0	43.7 38.9		22.46 19.88	.51
Packers: Baltimore New York		10 83	2			···i	···i	10 74	5	54.0 49.1	54.0 50.9	3.1	25. 80 27. 74	.47
Philadelphia Washington	5	49 21			1		1	48 16	3	49.9	49.3 47.7	.9	26. 66 27. 59	.54
Other employees: 1 Baltimore		8						8		53.3	53.7	.5	42.48	.79
New York Philadelphia Washington	9 5	40 35 17			1		1 1	35 34 16	4	48. 2 51. 4 48. 0	49. 4 51. 5 48. 4	2.0	47. 35 38. 92 40. 44	.95 .75

¹ Receiving clerks, foremen, oven firemen, and apprentices.

The modern bakery is a thoroughly organized concern equipped with much or all of the latest and most improved bakery machinery. It is the aim of such bakery to supply the public with the very best products at the least possible cost of production. This can be accomplished only by having efficient organization and efficient

operation of machinery, thus saving time as well as labor.

An official of one of the bakeries that furnished information for this article said, "I am looking forward confidently to the time when our bakery will be so thoroughly equipped with machinery that it will not be necessary for any employee to handle the dough or the bread until after the bread has been baked and wrapped and is ready for our drivers." Another said, "If we returned to old conditions before the installation of machinery (blenders, sifters, mixers, dividers, rounders, molders, panners, wrappers, and automatic

proofers and traveling ovens) we would have to increase our force of productive employees several times and enlarge our floor space to three or four times its present size in order to produce as much bread

per day as we are now producing in that time.'

Bread making, like many other industries, had its days of hard, heavy labor. The introduction of machinery has made the work in the bakery comparatively easy and light, has reduced the number of employees required to operate the bakery, especially the number of bench hands or hand bakers, oven men, and helpers, and has greatly increased production. Without entering into the question as to whether or not increased production has under present conditions made any change in the total cost of production, it may also be said that the use of machinery has made it possible for the consumer to buy good, wholesome bread for less than it would cost, including time and fuel, to produce bread of like quality in the home. As has already been stated the average cost of bread per pound as presented in this article is limited to productive employees only. Other items such as capital, including investments in land, buildings, and equipment, along with cost of materials, insurance, taxes, depreciation, salaries of officials and office employees, wages of drivers and all other nonproductive employees not covered in this study, and probably other items not mentioned, should also be included in order to arrive at the total cost of production per pound.

Below is given a description of the machinery, processes, and jobs or occupations found in the making of bread in the modern bakery.

Machinery.

BLENDING machines.—Blending machines are used to mix two or more kinds of flour so thoroughly that an analysis of any portion of the mixture shows approximately the same per cent of each kind of flour in the portion as in the total mixture. Bread made from the blend or mixture of two or more grades of flour (each of which makes good bread) is usually more desirable than bread made

from any one of the grades.

Out of the 21 bakeries in question, 20 reported the use of electric power in operating blending machines and 1 reported the use of steam. The capacity of the blending machines in these bakeries ranged from 15 to 45 barrels or about 3,000 to 9,000 pounds of flour per hour, most of the bakeries reporting, however, the blending of 3,000 or 4,000 pounds per hour. As a rule, machinery operated by electric power carries the flour from the blending machine to the sifting machine.

Sifting machines.—Sifting machines are used to remove pieces of cord or string, lint, splinters, or any other foreign substance from the flour, to make the flour less compact by breaking any lumps that may be present, and to lighten and aerate it. As the flour is carried by machinery directly from the blender to the sifter the capacity of the sifting machine is necessarily the same as that of the

blending machine.

After the flour has been sifted it is carried by machinery operated usually by electric power to a storage bin which is, as a rule, located in a room directly above the mixing room, so that the flour may be

drawn from the bin into automatic scales used by mixers in weighing

flour for batches of dough.

Batches of dough are made up by formulas. In gathering material for this article agents of the bureau made no effort to and did not obtain any bread-making formulas from any of the bakeries. A few of the officials of the bakeries visited were very much afraid that some of their trade secrets or processes which have cost a great deal and are, therefore, guarded most jealously, might in some way fall into the hands of their competitors. It is assumed that each bakery has its own formulas, and that each formula is somewhat different from any of the formulas of other bakeries. Two formulas which were published in the June 9, 1923, issue of the Bakers Weekly are presented below:

FORMULAS FOR BREAD DOUGH.

Ingredient.	Unit.	Formula No.1.	For- mula No. 2.
Flour. Water Sugar. Salt Milk Lard Yeast. Malt	do.	$ \begin{array}{c} 280 \\ 170 \\ 2 \\ 5 \\ 111 \\ 6 \\ 5\frac{1}{2} \\ 3\frac{3}{4} \end{array} $	300 168 8 4½ 26 4 5

¹ Sweetened, condensed, 42° sugar. ² Sweetened, condensed.

3 Quart.

In view of the statement above concerning the officials of a few bakeries, it is not out of place to quote here part of an editorial which appeared in the May 19, 1923, issue of the Bakers Weekly:

The baker who has been given, by public approval, the assurance that his staff of life is all that it ought to be, does not, in fact, perform the service that is expected of him until he informs his brother baker, who perhaps has been less successful in turning out a high-quality product, how he, too, may attain the height of present-day perfection in a scientifically produced loaf of bread. We believe that the days of selfishness are past when a baker, or for that matter the manufacturer of any other article of food, can keep the secret of his success to himself. The bakers are gradually coming to know that the success of one illuminates the career of the other, while the failure of another will bring discredit upon the entire industry. Thus, in serving mankind, that baker serves best who serves his brother bakers. It is indeed gratifying to note that already successful bakers in different sections of the country are exchanging bread with each other, extending the hand of helpfulness with a view to bringing all bread products up to the highest possible level, and thus laying the foundation for a really lasting, universal service to mankind by the baker.

Mixing machines.—The capacity of mixing machines ranges from 1 to 5 barrels. The bakeries visited are equipped principally with machines of 4-barrel capacity, operated by electric power. They reported that batches of dough ranging from 100 to 1,500 pounds were mixed in from 7 to 20 minutes; in the majority of bakeries studied, the mixing period was 12 minutes. Dough is mixed at a temperature of 78 to 82° F. It is generally understood that approximately 300 one-pound loaves of bread can be made from a barrel of flour.

After the dough has been mixed it is transferred to the fermenting room and kept there at a temperature of approximately 80° F. for a

period ranging from one and one-half to six hours. In a great majority of cases the fermentation period lasts from three to four hours. In most cases, also, the dough is punched or worked down two or three times while in the fermenting room, though one bakery reported that the dough was punched only once. The dough then passes from the fermenting room to the hopper of the dividing or scaling machine or to a bench at which bench hands or hand bakers work.

It may be stated that the long as well as expensive period of fermentation has, according to an article in the May 19, 1923, issue of the Bakers Weekly (pp. 38 to 40), been eliminated by a process, recently developed, of conditioning dough while it is being mixed. Dough after being so conditioned is carried directly from the mixing

machine to the dividing machine.

Dividing or scaling machines.—Scaling machines divide the batches of dough into pieces of uniform weight for loaves of bread, the weight being determined by the regulator of the machine. In this dividing process the dough passes or is drawn from the hopper of the machine into a box, sometimes called the "top box" and is pressed or rammed from that box into the pockets of the machine until the pressure against the regulator is sufficient to complete the operation of dividing the dough into pieces, after which the pieces drop automatically

from the machine to a conveyor or to a stand or table.

Fifteen of the 21 bakeries studied are equipped with six-pocket dividers. Six pieces of dough are scaled by such machines at each operation. Other bakeries covered have 1, 2, 4, or 5 pocket dividers. The machine of lowest capacity scales 30 pieces per minute and the one of highest capacity scales 84 per minute. The capacity of the majority of the machines ranges from 48 to 60 per minute. As it is necessary that the pieces scaled by the dividing machine pass through other machines of the bakery in regular order, the capacity of rounding machines, proofing cabinets, automatic proofers, molding machines, panning machines and final automatic steam proofers are necessarily the same as that of the dividing or scaling machines.

Rounding machines.—After the pieces of dough have been dropped from the dividing machine they are carried by conveyor and dropped automatically into the rounding machine or picked up by hand and placed on it. This machine is circular with a spiral trough and revolves when in operation. The revolving machine rolls the pieces of dough in every direction, balling or rounding them up and then drops them onto conveyors or a small table or stand. The pieces

are dusted with flour while in the machine.

After the dough has been divided into pieces and the pieces have been rounded, they are allowed to remain for 10 or 15 minutes in proofing cabinets, or 6 to 15 minutes in automatic proofers in order that the cells may develop under the process known to the industry as proofing. The pressure on the dough in passing through the dividing machine and the rolling of the pieces in passing through the rounding machine tends to "kill" the dough or cause it to fall.

Proofing cabinets.—Proofing cabinets are more like pieces of furniture than machinery. The cabinets are square with a set of drawers arranged one above the other in the left hand half of each side. They are pivoted to a base so they may be revolved. The drawers on side "A" are filled with pieces of rounded dough. The cabinet

is then moved by hand one-quarter way round and then those on side "B," "C," and "D" are filled in order and moved in like manner. As the drawers on side "D" are being filled, those in side "A" are being emptied. The drawers in the other sides are filled and emptied in regular order as the work continues. The cabinets are kept at a

temperature of 80° F.

Automatic proofers.—It is desirable that all pieces of dough be given the same time or proof. This is not possible with proofing cabinets, rooms, closets, or other receptacles provided with drawers, racks, or stationary shelves on account of the time taken in placing pieces in and taking them out of cabinets, rooms, closets, etc. The automatic proofer solves this problem as it gives each piece of dough exactly the same time of proof. The operation is continuous. The proofer is provided with an endless chain having buckets or shelves attached which receive the pieces of dough as they come from the rounding machine. The loaded buckets or shelves are carried back and forth through the proof box which is kept at a temperature of 98 to 110° F. and the pieces of dough are automatically dumped at the unloading point into the molding machine. The proof box is usually suspended from the ceiling or attached to the wall of the mixing room.

Molding machines.—The molding machines give the pieces of dough the desired shape for loaves of bread. The pieces drop automatically into the machine from the buckets or shelves of the conveyor of the first automatic proofer, or are picked up by hand and placed in the machine, are molded as they pass through, and dropped automatically into oven pans on a panning machine, or onto a small stand or table.

Panning machines.—Panning machines are equipped with an endless chain or conveyor. Empty oven pans are placed by hand on the conveyor, are carried under the molding machine, receive the molded pieces of dough as they drop from the molding machine, and carry and unload them onto the conveyor of the automatic final

steam proofer.

Automatic final steam proofers.—These automatic proofers are equipped with conveyors or endless chains having buckets or shelves attached. Pieces of molded dough after being automatically loaded into the buckets or onto the shelves of the conveyor are carried back and forth through the proofer during the final proofing period of 45 to 60 minutes and unloaded automatically onto the shelves of the conveyor of traveling ovens or to tables or benches at or near the feed end of traveling ovens. The final steam proofing is done at a temperature of 98 to 110° F.

Steam proofing boxes.—Pieces of dough divided, rounded, and molded by bench hands or hand bakers, or by machinery in bakeries not equipped with automatic steam proofers, are proofed in steam proofing boxes or rooms which are kept at a temperature of 98 to 110° F. The pieces are placed on racks, shoved into the proofers,

kept there 45 to 60 minutes, and then shoved to ovens.

Ovens.—Ovens as found in the bakeries covered by this article are of three kinds:

(1) Peel ovens, so called because it is necessary to use a peel ¹ in placing each pan of dough in the oven and in taking each pan of

¹ A peel is a thin and rather broad board with a long handle.

bread out of the oven. The employees who use the peel are called

oven men.

(2) Drawplate ovens, so called because they have baking plates 4 or 5 feet wide and 6 or 7 feet long. One end of the plate has two legs or rollers. When a plate is withdrawn from the chamber of the oven, one end of the plate is partially in and rests on the oven and the other end rests on its legs which are on the floor of the oven room. Many pans of dough are placed on the oven plate. The plate is then returned to the oven chamber and the opening of the oven closed. After the plate has been in the oven the necessary period of time for baking, the plate is withdrawn again and unloaded. The employees who look after the ovens are called oven men.

(3) Traveling or automatic ovens are so called because equipped with endless chains operated by electric power. The chains have conveyors onto which pans of dough are either loaded by hand or are automatically unloaded from the conveyors of automatic steam proofers to the conveyors of the traveling or automatic oven at the feed end of the oven. The pans of dough are carried by the chains through the oven and unloaded from the chain at the delivery end of the oven. There are no oven men at traveling ovens. The employees

who work at the two ends of the ovens feeding pans of dough or dumping bread from pans are called helpers.

Nineteen of the 21 bakeries under discussion are equipped with peel or drawplate ovens, or with both. Two are not equipped with either of these. The 3 bakeries covered in Baltimore are equipped with traveling ovens; 4 of the 5 in New York; 1 of the 5 in Philadelphia; and 2 of the 4 in Washington, making a total of 10 having traveling ovens. The capacity of these traveling ovens ranges from 2,000 to 5,000 loaves per hour. The baking period or time in the oven ranges from 25 to 45 minutes.

Wrapping machines.—All except 2 of the 21 bakeries studied are equipped with bread-wrapping machines operated by electric power. The capacity of the machines ranges from 20 to 60 loaves per minute.

Occupations.

RECEIVING clerks.—Receiving clerks receive and check bills of flour and other ingredients used in making bread, and keep a record of the quantity and kind received. In some bakeries they use small hand trucks for moving sacks of flour into the flour storeroom and from there to the hopper or chute leading to the blending machine, cut the cord by which the top or open ends of sacks are fastened, dump the flour into the hopper, clean empty sacks, and sweep and clean the storeroom. In other bakeries laborers perform these jobs.

Mixers.—Mixers in making up a batch of dough weigh or measure according to formula the specified amounts of flour, water, salt, milk, sugar, lard, malt, yeast, and any other ingredient that may be used in making the bread, deposit them in the mixing machine, close the machine, and start it by pressing an electric button or by turning a switch, turn off the power in like manner after the batch has been mixed, open the machine, and dump the dough from it into a dough trough. In bakeries in which there are no mixers' helpers, mixers

also shove the empty dough troughs from the fermenting room to the mixing room and filled troughs from the mixing room to the fermenting room, punch down or knead the dough while it is there as many times as specified in the formula or process, and dump it from the troughs to a chute leading from the fermenting room to a bench at which bench hands or hand bakers work, or to the hopper of the

dividing or scaling machine.

In weighing flour for a batch of dough the mixer sets the automatic flour scales which are located between the mixing machine and the flour storage bin in a room above and starts the conveyor which carries the flour from the bin to the scales. When the correct weight has been made, the flow of flour is cut off automatically. Water is weighed in like manner by automatic water scales, which are also located above the mixing machine.

The time of bringing together the ingredients for a batch of dough and depositing them in the mixing machine, ranges as reported by the bakeries studied, from 1 to 10 minutes. Fifteen of the 21 bakeries

reported 5 minutes.

Bench hands or hand bakers.—These workers are so called because they do their work by hand at a bench or table. The work consists principally of kneading or pounding dough used in making rye or Vienna bread or rolls; of dividing the dough into pieces of the weight required for loaves of bread or for rolls; of rounding, rolling, and molding these pieces into shape, making them ready for the oven pans; and of placing them in the oven pans.

Machine hands.—Machine hands (including dividers or scalers, rounders, cabinet men, and molders) are so called because they work at, operate, look after, and clean dividing or scaling machines,

rounding machines, proofing cabinets, or molding machines.

Dividers or scalers.—These workers set the dividing or scaling machines for the weight desired for loaves of bread, start and stop the machine by pressing an electric button, and occasionally weigh scaled pieces of dough to ascertain whether or not the correct weight is being made.

Rounders.—Rounders are found only in bakeries in which the pieces of dough are not carried by conveyor from the dividing or scaling machine to the rounding machine. These workers pick up the pieces of dough as they drop from the dividing or scaling machine to a stand or table and drop them onto the rounding machines.

Cabinet men.—Cabinet men are found only in bakeries equipped with revolving proofing cabinets. They pick up the pieces of dough as they drop from the rounding machine to a stand or table and

place them in the drawers of the proofing cabinet.

Molders.—In bakeries equipped with proofing cabinets molders open the drawers of the cabinets, take the pieces of dough out of the drawers, and drop them into the molding machine, or pick up the pieces as they drop from the molding machine and place them in oven pans. In bakeries not equipped with proofing cabinets or with conveyors which carry the pieces from the molding machine to the steam proofer the molders pick up the pieces as they drop from the molding machine and place them in oven pans. In bakeries equipped with conveyors that carry the pieces of dough from the molding machine these employees watch the pieces as they fall automatically

from the molding machine into the oven pans, and arrange such

pieces as do not fall in the correct position in the pans.

Oven men.—In the bakeries studied oven men are divided into two groups. Those in the first group work at peel ovens, where it is necessary to use an instrument called a peel 2 in doing their work. A pan of dough is placed on the broad end of the peel by a helper and the oven man shoves the pan into the oven and pulls the peel from under the pan leaving the pan in the oven and, after the bread has been baked, shoves the peel under the pan and pulls it out of the oven. Those in the second group work at drawplate ovens, pull out the baking plate, load it with pans of dough, shove the loaded plate into the oven and after the bread has been baked pull the plate out of the oven.

Helpers.—In the bakeries covered, helpers are divided into four groups. Those in the first group assist the mixers as shown in the description given of the work of mixers. Those in the second group place the empty oven pans conveniently at hand for the bench hands or machine molders, set the pans filled with dough on the racks, and shove the racks into the steam proofing room. Those in the third group shove the racks from the proofing room to the ovens and assist the oven men in loading and unloading pans of dough or bread on and off the peel, and in dumping bread from oven pans. Those in the last group feed the traveling ovens by placing pans of dough on conveyors at the "feed end" of the ovens, or catch the pans of bread as they come from the "delivery end" of the ovens, and dump the bread from the pans.

Laborers.—Laborers (including blenders, cleaners, dumpers, pan greasers, porters, sack cleaners, sifters, sweepers, and truckers) do various kinds of unskilled work, such as cleaning and sweeping floors, greasing oven pans, and work of like character in the bread-making

department of the modern bakery.

Wrappers.—These workers operate the electrical wrapping machines. There are two wrappers at each machine. One places the bread on the machine and starts and stops it by pressing an electric button, and the other takes the wrapped bread off the machine

and places it on the bread racks.

Packers.—The packers make up orders of bread for the drivers or for shipment from bakeries, and place the bread on the bread racks, in baskets or shipping boxes. This task completes the preparation of bread in the modern bakery, making it ready for the use of the consumer.

² See footnote 1, p. 9.

Protection of Workers Under Mexican State Labor Laws. 1

By Ethel C. Yohe, of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Hygiene and Safety.

A RTICLE 123 of the Federal Constitution of Mexico, promulgated on February 5, 1917, has been called the "bill of rights" of Mexican labor, in that it affords through its labor and social

welfare provisions definite protection for the laboring class.

This article prohibits the employment of women and young persons under 16 years of age in dangerous and unhealthful occupations.² It requires employers in agricultural, industrial, mining, or similar classes of work to furnish comfortable and sanitary dwellings for their workmen, the annual rent charged for them not to exceed 6 per cent of the assessed value of the property. Employers are also required to provide schools, dispensaries, markets, and other services necessary to the community. The adoption, in factories and shops, of sanitary conditions and safety devices is compulsory. The article provides that a worker may quit his employment before the expiration of the contract without being held liable for breach of contract if the employer, or his subordinates with his consent, maltreats the worker or his family. In such a case the employer shall either perform the contract or pay the worker an indemnity equal to three months' wages.

In this study of the labor and social welfare laws enacted in the several Mexican States dealing with the protection of workers, it will be plainly seen that article 123 forms the basis for these laws. The nine labor codes used in this study are as follows: Campeche, Chiapas, Vera Cruz, and Yucatan, 1918; Coahuila, 1920; Michoacan and Puebla, 1921; and Chihuahua and Querétaro, 1922; also the Hidalgo labor accident law of 1915, the Sonora labor law of 1919, and the labor and social welfare law of Sinaloa of 1920. The section on hygiene and safety regulations is based on a study of 12 laws, while 11 were used for the section on shop regulations, Hidalgo

not having enacted any laws on this subject as yet.

Employers' Obligations and Responsibilities.

All of the 11 State labor laws (Campeche, Chiapas, Chihuahua, Coahuila, Michoacan, Puebla, Querétaro, Sinaloa, Sonora, Vera Cruz, and Yucatan) require employers in agricultural, industrial, mining, or similar classes of work to furnish comfortable and sanitary dwellings for their workmen, for which they may charge rents not exceeding 6 per cent annually of the assessed value of the property. This applies only to those establishments employing more than 100 workers. The laws of 10 States (all except Coahuila) further

¹The following sources were used in the preparation of this article: Campeche, Codigo del trabajo, Campeche, 1918; Chiapas, Ley reglamentaria del trabajo, Tuxtla Gutiérrez, 1918; Chihuahua, Ley del trabajo, Chihuahua, 1922; Coahuila, Ley reglamentaria del artículo 123 de la constitución géneral de la republica, Saltillo, 1921; Hidalgo, Ley sobre accidentes del trabajo, Pachuca, 1915; Michoacan de Ocampo, Ley del trabajo número 46, Morelia, 1921; Puebla, Codigo de trabajo, Puebla, 1921; Querétaro, Ley del trabajo número 44, Querétaro, 1922; Sinaloa, Ley del trabajo y de la previsión secial, premulgada en el decreto número 166, Culiacan [1920]; Sonora, Boletín Oficial, Hermosillo, Apr. 29, 1919, and May 4, 1919; Vera Cruz-Llave, Ley del trabajo (1918], Jalapa, 1922; Yucatan, Codigo del trabajo, decreto número 386, Mérida, 1918.
²A more detailed study of this provision may be found in MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, November, 1923, pp. 198 to 201.

specify that the employers shall also provide schools. The establishment of dispensaries and other services necessary to the community are required of employers by the States of Campeche, Chiapas, Chihuahua, Michoacan, Puebla, Querétaro, Vera Cruz, and Yucatan. Five States (Campeche, Chiapas, Chihuahua, Michoacan, and Yucatan) stipulate that when the population in a labor center exceeds 200 inhabitants the employer must provide a tract of land of not less than 5,000 square meters for the establishment of public markets and the construction of buildings designed for municipal services and places of amusement.

'According to the laws of Campeche, Coahuila, Hidalgo, Puebla, Querétaro, and Yucatan, all employers must see that the work is done under the most favorable conditions from the standpoint of the safety and health of the workers.

Under the laws of 11 States (Campeche, Chiapas, Chihuahua, Coahuila, Michoacan, Puebla, Querétaro, Sinaloa, Sonora, Vera Cruz, and Yucatan) employers are obliged to observe, in factories, workshops, and other industrial establishments, the legal requirements as to sanitation and health and to adopt adequate measures to prevent accidents in the use of machines and other instruments so as to give the best guaranty for the health and life of the workers compatible with the nature of the work. Employers in Campeche and Yucatan who do not live up to this requirement will be subject to the penalty imposed by the penal code for such an offense, as well as to the civil liabilities involved. The law of Hidalgo states that employers are obligated to use every scientific measure to prevent industrial accidents. The use of defective machinery, tools, and other equipment is prohibited, as well as the employment of incompetent workers. A fine of from 10 to 1,000 pesos (\$4.99 to \$498.50, par) may be imposed on those employers who do not comply with the law in these respects. An additional requirement is made of employers in the State of Michoacan and Vera Cruz. They shall adopt adequate measures to prevent occupational diseases, heeding just recommendations made by the workers. Employers in Sinaloa and Sonora are obligated to prevent, if possible, the spread of infectious diseases.

In Chihuahua employers are required to give to each worker a printed notice specifying precautions to be taken to avoid accidents in the handling of machinery and other equipment, and the workers must comply with these instructions. The Querétaro law merely stipulates that employers shall notify the workers when the defective condition of a machine endangers their welfare. The directors of an enterprise in Sonora shall post warning notices in all dangerous places. Furthermore, safety devices shall be placed, whenever possible, on machines and other equipment, and all scientific measures shall be used to prepare accidents.

used to prevent accidents.

A site selected for a factory or workshop in Chihuahua must be approved by the sanitary authorities and meet the requirements of the sanitary code and police regulations, and must not be damp,

dangerous, or unhealthful.

A person employing a worker to operate machines, etc., who has not the certificate required by the technical section of the labor department of Campeche shall be punished by a fine of from 50 to 500 pesos (\$24.93 to \$249.25, par).

First-aid, Medical, and Hospital Treatment for Employees.

The laws of 11 States (Campeche, Chihuahua, Coahuila, Hidalgo, Michoacan, Puebla, Querétaro, Sinaloa, Sonora, Vera Cruz, and Yucatan) contain provisions requiring employers to provide first-aid treatment immediately, as well as necessary riedicines, in case of accident to the workers. Medical treatment by a doctor, at the expense of the employer, for workers who suffer accidental injury is prescribed under the laws of all the States except Michoacan and Querétaro. In establishments in Coahuila employing more than 100 workers, the employer must employ a licensed physician to attend the workers. The States of Campeche, Coahuila, Puebla, Sinaloa, Sonora, Vera Cruz, and Yucatan specify in their laws that employers shall maintain the necessary equipment to aid accident victims. If an accident occurs in a factory, workshop, or other labor center in Chihuahua, the employer must notify the city authorities of that fact within 24 hours.

In the States of Sinaloa and Sonora, hospital service for not more than three months is to be furnished by the employer to those workers who are ill through no fault of their own. The law of Chihuahua relative to hospital service differs from that of Sinaloa and Sonora in that at least 100 must be employed in the factory or workshop and that the hospital treatment is to be furnished for two months instead of three. Hospitals established in accordance with the provisions of this law shall be supplied with medicines and necessary equipment, shall be kept in a sanitary condition, and shall be attended by the company physician, who shall act as an assistant to the superior

health council in addition to his regular duties.

Illness of the workers which is not chronic, and which has not been contracted through any fault of their own, may be treated by a physician at the employer's expense in Chiapas (providing this illness

does not last more than a month) and Coahuila.

When an enterprise in Michoacan has a capital of 50,000 pesos (\$24,925, par) or more and is more than 3 kilometers (1.9 miles) from a town, the employer must provide a physician and medicines free of charge to his employees.

An employer in Chihuahua has the right to require a medical exam-

ination of any worker who requests employment of him.

Employees' Obligations.

In case of grave danger in the establishment, or in emergencies, the workers shall give assistance in every possible way, under the laws of Campeche, Chiapas, Chihuahua, Coahuila, Michoacan, Puebla, Querétaro, Sinaloa, Sonora, and Vera Cruz. In these States, as well as in Yucatan, all workers must abstain from imprudent acts which may endanger the safety of themselves, of their fellow workers, or of the factory, shop, or other work place.

In Chihuahua workers suffering with infectious diseases may not be employed. Conflicts arising under this provision shall be settled by the sanitary authorities. A worker who has an infectious disease must be quarantined immediately and not be permitted to work

until all danger of contagion has passed.

Employees in factories, workshops, or other industrial establishments in Sonora must not remove, damage, destroy, or prevent the

use of any safety device or means of protection in the establishment. Furthermore, they may not deface, destroy, conceal, or damage any notice intended for the information and protection of the workers.

Specific rules and regulations concerning hygiene and safety in the factories, workshops, and other industrial establishments are given in considerable detail in the State laws and are here considered topically.

Ventilation and Air Space.

All workrooms in factories, workshops, and other industrial establishments shall be provided with proper and sufficient means of ventilation, according to the laws of Campeche, Chihuahua, Michoacan, Puebla, Querétaro, and Yucatan. Two square meters (2.39 square vards) of floor space and 9 cubic meters (11.77 cubic yards) of air space are required for each employee in the State of Chihuahua. The laws of Michoacan and Yucatan place the minimum amount of air space at 10 cubic meters (13.08 cubic yards), while the Puebla law requires 7 cubic meters (9.16 cubic yards) for each employee. The ventilation must be so regulated as to prevent drafts from endangering the health or comfort of the employees, according to the law of Chihuahua. In the State of Puebla, if, owing to the nature of the manufacturing process carried on in the factory workroom, excessive heat be created therein, a sufficient number of windows shall be provided. There shall be posted in all factories, workshops, and other industrial establishments in the State of Yucatan a notice specifying the number of persons who may be employed in any room of a factory.

Sanitation.

Six of the States (Campeche, Chihuahua, Michoacan, Puebla, Querétaro, and Yucatan) require all establishments to be kept in a clean and sanitary condition. The law of Chihuahua further specifies that establishments must be cleaned before work begins and that the premises must be kept free from all garbage and rubbish.

The law of Puebla contains a provision to the effect that floors in factories, workshops, and other industrial establishments shall be washed carefully at least once a day, either before or after working

hours but never during that time.

All workshops, factories, offices, and business stores in Chihuahua shall provide sanitary cuspidors and post a conspicuous notice stating the danger of careless expectoration.

Emanations.

The laws of Campeche, Chihuahua, Michoacan, Puebla, Querétaro, and Yucatan stipulate that if, in the course of the business carried on in any workroom of a factory, dust, gases, fumes, vapors, fibers, or other impurities are generated or released in quantities tending to injure the health of the employees, proper devices to remove such impurities from the workroom shall be provided. In Chihuahua if, due to the nature of the industry, smoke is given off, pipes or chimneys shall be maintained for its disposal, so as to prevent fire and its becoming a nuisance to the neighborhood. If necessary, the employer will be obliged entirely to eliminate the smoke.

Drinking Water.

There shall be provided in every factory at all times for the use of employees a sufficient supply of clean, cool, and pure drinking water, according to the laws of Chihuahua, Michoacan, Puebla, Vera Cruz, and Yucatan. In Chihuahua the use of a common glass or cup is prohibited. Sanitary drinking fountains approved by the superior health council may be furnished or a steady stream of water with moderate pressure may be installed.

Waste Water.

Waste water from factories, workshops, and other industrial establishments in Chihuahua, unless purified by a special chemical process, may not be thrown into channels of water which are used for domestic and agricultural use, but must have separate conduits.

Toilets.

There shall be provided in all factories, workshops, or other industrial establishments in the States of Chihuahua, Puebla, and Yucatan a sufficient number of clean and well-ventilated toilets. The laws of Chihuahua and Yucatan require separate toilets for each sex. There shall be at least one toilet for every 25 persons employed, the floors thereof to be of waterproof construction, according to the law of Puebla. In Chihuahua one toilet must be supplied for every 30 persons.

Lavatories and Baths.

The laws of Chihuahua, Michoacan, Puebla, Querétaro, Vera Cruz, and Yucatan require establishments to provide and maintain adequate and convenient wash rooms or washing facilities for employees. In Michoacan and Vera Cruz, if the city authorities have not furnished public baths, employers must provide and maintain them. In industrial, mining, or like enterprises the nature of which makes it necessary that workers take their meals within the establishment, the employers are required to provide lavatories for the benefit of the workers, according to the laws of Michoacan and Querétaro. The law of the latter State stipulates that if the workers do not use these facilities, the city authorities may compel them to do so.

Lighting.

In every factory, workshop, or other industrial establishment in the States of Chihuahua, Vera Cruz, and Yucatan, proper lighting must be provided. In Yucatan the lighting in factory workrooms shall be such as not to cause strain on the vision or glare in the eyes of the workers. The law of Chihuahua stipulates that when the natural light in factories does not suffice, artificial illuminants, preferably electricity, shall be used.

All gas jets and other lights in factories in Puebla must be properly inclosed in glass globes, or in metal coverings, if the establishment

uses or produces inflammable materials.

Doors and Exits.

All doors in factories, workshops, and other industrial establishments in the States of Chihuahua, Puebla, and Yucatan shall open outward. No door or other opening shall be obstructed or locked during working hours unless the locks are very simple and easily manipulated, according to the laws of Puebla and Yucatan. In Puebla exits shall be indicated by means of conspicuous signs. In Chihuahua and Puebla entrances to factories shall be large, and an adequate number of doors be provided in all factories, workshops, and other industrial establishments.

Alcoholic Beverages.

The carrying of alcoholic beverages into factories, workshops, or other industrial establishments is strictly prohibited in the States of Michoacan, Querétaro, and Yucatan.

Fire Protection.

The laws of Chihuahua and Yucatan require all factories, workshops, and other industrial establishments to provide and maintain a fire-extinguishing apparatus. The Chihuahua law also requires that in order to prevent fires great care shall be taken in the use of lamps. It further provides that inflammable substances may be manufactured only in buildings of fireproof construction, and stipulates that storage rooms containing raw materials and the finished product shall be separate from workrooms in which inflammable articles are manufactured, wherein electric lights or safety lamps should be used exclusively. The law of Puebla requires gas pipes to be of metal, and lighting fixtures not to be near the inflammable parts of the building, the machinery, or the materials.

The Puebla law prescribes also that inflammable liquids and substances shall be kept in closed metallic receptacles. These, as well as gas meters and oil supplies, shall be stored in a safe place and may not under any condition remain in the corridors or near the staircases. The use of combustible liquids for lighting purposes is prohibited in Puebla, unless the apparatus is equipped with all necessary precautions to prevent the spreading of gases. If used, these liquids must be taken into the factory during the day and before the work begins.

Floors and Stairways.

The law of Chihuahua requires floors in all establishments to be

waterproof and smooth.

All stairways in industrial establishments shall be of solid construction and provided with proper handrails, in the States of Chihuahua and Puebla. The law of the last-mentioned State contains the added requirements that the stairways shall be of fireproof construction, and that there shall be an adequate number to permit immediate egress in the event of a fire or other emergency.

Roofs and Walls.

The roof and walls of a factory building should be well constructed, so as to prevent sudden changes in temperature therein, according to the law of Chihuahua.

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Dressing Rooms.

According to the law of Yucatan, separate rooms equipped with washstands shall be provided for each sex, when the nature of the work necessitates the changing of clothes. In manufacturing and industrial establishments in Chihuahua the workers shall be provided with dressing rooms.

Recreation Halls.

In Querétaro the employer is obliged to furnish recreation rooms for his employees.

Railings.

Two States (Chihuahua and Puebla) require all shafts, openings, deposits, containers of corrosive or scalding fluids, and boilers to be provided with railings or similar protection.

Eating in Workrooms.

Establishments in Puebla which produce poisonous substances or in which injurious gases are emitted may not allow their workmen to eat their lunches inside the workrooms.

Disinfection.

Factories and workshops in Chihuahua shall be disinfected once a year and whenever, in the judgment of a doctor or the sanitary authority, there is any suspicion of the appearance of an infectious disease.

Accident Prevention in the Use of Machinery.

The following provisions contained in the law of Chihuahua have as their object the prevention of accidents, as far as possible, in the use of machines and similar equipment in factories, workshops, and other industrial establishments: Machines shall be so arranged, in large rooms, as to avoid danger to the workers. They shall be firmly placed on a solid foundation away from the partition walls, in order to avoid transmitting vibrations to the adjoining walls. Dangerous machines and those run by electricity shall bear conspicuous placards, marked "Danger." According to the laws of Chihuahua and Puebla, all steam, gas, or electric motors, hydraulic rollers, turbines, and the like shall be so guarded by railings as to be accessible to the operators only and not to the other workers. These States require the aisles between machines to be at least 80 centimeters (2.6 feet) wide and the flooring to be level, not having any weak or yielding parts. In Chihuahua and Puebla all connecting rods, upright posts, balance beams, interlocking wheels, leather belting, transmission cables, rollers, friction cones, and in general all projecting, moving, and dangerous parts of machines shall be substantially guarded. Before the starting and stopping of all machines, effective signals shall give ample warning. An effective device to separate each machine from the general power shaft shall be provided for the use of the manager and machinists in a factory or workshop in Chihuahua and Puebla, and in Puebla emergency stops for the motors shall also be provided. The law of Yucatan contains the following provisions on this subject: All elevators, cranes, and balance beams attached to a steam, oil, or gas motor, as well as all dangerous parts of machinery and transmission apparatus,

shall be guarded for the protection of the workers. All boilers used for generating steam shall be provided with safety valves, manometers, and water gauges to indicate the pressure of the steam and the height of the water in the boiler. The testing faucets shall be kept in good order, and the boilers must be emptied and cleaned weekly. Each boiler must bear a label stating the maximum amount of pressure it can stand.

Inspectors may order defective machines stopped, according to the laws of Campeche and Yucatan. Such machines may be run again only after the machine has been repaired and a new authorization has been obtained. A penalty of from 50 to 500 pesos (\$24.93 to \$249.25, par) shall be imposed for an infraction of this regulation.

Special Regulations Required in Certain Industries.

The law of Chihuahua gives in detail a list of industries which must observe definite regulations for the prevention of occupational diseases and industrial accidents. Among the more important industries are the following: All chemical, pharmaceutical, and bacteriological laboratories; factories producing gunpowder, cartridges, nitric, sulphuric, and carbonic acids; manufactories of poisonous and

alcoholic substances; and printing and engraving shops.

The regulations are as follows: (1) The dry pulverization of irritating and poisonous materials shall be done in a closed machine (Chihuahua and Puebla). (2) Acids shall be kept in well-constructed containers, while explosive and poisonous substances shall be stored in safety boxes labeled "danger" or "poison." (3) In those industries likely to cause occupational diseases the company physician is to keep close watch for the initial symptoms of such diseases, and upon their appearance in any workman, such workman is to be taken off that work and given prompt treatment. (4) The employer shall furnish, at his own expense, work clothes, caps, gloves, eyeglasses, masks, and certain pharmaceutical preparations for the workers, where they are necessary, and the workers shall be obliged to use them. (5) In all factories in which fumes or gases of a poisonous nature are given off, the employers must use every scientific measure to collect and dispose of them. If, in the opinion of the sanitary authority, this is impossible, the condition of the air must be carefully watched and work stopped when any danger appears. (6) Industries using hides, horsehair, old rags, etc., as raw materials must first have them disinfected. If the workers' hands are injured in any way, they shall be protected. (7) In the paper and pasteboard industries, special places shall be designated for the deposit of raw materials, from which they may be removed only after they have been moistened and placed in closed bags or boxes with lids. The workers who do this must be protected by caps, work clothes, and cotton respirators, and must keep their hands and faces clean.
(8) In the glass-bottle industry the use of mechanical means for bottle blowing is obligatory. If, however, in the judgment of the sanitary authority, the establishment can not afford to use the mechanical process, the glass blowers' pipe may be used, but by only one person after it has been disinfected, and after the doctor has inspected the operator's mouth. (9) In the tobacco industry pregnant women and nursing mothers shall wear work clothes and

cotton respirators. (10) In those industries in which employees work under high atmospheric pressure and in poison laden air they shall be examined carefully by the doctor. The workday in such industries shall be shorter than the ordinary workday, depending upon the intensity of the pressure. Before going into corridors, shafts, or conduits in which dangerous atmospheric conditions are thought to be present, air should be tested scientifically, and great care should be taken to maintain respirable air in that vicinity. (11) In repairing electric cables and telephones and in the construction of buildings, sewers, and tunnels, employers shall provide the workers with the necessary equipment for their protection and safety.

Regulations passed by other States on this subject are as follows:
(1) In mines, drainage systems, chemical plants, and in general all undertakings in insanitary regions in Michoacan and Vera Cruz, the spread of malarial or infectious diseases should be prevented as far as possible, cooperation being had with the sanitary authorities.

(2) In establishments in Puebla in which organic substances are employed, the floors shall be waterproof and smooth, and the walls shall be of cement or other easily washed material. The floors and walls shall be washed with a disinfectant whenever necessary. Fragments of organic substances may not be left in the workrooms unless immediately placed in closed metallic containers, which must be washed daily.

(3) The law of Puebla requires the installation of apparatus to secure good respiration in flour mills and similar enterprises in which fine dust is emitted to such an extent that it is injurious to the health of the workers. In order to carry off deleterious gases, ventilators shall be attached to the apparatus from which such

gases are emitted.

(4) The law of Querétaro requires employers of workers in tunnels, mines, drainage works, cyanid plants, and in general all work which is carried on in unhealthful regions, to take every measure to improve conditions and to prevent the spread of malarial diseases.

Miscellaneous Provisions.

In Chihuahua, in order to install boilers, motors, or cables for light or for motive power, a written permit must be obtained from the municipal authorities, subject to the provisions of the sanitary code and the police regulations. Factories which manufacture inflammable liquids or explosive substances are subject to the provisions of the sanitary code and the police regulations and shall be located outside of towns and observe all precautions prescribed by the superior health council. Factories, workshops, and like buildings must be constructed in accordance with the requirements of the sanitary code. Failure to comply with the sanitary requirements of the labor law and the sanitary code is punishable by fine. In work in coal mines, oil wells, and similar classes of work the storage, transportation, and handling of explosives are subject to the regulations of the police.

In the State of Michoacan the superior health council is authorized to make additional regulations concerning hygiene and safety.

It is left to the municipalities in Puebla to prescribe detailed rules for sanitation and safety, especially as regards ventilation,

light, drinking water, emanations, fire precautions, and special rules for dangerous occupations, but these regulations must accord with the requirements of the superior health council. The municipal authorities, in conjunction with the labor and social welfare department, shall see that these provisions are enforced. The manufacture of explosive materials must be conducted outside the towns, and the precautions prescribed by the labor and social welfare department observed. A fine of from 10 to 100 pesos (\$4.99 to \$49.85, par) shall be imposed on those not complying with the safety and hygiene provisions.

The superior health council of Querétaro may establish additional regulations concerning hygiene and safety in this State, to which

all employers shall conform.

According to the laws of Campeche, Coahuila, and Puebla, any modifications in the regulations pertaining to the improvement in safety and hygiene may be enforced immediately without waiting for the approval of the labor department, or, in the case of Coahuila, the board of conciliation and arbitration.

As in article 123 of the Federal Constitution, all the States allow a worker to quit before the expiration of his contract if his employer or his family or subordinates with his consent, maltreat the worker

or his family.

Practically all of the Mexican State laws provide for labor inspectors, whose duty it is to see that all safety and hygiene regulations are carried out.

Shop Regulations.

OF THE 11 available Mexican State labor laws which deal with the protection of workers (Campeche, Chiapas, Chihuahua, Coahuila, Michoacan, Puebla, Querétaro, Sinaloa, Sonora, Vera Cruz, and Yucatan) all contain provisions requiring shop regulations (reglamentos de los talleres) in industrial, commercial, and agricultural establishments, in permanent labor camps, and other labor centers. The purpose of this provision is to establish a basis for harmonious relations between employer and employee.

Formation and Approval of Regulations.

The laws of three States (Chihuahua, Sinaloa, and Sonora) stipulate that workshop rules be drawn up by the employers, after which they must be approved by the central boards of conciliation and arbitration. In three States (Michoacan, Querétaro, and Vera Cruz) such rules are drawn up by a commission composed of two representatives each of the employer and the workers, while in Puebla the commission has three representatives each of the employer and workers. In the laws of the other States (Campeche, Chiapas, Coahuila, and Yucatan) the regulations are drawn up by common agreement (común acuerdo) of workers and employers. While the laws of Campeche and Puebla require the labor bureau to approve shop rules, Coahuila requires the municipal board of conciliation and arbitration to sanction them, and the other State laws designate the central boards of conciliation and arbitration for this purpose.

Posting of Regulations.

A legible copy of the regulations is to be posted in a conspicuous place on the premises, and the workers are not to be denied the privilege of obtaining copies, according to the laws of Campeche, Chihuahua, Coahuila, Puebla, and Yucatan.

Agreement of Shop Rules with Laws and Contracts.

In seven of the States (Campeche, Chihuahua, Coahuila, Michoacan, Querétaro, Sonora, and Yucatan), the provisions of the regulations must agree with the terms of the individual and collective contracts and with the labor laws.

Workmen who enter the employ of an establishment after the works regulations have been adopted and put into effect are obliged to submit to them, according to the laws of Campeche, Coahuila,

Puebla, and Yucatan.

Contents of Regulations.

All 11 State laws agree in a general way that the shop regulations must contain clear and exact rules, to which employers and employees are subject. The laws of Campeche, Chihuahua, Coahuila, Puebla, and Yucatan, however, give in detail the specific points which must be included in the shop rules in their respective States. The following requirements, in substance, are in force in these States: The regulations shall contain a statement of the rate of wages or earnings and the manner of determining them; the time and place of payment; the time of assigning materials and receiving work done outside of the establishment; the hour of beginning and of stopping work; and the time allotted for rest periods and for the noonday meal. There shall be instructions in the shop regulations for the cleaning of machinery, other apparatus, and the interior and exterior of the factories, specifying when this shall be done and indicating precautions to be taken. Workshops should maintain first-aid equipment, and practical instruction in first aid should be included in the shop rules. Under the laws of these States the rights and obligations of the managing personnel and inspection officers are to be clearly defined. The recourse granted the worker in the event of differences or difficulties arising in the relations between employer and worker must be stated in the rules. An act which is detrimental to the worker or which limits his liberty is prohibited by the laws of Coahuila, Michoacan, Puebla, Querétaro, and Sinaloa, and should be so stated in the rules. Any other provisions, common to labor codes, for the better execution of the work, may be added to the regulations.

The following provisions appear less frequently: 1. Stipulation as to giving the employee notice of the termination of his work (Campeche and Coahuila); 2. Provision specifying penalties and fines which may be imposed on account of infraction of the rules, and when and by whom such action is to be taken (Campeche, Puebla, and Yucatan); 3. Provision for a safe and healthful place of employment (Campeche, Coahuila, and Puebla); 4. Provision for the designation of representatives of the employers' interests in the management and inspection of the work and of representatives of the workers'

interests (Chihuahua and Puebla); 5. Statement of the quality of an apprentice's work necessary for promotion to the class of laborer (Coahuila); 6. Regulation prohibiting abuse of the workers, by word or deed, by managers, section bosses, clerks, agents, and caretakers (Chihuahua, Coahuila, Michoacan, and Querétaro); 7. Regulation forbidding managers to bring pressure to bear on workers to quit work or to resign from unions or associations to which they belong (Coahuila, Michoacan, and Querétaro); 8. Statement of the restrictions on the inspection rights of the worker (Puebla); 9. Provision indicating the length of time within which the worker or employer may give notice of his intention to suspend work even if the law or the labor contract does not provide therefor (Puebla); 10. Specification of the duties of each worker in the different departments, as well as those of the department chiefs, from the lowest to the highest (Puebla); 11. Designation of a person to whom the workers may present complaints and the form thereof, and fixing 10 days as the maximum time for a reply, the only exception being in the event of an emergency (Puebla); 12. Designation of the person who shall give the workers orders (Puebla); 13. Provision prohibiting employers from withholding the wages of a worker on the pretext of a fine (Yucatan); 14. Designation of the method by which syndicate representatives may make collections in the workshops for insurance funds, especially invalidity, life, unemployment, and accident insurance (Puebla).

Labor Inspection.

In seven States (Campeche, Chiapas, Chihuahua, Coahuila, Hidalgo, Michoacan, and Yucatan) provision is made in the laws for labor inspectors, whose duty it is to see that the shop regulations are enforced. Under the laws of the State of Campeche, appeal to the chief of the labor department may be had from decisions and orders of labor inspectors which are thought to be unjust.

Procedure in Case of Crimes.

According to the laws of Campeche, Chiapas, Chihuahua, and Sonora, in case of the commission of a crime, if there is no established public authority in the labor center, the employer shall detain the person responsible, furnish the victim with necessary aid, investigate the facts, and make an immediate report to the nearest authority.

Submission of Rules to Labor Department.

The law of Campeche provides that after shop regulations have been drawn up, they shall be sent to the department of labor, which shall specify a period of five days within which the workers may make comments or criticisms. Three days after the termination of this period the department shall give its decision and return the regulations for their observance.

Penalties for Violations of Regulations.

The laws of three States (Campeche, Puebla, and Yucatan) stipulate that no punishment may be imposed on the workers for violations of regulations, unless they have been incorporated in the shop rules.

These laws also contain provisions to the effect that a worker shall be given notice of any punishment imposed on him within three days from the time it is imposed, so that he may appeal his case to the board of conciliation in Puebla and Yucatan or to the department of labor in Campeche. According to the law of Puebla, if the board of conciliation and arbitration decides that the worker has been punished without just cause, any wages which may have been withheld must be paid to him, but on the other hand, if the board decides that the worker's conduct deserves it, his punishment may be increased. In the State of Chihuahua, when the regulations are violated by either the employer, his representative, or an employee, a written notice must be sent to the central board of conciliation and arbitration and the charges confirmed before the punishment is imposed. Every employer in Campeche and Puebla must keep a register of the names of all penalized employees, stating the date and nature of the violation, and the punishment imposed. This register shall always be at the disposition of the labor inspectors, under penalty of from 20 to 100 pesos (\$9.97 to \$49.85, par) fine, for each refusal.

Modification of the Rules.

The law of Campeche stipulates that any modifications of the rules which are being considered shall be posted in a conspicuous place in the factory or workshop for a week, and then sent to the department of labor for its approval. The States of Coahuila, Puebla, and Yucatan have laws which are practically the same as that of Campeche on this subject, except for the fact that the municipal boards of conciliation and arbitration must approve the modifications, but in Yucatan the modifications must be approved also by the central board of conciliation and arbitration.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS AND LABOR CONDITIONS.

Underground Management in Bituminous Coal Mines.

AN ENGINEERING study of the problems of underground management in bituminous coal mines has been made by the United States Coal Commission with a view to discovering the methods by which operating costs can be reduced without any reduction in wage rates, which are said to amount to about 70 per cent of the cost of coal at the mine. The methods outlined in the report for securing this result include (1) development and efficient application of mechanical devices to replace hand loading; (2) better control and coordination of underground operations, particularly cutting, loading, and haulage; (3) standardization and coordination of the work of the individual mine worker; (4) standardization of details of construction and dimensions of mine cars, locomotives, track, and all other equipment; and (5) multiple shifting of work in the mines and preparation plants, thus obtaining greater production with the same plant investment.

The study is confined strictly to a consideration of details of underground management, and the problem of increased production is not correlated in this report to the problem of railroad car supply, excess mines, and the storage of coal, which are treated elsewhere in the report of the commission. While conditions vary in different mines in regard to the thickness and character of the seam, the quantity and nature of slate, and other physical conditions which necessitate differences in operating details, in general the manner of handling work underground is quite uniform, in fact, as much so as in many other large industries. But unlike many of the major lines of industry, in which there have been remarkable developments, there has been comparatively little progress in management methods in bitu-

minous coal mining during recent years.

Type of Management.

IN striking contrast with developments in factory management during recent years, in which the details of laying out the plant, routing materials, and standardizing operations have been worked out so that there is a minimum of waste effort, the operation of underground mine work is usually under the control of the mine foreman or manager with his assistant foremen or face bosses. In some cases the assistant foremen are selected with care and are required to hold certificates of competency, given only after rigid examinations in accordance with the mining law. In many mines, however, these requirements are ignored and the mining experience of the assistant is his only qualification for the position. The need, moreover, is for competent men for these positions, since as many as 150 men may be working under one of these assistant bosses.

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The work of the mine foreman and his assistants is practically the same in the common type of room-and-pillar operations and in the long-wall system. The duties of the foreman involve a visit, usually twice a day, to inspect the quality of the work of the men under his supervision. He has to see that coal is properly gobbed; that is, cleaned of slate and other waste and refuse which is thrown out by the miner in spaces where the coal has been cut, and that only clean coal is loaded; advise the men on the location and slant of shot holes and the loading required; examine the track in the room; inspect the timbering; sound the roof; listen to complaints; dicker with the men as to the amount of work, if any, on slate or rock which is to be done by the day or job; come to an agreement on claims for allowances for dead work; and take up grievances with the pit committee. The mine foreman is generally on good terms with the miners, since the miners or loaders (the terms are used interchangeably) and machine cutters are paid by the mine carload or on a tonnage basis, and the foreman is thus relieved of the necessity of driving the men.

The mining is usually done in rooms which vary in width when the coal is cut out from about 18 to 40 feet and in length from 200 to 300 feet, with pillars or walls of coal varying in size according to the physical characteristics of the coal bed, the roof, pavement, overburden, and system of mining, some walls being 12 to 60 feet in width. Rooms in flat mines correspond to stopes or breasts in steep workings. The loaders work alone, one man to a room or an entry (the underground passageway cut through the coal and used for haulage), or two men work alternately in two or three rooms. The assignment of men to their working places is simple, since a miner remains in the same room sometimes for several months

before it is completed.

In addition to the duties of the foreman already outlined, he must supervise the cutting machines and coordinate, in the miles of underground workings under his supervision, the blasting, cutting, loading, and hauling of coal in order to avoid delays, and plan and direct the work of the men on a day wage (company men) who excavate rock in entries, lay track, place trolley wire, set timbers, and build permanent walls for roof support and temporary walls and brattices for ventilation. He, with his assistants, must also direct traffic and the removal of pillars in second mining or pillaring operations, and he has the responsibility for such other details as pumps and drainage, ventilation, condition of the roadbed, decision as to the amount and location of timbering, care of the injured, and clean-up of rock falls, while in general he must always consider the safety of the employees, the protection of the mine, and the largest and most economical production. From this enumeration of the duties of the foreman and his assistants it will be clear that the profits of the mine depend largely upon their ability and the quality of service The report says that the responsibilities are too great they render. for any but the best men available, and that the presence of so many incompetent men indicates a pressing need for better underground management. It might be thought that a solution of the problem would be found in a larger number of foremen, but the survey showed that conditions are unsatisfactory even where the fewest men are

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under the supervision of a face boss, and that the solution will be found in the use and development of machinery and of methods of planning and control more in line with standards worked out in other industries.

Mining by Machinery.

THE greatest opportunity, not only for lowering costs, but for the improvement of mining conditions and the reduction of accidents, in the bituminous industry lies in the use of machinery to replace the laborious and solitary operation of hand loading. The transition from hand to machine labor in the industry is now going The first stage in the use of machinery was the employment of machines for undercutting the coal seam prior to blasting. There are several types of machine used for this purpose, the one most commonly in use at the present time being the short-wall machine which has developed from the breast machine. The breast machine, which is moved about the mine on an electrically-driven truck running on the regular mine track, is removed from the truck over steel bars used as slide rails to a corner of the face which is to be cut. This machine makes a cut 46 inches wide and about 5½ feet deep. A second cut is made slightly overlapping the first and so on until the entire width of the face has been undercut. The shortwall machine is of heavier construction than the breast machine, and the cutting bar is moved laterally across the full width of the working place in one operation. The cutting element of the arcwall machine is similar to that of the short-wall machine, but it is mounted on a swiveling or turntable device which allows the making of a semicircular cut in the coal without unloading the machine from the truck, the cut also being adjustable in height from the pave-Where it can be adapted to conditions its use is advantageous, because it eliminates the time wasted in loading and unloading, as compared with other machines.

With the use of other machinery, principally loading machines, there will naturally result a decrease in the amount of human labor required. This reduction in the number of men needed for a given production, however, will not revolutionize the industry, as did, for example, the introduction of automatic machines, such as spinning frames, in the textile industry. The transition will be slow because of the necessity of adapting machinery to the physical condition of different mines, and instead of requiring less skilled labor it will necessitate a higher type, requiring greater initiative than that now demanded from men who use only the pick and shovel. Two of the mines which were studied by the investigators were practically machine operated in the cutting, drilling, and loading operations, only four hand loaders remaining on special work in one of these mines. In several other mines machine loading was used in varying

degrees.

It is stated that the cost of coal at the mines may be reduced as much as 30 per cent of the present costs; on the basis of such a reduction in only one-half of the bituminous mines in the country the actual net saving would amount to over \$200,000,000 per year. This statement is based not upon theory but upon a thorough analysis involving detailed time studies of the operation of loading machines

and access to the confidential records of several companies. This figure may also be considered conservative, it is stated, as there will be supplementary savings as a result of the further development of the machine.

The studies of machine loaders by the investigators occupied several days in two mines and records of time studies in a third. There are several designs of loading machines. They may be on a truck, a track, or on a caterpillar tractor. The head of the machine is run into the pile of coal which has been shot down. One or two men are needed at the head to assist in collecting the coal on to the lower conveyor, which consists of a chain with suitable flights running on an inclined trough and fed, in some machines, by separate clawlike arms. The upper or discharge conveyor receives the coal from the lower one and discharges it into mine cars. As the pile of coal is taken away the head is moved either forward or sidewise into fresh coal by the aid of jack posts or by the mechanism of the loader itself. It requires one man to operate the machine and another may be required to help the haulage motorman adjust the discharge conveyor to the car. As soon as a room is cleaned up and the loading machine taken to the next room, it is ready for the machine cutter, followed by the electric drill and shot firing, and cleaning up falls of slate. A loader may load the same room twice in the same shift under good conditions.

A study of the actual loading time of large and small machines was made with a stop watch. The operation of three large loading machines, all of the same type, in two mines of the same company showed great uniformity and may be considered normal and representative of regular continuous daily production. The average time required to load a 4-ton car was 3.2 minutes, with a minimum loading time of less than 2 minutes. In one of the mines the loading time of a number of 4-ton cars was a little over 1 minute each. The total loading time, including delays in waiting for cars, averaged 5.6 minutes. The average tonnage per machine in 8 hours was 352 tons (of 2,000 pounds), but of the 480 minutes in 8 hours only 270 minutes, or 56.2 per cent of the time, were used in actually loading coal, the remainder of the time being divided between changing cars (25.1 per cent), moving the loader (13.6 per cent), and miscellaneous delays (5.1 per cent). With more continuous operation a large increase in production would be possible, and if the idle time were reduced to 20 per cent, as is considered possible with improved transportation, the output would be increased to 550 tons in 8 hours. It is evident, therefore, that there is a field for improvement in present methods of planning and operation of machines. The reduction of time spent in waiting for cars will have to be made through improvements in haulage methods. Modified methods of mine development will reduce the time in moving the loader, and saving time now lost through miscellaneous delays will be accomplished through better standardization and maintenance of equipment.

The data on small loading machines showed a smaller percentage of time lost because of various delays, 35.4 per cent instead of 43.8 per cent for the larger machines, but there was an average of 1.9 minutes between loadings waiting for cars instead of 1.4 minutes, showing that there was less efficient haulage in the mine with the small machines.

The average number of tons loaded per machine in 8 hours was 125, which, assuming a 20 per cent increase in efficiency of operation, would become 150 tons in an 8-hour day. It is evident from the data presented, the report states, that loading machines have already reached such a degree of efficient operation and magnitude of tonnage production that their eventual use throughout the industry is certain. In line with the development of machine loading is the necessity for performing the operations of cutting and drilling so as to keep pace with the loads. The arc-wall machine, already mentioned, requires less labor to operate per ton of cutting than any other cutting machine. and it has been found possible with one machine and two operators to cut for a loading capacity of 350 to 400 tons per day. It is necessary in machine loading to have the drilling done by a separate gang of men. The electric drill has been found to be cheaper and quicker than the hand auger, the speed of drilling being about five times greater than by hand.

A comparison of the average daily production of a mine in a two-week period in October, 1922, when the loading was done by hand, and of the same mine during a 6-day period after machine loaders were put in, shows that the average daily production per underground worker in the machine-operated mine was 11.2 tons as against 6.2 tons per

underground worker when the loading was done by hand.

Much of the work now done by hand loaders is done by company men after machine loaders are installed, so that timbering, laying track in the rooms, cleaning up after the loader, and removing rock and slate can be done by men specially trained for the work. In addition these men work in a small area and can be more effectively supervised than when they are scattered in workplaces over a large section

of the mine.

Loading machines at present are limited to a thickness of coal bed of about 48 inches or over. Satisfactory machines can undoubtedly be devised for thinner beds, although the thinner bed mines fall in the class of higher cost mines, and unless the coal is of exceptional quality should only operate on a market with large demand. Loading machines are best adapted to a sound roof, but are being used even when the roof is poor. The speed of the larger machines is so great that the danger of falls where the roof is poor is said to be appreciably reduced.

The use of the machine in mines having thick layers of shale or slate which can not be picked out of the coal fast enough to avoid delaying the machine loader may necessitate changes in the methods of cleaning. Instead of hand sorting at the face it may be necessary to install more and better cleaning devices at the tipple, and although the cost of such extra cleaning may be large, it will be more than offset in most

mines by the saving in loading.

In addition to the saving in the cost of mining by the use of the coal loader, its use benefits the individual miner since it does away with the hardest and most lonesome work in the mine—shoveling coal—and, more important still, increases safety through concentrating and speeding up the work. In a hand-loading mine from 30 to 50 hand loaders may be working in an area of perhaps 25 acres, and these men may advance in their rooms for four months or until the maximum length of 300 feet is reached. With a machine loader working

in 7-foot coal the area being worked at one time can be reduced to about three acres and produce the same output. Under these conditions the foreman, instead of making the rounds once or twice a day, can be in constant touch with all the men and can give much more

adequate supervision to all phases of the work.

While the room-and-pillar method can be used successfully in machine loading, the long-wall system, which reduces the time lost in changing cars and moving the loader, is preferable. The plan of operation is difficult to change in mines already being worked, but in new workings the long-wall retreating system is being used. In this system the main entries are carried clear out to the limits of the property, and with the aid of branch entries the cutting is begun on the outside circumference of the property and worked toward the shaft or opening, and the roof is allowed to fall in back of the working face as all of the coal is extracted. For this system a steel portable conveyor has been successfully used. One of the chief factors in long-wall mining, the danger of falls which injure miners or tie up traffic, is greatly lessened with large machine loaders, as the speed of excavating increases the likelihood of getting out of the way before the roof falls.

An enumeration of the accomplishments in the introduction of

machinery up to the present time is as follows:

Electric motors with overhead trolleys are universally used for the haulage of trips on main lines and cross entries. The bottoms and partings and first-aid and office rooms underground, and sometimes (although in fewer cases than they should be) the workings themselves are lighted by electric lamps. Storage battery and reel motors and electric room hoists are widely superseding the mule for gathering from the working places. Undercutting of the coal by hand has been largely eliminated by the cutting machine. Drilling is still usually done by hand augers, but in machine-equipped mines the electric drill is coming into use. Ventilation has become a science giving sufficient fresh air in every room and passageway. Drainage is handled by pumps of plunger, piston, and centrifugal type—tandem for higher lifts—of the latest design. Outside machinery at tipples and power plants is sometimes highly developed. Watering with specially designed sprinklers is employed underground in the best equipped mines.

The greatest possibilities, therefore, lie in underground loading and the adaptation of other underground operations to it. Combined cutting and loading machines have so far not proved successful, although one has just been completed for long-wall operation in which the machine advances steadily into the face of the coal, undercutting it, while the coal falls with little or no blasting onto a conveyor with which the machine is equipped. The conveyor carries the coal to a haulage road, where it is loaded into mine cars to be taken to the tipple. Mine conveyors of various types are now being experimented with. Belt conveyors for outside work are frequently used for distances of several thousand feet, so that eventually hauling by cars and locomotives may be entirely eliminated.

The gains in mine operation through the substitution of machine

for hand loading are summarized as follows:

Loading is performed at a fraction of the time and cost of hand loading. Undercutting can be performed more systematically and efficiently.

Drilling is done by electric drills.

Hauling is simplified and trips can be scheduled more definitely and haulage costs reduced.

Timber is reduced in amount.

Roof falls less readily because of speed of progress and, in long-wall work, less working room required.

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Concentration of workings produces large tonnage in small areas. Inspection and supervision is more effective because of smaller active area.

Cost of track equipment and maintenance is reduced by fewer rooms or, if long

wall, no rooms at all.

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Cost of drainage is reduced by the smaller active area. Cost of ventilation is reduced for similar reasons.

Cost of plant construction per ton and maintenance is reduced through larger production per man.

Waste of coal will be lessened by larger recovery.

Safety—the most important factor in mining—is increased. This is due to concentration of area worked and closer supervision.

Control of Underground Operations.

ONE of the greatest difficulties experienced in the control of underground operations is the proper delivery of pit or mine cars to the miner. The miner's ability to do a good day's work is dependent upon the supply of cars. While the general schemes of transportation and trackage are as a rule well laid out, the actual operation of the system is often in the hands of the assistant foreman or face boss, or still more frequently is at the will of the man driving

a mule or gathering locomotive.

The irregularity of distribution of mine cars resulting from this state of affairs has resulted in the equal turn, or "square turn," agreement with the union, which requires that in each period the same number of empty mine cars shall be offered to each loader. This is intended to prevent favoritism and the possibility of one miner being obliged to wait an unreasonable length of time for cars, while another miner in a location where the management wishes to push production might be given all the cars he could load. In nonunion mines the tendency, as shown by conversation with miners, was toward equalizing distribution as far as possible.

Problems of underground haulage are different in many respects from those of railroad transportation. The inside advance of terminals of a large mine often amounts to 1,000 feet daily, though only a few feet at each terminal. Without the complications of changing types and amounts of goods to be carried, perishable articles, blizzards, crop-moving seasons, etc., which the railroads have to meet, the mine railroad has many of the difficulties of the modern railroad and in addition special troubles such as roof falls, explosive gas, and

multiplicity of terminals, 400 or 500 being not uncommon.

An analysis of haulage conditions in a number of mines showed great variations in the time elapsing between delivery of empties to the loaders, the number of haulage trips made, and the number of cars carried on a trip. The maximum time lost by the loaders waiting for cars in four representative mines in one day amounted to 2 hours and 45 minutes, and the minimum time 17 minutes, while the average time lost was 1 hour and 50 minutes, or 23 per cent of an 8-hour day. The time lost by gathering locomotives and drivers averaged 44 minutes, or 9 per cent of the working-day, and by the main-line locomotives and drivers 2 hours and 43 minutes, or 34 per cent of the day.

The problem in every mine is the necessity of providing the required number of empty cars to each miner on time, hauling the full cars to the parting and from there to the bottom or to the tipple, and returning the empties into the mine without congestion at any point.

The tendency in most mines, however, is to minimize the importance of traffic control, on the ground that the time lost by the miner due to lack of cars does not cost the mine anything, since the miner is on a tonnage or piecework basis, overlooking the fact that time lost because of car shortage or excessive topping of loads demanded by the management is ultimately reflected in demands for increased rates of pay.

The practice of extreme topping of the cars—that is, piling up the coal above the top by the careful stacking of lumps around the sides—results in a decrease in the number of cars allowed the miners and a small saving in costs to the operator but a decided decrease in the

earnings of the miner.

The number of cars in actual use in several of the mines visited is not by any means proportional to the mine capacity and shows extreme variations. This is another question which has been in general given very little consideration from the engineering standpoint. can be looked at from two opposing points of view. From the miner's viewpoint there should be enough empties so that he can avoid lost time, while the management is interested in sufficient cars to provide coal for continuous tipple operation. Under the present unstandardized operation of the mine transportation systems, when a mine is running at capacity the number of cars necessary to keep the miners supplied is always larger than the number necessary to keep the tipple supplied. With fairly efficient management, however, this condition would show too many men for the mine capacity rather than too few cars. In none of the cases in which there was a study made of the haulage system was there any definite allowance made for storage of coal in mine cars overnight to even up a part of the daily irregularity in railroad car supply. A large supply of mine cars is not, therefore, a solution of the problems of continuous tipple operation or elimination of lost time to the miner, but a proper planning and haulage system will go further toward settling the problem than the purchase of new cars.

In the present study there were large production losses demonstrated at the tipple—one principal cause, occurring over and over, being the incomplete dumping of the car. In one mine, in which the tipple was operating at only 81 per cent of its capacity, a large part of the estimated loss of 670 tons production in a day was due to this cause, which there had been no attempt to correct. Poor tipple design resulted in the loss of 160 tons daily. This loss was due to the necessity of stopping hoisting when a car containing rock was dumped, so that the miner could be docked for loading dirty coal. This condition was remedied so that such cars were taken care of automatically on a separate table. This method was found to be in effect in some of the mines, but it was not in general use.

There was great variation in the number of face bosses or section foremen in relation to the number of men employed. The proportion ranged all the way from 1 face boss to every 31 men in the largest of six mines to 1 to every 175. As has already been indicated, the solution lies in the better training of these men and in better organization generally.

To a large extent the work of all classes of underground workers is interdependent, and a failure on the part of one worker is likely

to tie up the work of a number of others. A surprising lack of knowledge was revealed of the length of time required to do different classes of work. Estimates by foremen, superintendents, and men as to the time necessary for various types of work were largely guesswork. The time necessary for one operation was estimated by different persons to take from 10 to 45 minutes and a member of the pit committee fixed the time for the same operation at 2 hours. In regard to the time required for the work of the company men, estimates varied as much as 50 per cent. Double shifts in several mines have effected an appreciable saving in mining costs, through saving of overhead and indirect labor.

Work of the Individual Miner.

THE skilled miner, in addition to being a trained specialist in shoveling, works between loading cars on drilling and loading, picking, setting props, and gobbing. The cooperation given both to tonnage men and company men by the mine management is said to be inferior to that of other industries. The major causes of dissatisfaction of the miner with his job are due to the failure to supply enough cars, to coordinate the duties of other workers on whom he depends, to furnish supplies as needed, to show him how to perform the work, and in general to make his work as easy as possible. When a miner may lose from one-fifth to one-third of the earnings he wishes to make because of the failure of the car supply, the result is inevitably great dissatisfaction. On the other hand, there are many cases of miners leaving their work before quitting time for trivial causes or because they have earned enough to satisfy them.

An analysis of the working time of the men in four mines is considered to be fairly representative of conditions in mines generally. In one mine 29 machine cutters left before the end of the day because there was no cutting to be done and 80 miners left during the same time because these places were not cut. More than 63 left the mine because they had earned all the money they wanted for that day, and this is said to be typical in varying degrees of most of the mines visited. This is due largely to the fact that existing piece rates have been based largely on the fact that mines operate only part of the year, so that when conditions are such that a miner is able to work steadily throughout the morning he frequently earns a wage which satisfies him in less than the eight hours of the standard work-day.

"If it is possible," the report says, "through the elimination of some of the high cost mines, greater regularity of railroad car supply, and coal storage by the consumer, to reduce the daily intermittencies and level the seasonal demand, early quitting due to sufficient earnings will become more and more serious from the standpoint of good management. The development of the planning of the work to give the men the opportunity to work continuously while in the mine involves of necessity a spirit of cooperation on the part of the miners. These things are a matter of education of not only the miner but of the management, and not until both realize that their prosperity and success are interdependent will it be accomplished."

There is also a field for improvement in a study of the best way to perform hand operations so that there will be a minimum of fatigue and waste effort, as, for instance, the proper way to handle a shovel to get the best leverage and easiest action. The weight of a shovelful of coal which will give with comparatively low lift the largest production per day with least effort has been found to be 21 pounds. Determination of the effects of different heights of throw and the analysis of the operations of drilling, setting props, and other work

would be found to be of practical value.

Studies of two types of machine cutters, the short-wall machine and the breast machine, showed the time consumed in cutting the face of a room 26 feet wide and moving the machine 1,000 feet to its next place of work. The time for cutting does not represent standards, but does give a fair comparison of the two types of machines. It had been the custom in one mining district to assign one breast machine to cut for 14 loaders and one short-wall machine for 20 loaders. The first type consumed 82 minutes in the operation, while the second needed only 49.7 minutes to accomplish the same work. Based on the time of performance of the two machines, the short-wall machine should have been cutting for nine more loaders than the breast machine, instead of for only six more, and this because facts and standards for comparison were entirely lacking.

The machine cutters' wages in union districts are a percentage of the total rate per ton paid for mining the coal, and the proportions paid to the loader and the cutter are determined by agreement. Installing a new machine by which a cutter can cut more coal usually does not mean a change in the total mining rate but a readjustment of the proportion that the cutter and loader get of the existing rate. The cutter, naturally desiring to keep his share as large as possible, underrates the increased amount of work he can do with the machine, and the loaders, though far more numerous than the cutters, are willing

to help them in keeping down the production per machine.

The tendency exists among miners as among other workers, the writer of the report says, when new machinery is being introduced to combat it and to limit its use wherever possible. The introduction of these machines has met with union opposition either in their use or by attempting to attain a rate of pay so high as to destroy their value from the standpoint of economy. The same conditions have been present in regard to the use of power shovels, a western operator states, the miners offering persistent resistance to their use, backed

by the force of their organization.

Because of the variable conditions in different districts and different mines, a revision of wage rates would seem to be necessary, taking into account not only differences in the output of individuals when they are on a daily rate, but between different mines where the physical conditions vary so that there are great differences in the amounts of coal mined. No really scientific study of relative wages or relative rates has been made in the bituminous industry, though in certain other industries the union workers are taking the initiative in obtaining, with the aid of engineering talent, balanced pay for different types of work and the establishment of definite standards of production.

Payment by weight instead of by carload is advocated in the report because it brings an appreciable reduction in haulage costs and the men are paid for their actual work accomplishment instead of for the

average of the work of all the men together.

There are great differences in the different districts and mines in the rates paid loaders for dead work. An example of inequitable wage rates was the inclusion of part of the dead work in the rate per ton in one mine in which a time study was made. The coal seam averaged 5 feet 3 inches in thickness, and taking down and gobbing the slate up to 12 inches in thickness by the miner was included in his tonnage rate. Beyond that he was paid 7.56 cents per inch, lineal yard. When there was no slate, therefore, the miner's earnings were high, while they decreased correspondingly as the amount of slate increased. In fixing the rate it was assumed that conditions would average up to make the mining rate a fair one, but as a matter of fact, even if this is so, the individual miner is more likely to consider only his hourly earnings than to concern himself with the average. result of this lack of uniformity in earning power is friction between foremen and the men, and difficulty in getting men to work where thick slate is found. Another mine in the same field, although prevented by the union contract from changing the rates, paid the men an additional amount for the extra time spent in taking out slate, with the result that the mine had all the men they needed for capacity production.

Development of Standard Equipment.

THE field for the development of standards of production in coal mining is a large one, since, so far as is known, the report states, no definite results have yet been obtained, although a beginning has

been made in a number of different mines.

Standardization of equipment is also greatly needed. The idea that "every mine is different" has been responsible for much of the variation in weights of main-line track, gauge of track, and height and size of cars. In many of the more recently-developed mines in Kentucky, Virginia, and southern West Virginia the outside works, including the tipple, ventilating system, power plant, and repair shops, are planned and built according to the best engineering principles. The engineering features, which in general show the need of study in order to secure economy in operation, are the design of pumps, ventilation layout, kind of hoists, picking tables, transportation of slate, etc. A few of the mines visited were experimenting in regard to mine cars which would combine to the best advantage the elements of the largest practicable load, easiest throw for the men, and maximum freedom from repairs. Standardization of mine cars presents great opportunity for reduction of lost time to the miner, haulage costs, upkeep and repairs, and capital depreciation.

Method of Effecting Improvements.

THE report concludes with the following outline of suggestions for study and analysis. It is implied, not that all of these conditions are met in every bituminous mine, but that there is a very definite need in every mine for more thorough analysis of conditions and standardization of methods and equipment.

1. MACHINE LOADING.

Extension of machine loading to reduce cost, increase safety, and relieve the laborer of hand shoveling.

Selection of type of loader or development of the loader design to fit local condi-

Adoption of hauling system and control to fit machine loading.

Consideration in new mines of a modified type of development especially adapted to machine loading.

Arrangement of machine cutting, drilling, and loading of shots to fit machine

loading.

Development of methods of removing slate and waste rock to avoid hampering loading.

Development of methods of sorting coal, and removing bone, at the tipple, to permit

less hand sorting in the mine.

Adjustment of work of company men to small areas.

Redistribution of foremen and training to functional supervision.

Extension of the payment of incentives for standards of production to include miners and as many more of the company men as is found to be practicable.

2. MACHINE CUTTING.

Adjustment of schedule to best advantage to coordinate loaders, either hand or

machine, so as to avoid delays.

Analysis of time required in cutting, moving, etc., so as to adjust number of working places per cutter to physical conditions in the mine as regards size of room, height of seam, distance center to center of rooms, etc.

Determination of type and pattern of cutting machine best adapted to the mine

with a view to scrapping present machines if substitution is proved economical.

Introduction of mechanical bit sharpening to reduce cost and increase uniformity. Fixing of standard lengths of time for using bits before resharpening.

Examination of details of cutting and moving by detail job analysis to determine best and easiest methods of operating.

3. DRILLING AND SHOOTING.

Determination of best type of drill for the particular coal. Comparison of power and hand drills as to relative advantages.

Comparison of standard times and methods of sharpening drills.

Formulation of standard instructions for number spacing and slope of shot holes under different conditions.

Specification of amount and kind of powder to use under different conditions based on tests of results in the mine.

4. HAULAGE.

Examination of present system to see if fundamental changes are needed, perhaps

involving such features as shafts, entries, tracking and partings.

Study of local conditions such as hoist, tipple, track capacity, grades, distances, location and character of working places and available equipment to determine first, the most economical and serviceable operating methods, and second, the changes needed to produce these.

Establishment of plan for definite control of car supply to every miner based on

character of working place, amount of dead work and ability of miner.

Determine economical cars per trip for different conditions.

Determination, by analyzing local conditions, of the proper number of mine cars

to give desired results for miner, tipple supply and surplus.

Development of routine operating plan for dispatching and handling trips so as to give each loader the required amount of work and furnish required supply of cars at bottom or tipple.

Putting this plan of control into operation with proper functional supervision. Study of various types of haulage, including conveyers, for gathering and other

transportation.

Study advantages and disadvantages, both economical and personal, of weighing coal at tipple instead of paying by car.

5. HAND LOADING.

Make detail job analysis of all operations, using the results for general study of the operation and for aid in solving the problems which follow.

Determine how many types of work a miner should do to best advantage.

Determine the relative advantages to miner and operator of one man to one room, two men to two rooms, and one man to two rooms.

Experiment upon size and weight and design of shovel to determine the best standard.

Fix upon the best method of handling a shovel and of shoveling to cars.

Instruct loaders as to easiest method of doing each kind of work and the proper sequence to follow and methods of gobbing.

Specify spacing of props for different roof conditions.

Standardize method of setting props and arrangement of wedges, caps or collars. Develop standards for dead work through job analysis of each class of work, including determination of best method of measurement, these things to be decided in cooperation with the men to form a basis of standards of production and avoid most of the guesswork now in vogue.

Compare by job analysis and time study the relative advantages of pick mining and machine mining in cases of questions.

Develop quality standards and sampling of coal for maintaining these.

6. WORK OF COMPANY MEN.

Make detail job analysis of all of the operations of company men.

Accumulate enough of this kind of data to formulate standards of production (such as have been effectively introduced in metal mining) for each kind of work handled under various local physical conditions.

Formulate plan of incentive so that the men may be paid on the basis of work

accomplished by the individual or group.

Study the timbering to determine the best sizes of props, method of cutting wedges, relative value of wood and steel and concrete girders and of concrete arches, of making and placing concrete at branch entries and other locations.

Examine most economical methods.

Organize the delivery of supplies to miners and company men.

7. Underground Equipment and Maintenance.

Design best standard mine car studying standards adopted in other mines with a view to determining the best height and length for convenient throw, wood vs. steel,

standards for wheel base, brakes, bumpers, bearings and couplings.

Record all haulage accidents for a period, including cars off the track, with cause, and location of accident, and, from this, study track conditions that require attention. Establish method of and best materials for mine car lubrication. Simple apparatus

for rerailing cars and with other similar tools.

Fix on best type of trolley shoe.

Determine best weight of track, type of ties, switches, tracks, etc., by study of defects and accidents and of life.

Standardize methods of lining up and maintaining track. Determine best type of hanger to maintain alignment of wire.

Determine whether leakage in current can be reduced.

See that safety signals are adopted for haulage.

Examine types of automatic doors with a view to saving trappers, and at the same time insuring closing, if necessary even going so far as to install signal lights for the motormen.

Standardize methods of repairs of mine cars, motors and other equipment.

Establish (if not already in operation) running inventories of supplies, control of issues, and maintenance of repair parts.

8. TIPPLE DESIGN AND OPERATION.

Examine design of tipple with best engineering talent (in case this has not already been employed recently) for the purpose of most economical and safe operation, including in this study the hoisting machinery, the sorting tables, the conveyers, the crushers, the weighing apparatus, loading of railroad cars, handling of railroad cars and handling of waste.

Figure the economic advantage of reconstruction where necessary.

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Make exhaustive study of relative advantage to miner and operator of weighing coal at tipple vs. mine car measurement.

Examine details for mechanical faults as regards dumping coal, handling of rock,

signaling, etc.

Establish routine methods for examining the cleanliness of coal from individual miners and formulation of some plan to maintain the required quality.

Consider the establishment of methods of sampling coal for economical examina-

tion of ash, etc.

Study by job analysis the methods of sorting and throwing out bone with a view to making the work easier and of the required effectiveness.

If special cleaning is necessary, study both dry and wet preparation.

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9. Ventilation and Drainage.

If installation is an old one or installed without expert engineering advice, review the entire system with a view to safety and economy of maintenance.

Examine particularly the economy of operation of the fans (since these take a

large quantity of power) to see what improvements can be made.

Study various types of pumps in use in different mines and determine whether the best type is being used; if not, scrap the present pumps and replace.

Determine by experiment whether the best material is being used for pump linings.

Determine by experiment whether the best material is being used for pump linings. Arrange in definite system of inspection for fans, pumps, and other running equipment to see that proper alignment and lubrication and repairs and supply of parts are being maintained.

Consider the introduction of mine sprinkling (if not yet established) and determine

best method and frequency required for safety and personal comfort.

10. DEVELOPMENT.

Study in great detail the present plan of development to see whether incidental or radical improvements are needed.

If a new mine is to be laid out, study economy of different plans, the most economical size of investment, and the type of development best suited to machine loading. Study in detail the effect of size of rooms, depth of undercut, width of pillars, etc., and economy of operation.

11. STOCKING COAL AT MINES.

Study the problem of storage at the mine with a view, first, to evening up of railroad car supply on consecutive days and, second, with a view to keeping the mine running during slack periods. Include in this study various types of storage, such as excess mine cars on partings in the mine, trestles at tipple, and separate storage piles.

Reports of German Factory Inspectors for 1922.1

THE annual reports of the German factory inspectors have always been read with interest by social economists and all circles interested in the protection of workers, because they contain the personal observations and experiences of officials intrusted with

the practical enforcement of protective labor laws.

In Germany each Federal State has its own factory inspection service. The Federal issue of the annual reports of the factory inspectors therefore contains a separate section for each individual State. In 1922, as in preceding years, the Federal minister of labor, in agreement with the State governments, charged the factory inspectors with the more thorough investigation of certain specially selected problems. The reports of the inspectors concerning these problems are briefly summarized below.

 $^{^1{\}rm Germany.}$ [Statistisches Reichsamt.] Jahresberichte der Gewerbe-Aufsichtsbeamten und Bergbehörden für das Jahr 1922. Berlin, 1923. 4 vols.

General Economic Conditions.

THE prefatory words of the report covering the Free State of Hamburg may be considered as characteristic of the economic situation in all of Germany during 1922. After referring to the steady depreciation of the German mark the report says: "If the German commonwealth and its economic life have been maintained in spite of this depreciation, it was due only to the fact that the German workers, in the widest sense of the word, have shown a steadfast will to work. * * * The following report thus gives a picture of the undaunted industrial activity and the tenacious struggle to which a highly civilized nation is driven if it wants to save its life." Nearly all the reports show, however, what immense difficulties this "tenacious struggle" has to overcome. Thus the report for the State of Saxony speaks of a "pseudoprosperity caused by foreign orders and by purchases of goods by the native population, which, in the absence of a stable currency, invests its savings in commodities. In September, 1922, however, the situation took a turn for the worse, short time and reduced operation of industrial establishments became more frequent, and some establishments were forced to close down entirely." The report covering Berlin complains of the existing irregularity of employment:

General conclusions that economic conditions are good should not be drawn from the increase in the number of employed workers. The continued and spasmodic depreciation of the mark and the uncertainty in the money market have made all business difficult. Lack of capital and raw materials has in many instances led to temporary dismissals of workers, and the greatly fluctuating unfilled orders on hand did not permit regular employment. Times in which there was hardly enough work to keep the workers busy during an eight-hour day were often followed by times in which overtime work could not be avoided if the employer was to be spared the risk of losing customers through declination of orders or tardy delivery.

In the report covering the inspection district of Dusseldorf there are to be found data indicating an increase in the number of establishments in operation as well as in the number of persons employed. The reporting inspector nevertheless takes a pessimistic view of the situation:

As gratifying as these figures are in themselves, under existing conditions they can not, as in the preceding year, be considered as indicating a rehabilitation of the economic system. The hollowing out of the German economic system continues to progress rapidly; the steadily increasing impoverishment, the far-reaching lowering of the standard of living of large classes of the population, the selling out of all salable commodities, * * * can not, in spite of apparent prosperity, deceive anybody as to the rapidly progressing consumption and crumbling of the economic substance.

In several inspection districts, as, for instance, in those of Erfurt, Arnsberg, and Dusseldorf, attempts had been made to obtain statistical data as to whether and how much the individual output of the workers had increased. A large metal-working plant in Erfurt had made investigations as to the difference in the output of timerate and piece-rate workers and found that after the introduction of piecework the individual output of the workers increased by from 50 to 162 per cent over the output under time rates. The report for the district of Arnsberg contains two tables showing the output per shift and per worker in blast furnaces and in a steel works. In the blast furnaces as well as in the steel works the output increased considerably in 1922 as compared with 1921. The reporting inspector

warns, however, against drawing conclusions from such data as to the increased or diminished willingness to work. He points out that too many other factors influence production. There may, for instance, be a lack of raw materials, delaying production, or an establishment may produce a better quality of steel than formerly, which requires more work, and so on. In the Dusseldorf district the increase in individual output that was observed in 1921 continued in 1922. The reporting inspector is, however, of the opinion that the output would increase still more if the rest periods were somewhat longer. In his view the present short rest periods tend to increase fatigue. The workers, however, demand short rest periods so that they may quit work earlier.

Special Problems.

Hours of Labor in Bakeries and Confectioneries.

THE first special problem to be dealt with in the reports of the factory inspectors for the year 1922 related to the enforcement of the decree of November 23, 1918, on the hours of labor in bakeries and confectioneries. The reports, as a rule, discuss separately the hours of labor, the prohibition of night work, and the observance of

the Sunday rest.

The eight-hour day has been generally introduced without much difficulty, owing to the fact that bakeries are not so busy now as formerly. In many localities the bakeries did not work even the full legally permissible eight hours. At the week end, however, most bakeries are very busy, and for this reason many owners of bakeries would prefer a 48-hour week to the 8-hour day, because they could then operate on some days with a longer working day and on

other days with a shorter working day.

The prohibition of night work has been welcomed not only by the journeymen but also by the overwhelming majority of the employers. This explains why in many localities not only the workers' organizations but also the guilds see to it that the prohibition of night work is strictly enforced. The large bakeries and the consumers' cooperative societies have for some time been demanding the abrogation of the prohibition of night work for bread bakeries, so that such bakeries would be enabled to operate in three shifts of eight hours each. This demand, however, is being strenuously opposed by the majority of employers and journeymen.

Confectioneries have been issuing propaganda that Sunday work should be permitted in them to a restricted extent. In support of this demand they point out that restaurants and cafés are permitted, without any restriction, to make confectionery goods on Sundays.

Protection of Women in Confinement, and Rest Periods for Nursing Mothers.

The provision of the industrial code that woman workers in confinement shall be granted six weeks' leave after parturition is being observed everywhere. The enforcement of the provision that pregnant women shall be granted two weeks' leave before parturition is more difficult. Some of the pregnant women are mistaken about the time of their delivery, while others try to keep the time secret so that they may earn wages up to the last minute. This refers

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particularly to unmarried pregnant women. Married pregnant women often quit work as soon as they become entitled to maternity benefits from the sick funds; that is, four weeks before parturition. The reports for several inspection districts state that the works councils make it their business to inform pregnant woman workers as to the legal protective provisions and to see to it that they are employed only at nonfatiguing work. Several factory inspectors praise the work of woman welfare workers in factories who give special attention to pregnant women and women in confinement.

Most of the inspectors report that from the observations made by them as to rest periods for nursing mothers it does not seem advisable that such rest periods should be prescribed by law. In several districts the inspectors found the employers generally willing to grant such rest periods. Objections on the part of employers were made only in those establishments in which the granting of rest periods to nursing mothers would have involved interruption of operation. However, the woman workers themselves do not set great value upon such rest periods. In small localities, where a noon rest long enough to enable mothers to go home is usual, this rest period is fully sufficient to nurse infants once during the working time. In large localities, where the noon rest is short, the distance between the home of the mother and the working place is generally too great for the infant to be brought to his mother for nursing. But even where this is possible or where the infants can be kept in a crêche of the establishment, the granting of nursing rest periods has not had the expected beneficial results. Some mothers become fatigued from their work, which influences lactation unfavorably. Married women, as a rule, stay away from work as long as they nurse their infants, or take up home work.

Conduct of Juvenile Workers at Work, at School, and in Their Spare Time.

The conduct of juvenile workers has been very thoroughly discussed by all the reporting inspectors. Their judgments on the subject vary considerably, but on the whole the favorable ones predominate. Even in districts where questionable conditions prevail, the inspectors state that conditions have somewhat improved as compared with the first years after the war, but that it is more difficult now to handle juvenile workers than in pre-war times. The judgment expressed in the report covering the district of Frankfort on the Oder may, perhaps, hold good for many regions of Germany:

It can be said that, on the whole, compared with the conditions that had developed during the war and after the revolution, the conduct of juvenile workers has without doubt undergone progressive improvement. This applies to apprentices in factories and handicraft establishments as well as to unskilled juvenile workers. In the handicrafts where the apprentices are subject to the paternal discipline of the master and are often taken into his household, conditions in this respect have especially improved. The generally observed improvement in the conduct of juvenile workers is also due in part to the increasing sense of duty among the working classes themselves and particularly to the influence of the works councils.

Nearly all reports consider the conduct of apprentices in the handicrafts and in factories satisfactory. Unfavorable criticisms relate almost exclusively to unskilled juvenile workers. A report covering a district in central Germany finds more fault with the conduct of the young factory girls than with that of the boy factory workers.

The reports without exception praise the conduct of the juvenile workers in the trade schools, especially of the apprentices. The boys who are working in the special training shops for apprentices maintained by several large works are making a particularly good showing. This may be due to the fact that these large works are very careful

in the selection of apprentices.

The conduct of juvenile workers during their spare time has generally given occasion to severer criticism than their conduct at work or at school. It depends essentially upon the influence of the parents upon the young people. Whenever the parents set a good example to their working children and restrict them somewhat in the use of their earnings, the conduct of the latter in their spare time is always proper. Inspectors from rural districts report that juvenile workers in such districts often use their spare time to assist in house or farm work. Where the parental home fails in its duty of exercising a beneficent influence, the wage-earning boys soon acquire various bad habits, such as excessive frequenting of saloons and amusement places, heavy smoking, drinking, and gambling. They assume an overbearing demeanor and squander their relatively high and easily earned wages. The inspectors' reports acknowledge, however, that the numerous existing young people's societies guide the youth more than formerly to athletic sports, hiking, etc.

The reports deplore the absence in juvenile workers of any desire to develop themselves mentally. In order to develop such a desire a large Rhenish iron works has employed a special adviser for juvenile

workers.

Influence of the Wage System on the Accident Hazard in Dangerous Occupations.

The question whether and how far the wage system (time or piece rates) exercises any influence upon the frequency of accidents caused by dangerous machines is discussed at great length in some of the inspectors' reports. In several districts they have made careful investigations on this subject. In addition to work on rolls and shears, carding and willowing machines, platen presses, and emery wheels, there was investigated, as involving the greatest accident hazard, chiefly work on stamping and grooving machines, as well as on saws and planing and shaping machines used in the woodworking industries. The machines in the last two groups are generally acknowledged to be the most dangerous and most extensively used machines. For this reason most of the reports discuss in detail only these two groups.

Time rates as well as piece rates are in use in paying workers employed at these two groups of machines. Time rates predominate, however, in the case of work on woodworking machines. This is by no means a new phenomenon, to be ascribed to the provision in the national collective agreement for the German woodworking industry prohibiting piecework at dangerous machines, but rather a matter of extensive custom. The reason for this custom is the great danger connected with the operation of woodworking machines. Piecework was found to be extensively in use only in those woodworking establishments in which production of large quantities of certain articles permits minute subdivision and specialization of labor. In such establishments it is possible to feed the machines automatically or to

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make special arrangements that will lessen the danger of accidents. If such establishments manufacture small articles, the production of which requires nimbleness of fingers rather than physical strength, they generally also employ women and juvenile workers at piecework.

In contrast to the situation in the woodworking industries piecework predominates at the stamping and grooving machines in the metal-working industries. In work at these machines there are not encountered the difficulties that are inherent in woodworking owing to the structure of wood. It is, moreover, easier to equip these machines with safety appliances. In addition quantity production of small parts predominates in the metal-working industries. It is due to these facts that many women are employed at the small stamping and grooving machines, while the slower running large stamping and grooving machines are exclusively operated by men.

From what has been said here it can be seen that it is hardly possible to draw any conclusions as to the influence of the wage system on the frequency of accidents solely from the number of piece and time workers employed at the individual machines. The accident risk at the individual operations may vary greatly, while the surroundings of the worker (lighting, ventilation, generation of dust, accumulation of material in the workroom, etc.), as well as the morale in the plant, play a great rôle. To take into account statistically all these influences seems very difficult. The views of employers and workers questioned by the factory inspectors diverged greatly and in some instances appeared even to be contradictory, for the simple reason that each of them judged matters only by the conditions familiar to him. The attempt by the inspectors of several districts to show statistically the relative accident hazard of time and piecework therefore failed. The investigations were nevertheless of value because they have demonstrated the necessity of caution in drawing conclusions and have also shown what factors must be taken into consideration.

Hygiene of Workers in Establishments Dealing in Rags, Raw Materials, and Scrap Metal.

Owing to the existing shortage of raw materials, all kinds of refuse have acquired a relatively high value in Germany, and trade in rags, junk, etc., and the working up of them has increased. Because of this the factory inspectors were charged with an investigation into the health conditions of workers engaged in the sorting and working up of refuse. The sanitary conditions in rag-sorting establishments have already been regulated in most German States by special decrees; in Prussia, for instance, by the decree of the minister of commerce and industry of December 22, 1895. This decree contains detailed provisions as to the equipment of workrooms, the removal of dust, provision of wash rooms and wardrobes, and the equipment of the workers with suitable working clothes. A decree of the imperial chancellor of December 8, 1909, forbids the employment and presence of young persons in rooms in which rags are being opened, sorted, freed from dust, cut, greased, mixed, or packed.

The inspectors report that in large rag-sorting establishments conditions are generally satisfactory but that in small establishments conditions are often very bad. In the latter in certain operations there is an excessive generation of dust, and the workrooms are low

and in many instances dark, dirty, and full of vermin. In spite of these unfavorable conditions the inspectors were unable to obtain any reliable data that would show that the morbidity rate of workers in these establishments is abnormal. Neither were they able to establish that certain diseases, especially contagious diseases such as smallpox, anthrax, and measles, are more frequent among workers

in rag-sorting establishments than among other workers.

As regards the working up of scrap metal, the inspectors found two classes of establishments—small establishments which collect both rags and scrap metal and sell them again to larger establishments, and large establishments which melt down the scrap metal and work it up. The sanitary conditions in the first class of establishments are practically the same as in small rag-sorting establishments. Although the workrooms of such establishments are generally insanitary, the morbidity hazard is being somewhat offset by the fact that a great deal of the work is performed in the open air. The collecting and sorting of scrap metal involves, however, one special morbidity hazard, that of blood poisoning through finger lesions caused by the handling of sharp-edged scrap. In larger scrapmetal establishments there have occurred several cases of plumbism among workers employed at melting scrap. The inspectors have seen to it that the usual measures for the prevention of plumbism are being taken in such establishments.

Workers' Education.

The factory inspectors were also asked to investigate whether the workers make any serious efforts to educate themselves. Their investigations on this subject have resulted in greatly varying findings. While some reports state that no endeavors of the workers to continue their education are noticeable, other reports are full of praise for the earnest and zealous attempts of the workers at selfimprovement. From a perusal of all the reports one obtains the impression that in large cities these endeavors at self-improvement play a greater rôle than in small towns and in rural communities. This may be due to the fact that workers living in small towns and in the country devote a great part of their spare time to work in their gardens and farms. It seems that among the various institutions for the education of adult workers the general institutions (people's colleges, lecture courses, etc.) are less popular with the working classes than the educational institutions maintained by the trade-unions. Of the latter the schools and lecture courses for works council members generally have a large attendance. The educational institutions of the trade-unions deal chiefly with economic and sociopolitical problems and problems relating to vocational training. many localities the Social-Democratic Party and the trade-unions have established educational committees which aim at promoting the general education of workers. Several of these committees maintain libraries and arrange concerts, theatrical performances, movingpicture shows, collective visits to museums, etc.

In Berlin at present all endeavors at workers' education encounter great difficulties because of the high street-car fares, the high prices of books and periodicals, and the high rents of halls. The report covering the Liegnitz district states that continuation schools for

journeymen and employers just starting in business have been established in several localities in connection with the compulsory continuation schools for juvenile workers. The evening courses of the machine-construction school at Görlitz have a good attendance; several large concerns have furnished models, drawings, and other material for these courses. The Upper Silesian committee for technical lectures has established afternoon lecture courses for workers at the State engineering and smelting school. The subjects taught include technical accounting, mathematics, natural history, draw-

ing, mechanics, electrotechnics, etc.

The report for the district of Osnabrück mentions a unique form of lecture courses for works council members arranged by the Christian trade-unions. The trade-union secretary directing the courses assumes for the evening the rôle of the employer and makes the order of the day some practical question relating to the activity of the works council. The question is then discussed in the form of negotiations between the employer and the works council, the secretary guiding the discussion by suitable queries. At the end of the discussion he determines the result of the negotiations. This practical form of instruction is said to have good results.

Hours of Labor, Overtime, and Rest Periods.

THE majority of the reporting inspectors state that the decrees of November 13 and December 17, 1918, which provide an eighthour day for industrial workers, are being generally enforced in large factories, but that in handicraft establishments and in small factories there is considerable difficulty in enforcing them. Whenever special conditions in an industry required overtime work, the workers were, as a rule, ready to work more than the normal hours of labor.

The introduction of three eight-hour shifts in raw-sugar factories and brick kilns can not, as yet, be carried out generally. On the one hand, it is impossible to obtain the large number of workers required by three-shift operation or, if obtained, to house them, and on the other hand, foreign workers refuse to accept employment if they are not permitted to work 12 hours a day and thus to earn more money.

The report covering the State of Saxony describes the difficulties met by the factory inspection service in enforcing the eight-hour day when employers, in agreement with their workers and even on the demand of the latter, permit the working of overtime. Such cases of violation of the decrees regulating the hours of labor have often been encountered in automobile and motor repair shops. Automobile owners frequently offer tips to workers in such repair shops in order to have their cars repaired as quickly as possible, and the workers do not care to lose such extra earnings, even if they have to work overtime to make them. The report also states that employers as well as workers are often of the erroneous belief that if an employer and the works council of his establishment have agreed to work overtime, no permit from the industrial authorities is needed for such overtime work.

The trade-unions show great interest in the enforcement of the eight-hour day and thereby facilitate considerably the activities of the factory-inspection service in this field of labor protection. Much

greater difficulties are encountered in the enforcement of the decree of March 18, 1919, regulating the hours of labor of salaried employees. This decree is especially hard to enforce in banks, for the work of banks has greatly increased, owing to the increase of checking accounts, the increased trade in foreign drafts, and the general mania for speculation. There is a shortage of experienced bank clerks, and the banking rooms are often too small to take care of the increased The managements of banks have therefore continuously requested overtime permits, which as a rule have been granted in pursuance of articles 6 and 10 of the above decree. During 1922, however, the practice in banks of ordering employees to work overtime without having previously obtained permission from the authorities increased. The banks based their right to such a procedure on a decision of the supreme court (Reichsgericht) of June 15, 1922, which in a similar case had decided that the immediate performance of the work had been necessary in the public interest and that therefore overtime work without previous official authorization was

justified.

The question whether a short working-day and speeding up of the work or a longer working-day and work at a slower pace is preferable from a hygienic point of view is discussed in the reports covering the districts of Berlin and Hamburg. In Berlin there has developed a species of workers called "overtime grafters" (Ueberstundenschieber), who are so skillful in spreading their work that they always require highly remunerated overtime to perform their assigned tasks. During a strike against overtime work in some of the Berlin banks the strike committee had prohibited all overtime work. The management of the banks insisted, however, that all current work must be brought up to date. In order not to come into conflict with the strike committee or with the managements of the banks, the bank clerks finished all current work within the eight-hour day. When the strike committee finally revoked the prohibition of overtime work, the banks declared that they would no longer permit overtime work. The "overtime grafters" claimed, however, that their health would suffer if they had always to work at the great speed at which they worked during the period of the strike. The reverse took place in Hamburg. There the organizations of the bank clerks made the assertion that overtime work is injurious to the health of the clerks. The public health office was requested to render an opinion. a thorough examination of the sickness statistics of employees of large banks, the health office issued a statement that these statistics showed conclusively that the state of health of bank employees had not been affected injuriously by the longer working hours and that the morbidity rate of bank employees was the same as that of the general population.

With respect to rest periods, the factory inspectors have generally observed that the workers endeavor to have their rest periods fixed as short as possible, so that they may be enabled to quit work early. In several localities it has been found that in the regulation of the rest periods the adult male workers do not take into sufficient consideration the weaker organism of the female and juvenile workers.

Permits for night work of female workers had to be issued in several localities to establishments that had introduced the 3-shift

system, as, for instance, to a large printing establishment in Hanover which had to have three shifts in order to fill quickly large Government orders for paper money.

Operation of the Works Councils.

THE opinion of the majority of the factory inspectors as to the efficiency of the works councils can be best summarized by quoting the following words from the report of the chief inspector of the district of Dusseldorf:

The works councils are attaining increasing efficiency in performing the tasks assigned to them by the law. Their relations with the employers improve from year to year, as both sides become more familiar with their rights and duties under the law. The works councils generally maintain close relations with the factory inspectors through frequent personal discussions of problems relating to hours of labor, overtime and Sunday work, short time, and the closing down of establishments or of departments of establishments.

Of course, not all of the factory inspectors' reports speak in such a favorable tone of the works councils. There are many complaints that the works councils are too indifferent and do not perform all the duties assigned to them by the law. Some inspectors also report instances in which the works councils had exceeded their rights. The favorable opinions predominate, however. The factory inspectors generally express the view that the works councils are operating with the best results in large industrial establishments, while in small industrial establishments and in establishments that employ chiefly clerical help the works councils operate less efficiently. Such establishments frequently do not even elect a works council, because the workers either do not care to vote or nobody can be found to accept the office of council member. Women have so far played a rather inconspicuous rôle as works council members. With few exceptions they generally decline election to such office. The special works councils for home workers have not developed much activity. The report for the district of Brunswick mentions that a home workers' works council has seen to it that the available work is fairly distributed among the home workers and that they receive relatively high

The works councils are giving their principal attention to acting as intermediators between employers and workers in such ways as supervising the enforcement of collective agreements, protesting against unfair dismissals, intervening in disputes, submitting complaints, etc. They also look after the hygiene of the establishments and show increasing understanding of the need for accident prevention. Several works councils have also successfully endeavored to assist the factory inspectors. In Hamburg, for instance, a committee of the works councils of several shipbuilding companies has drafted safety regulations for the building of scaffolds, which were used by the factory inspection service in drafting final regulations. All reports are unanimous, however, in stating that the works councils as a rule do not perform their duty of "supporting the management with advice in order to assist it to bring the establishment to the highest possible state of efficiency and of cooperating in the introduction of new labor

methods."

The report for the district of Hamburg discusses, among other things, the question as to whether and how far establishments are obligated to release works council members entirely from productive work so that they may give their entire time to their duties as council members. In large shipbuilding yards in Hamburg there has developed the practice of releasing from productive work 4 out of each 20 council members. The conciliation boards in Bremen and Kiel have rendered decisions that council members have no legal right to demand release from productive work, but that in individual instances this right may have been acquired by express or tacit agreement.

Wage Problems and Wage Policy.

SEVERAL reports complain that the policy governing all wage agreements, that the performance of the individual worker shall be the exclusive determining factor in fixing wage rates and that his conjugal condition shall not be considered, has resulted in deplorable conditions. The report for the district of Minden says in this respect:

The current wages, which rose gradually as the mark depreciated in value, make it possible for single workers and for workmen's families in which there are several breadwinners to live fairly confortable, while families with only one breadwinner can make ends meet only with the aid of privations, because the family allowances granted to them are absolutely insufficient. The inspectors of the district are unanimously of the opinion that the present exceedingly favorable remuneration of unskilled workers is all out of proportion to the wages paid highly skilled workers who have served apprenticeship in their trades, and especially that juvenile workers are being paid too high rates. The consequence is an endeavor on the part of the young workers to squander their wages on luxurious clothing and amusements. Complaints as to the waning authority of parents, guardians, teachers, and foremen can be easily understood because of the causal connection of this phenomenon with the high wages of young persons.

The report for the district of Arnsberg also calls attention to the too small difference in the wages of skilled and unskilled workers:

As a consequence of the small difference in the earnings of skilled and unskilled workers, a development that had begun during the war and has become still more marked in postwar times, there is now a noticeable shortage of highly skilled workers. Prudent managers of large plants view this state of affairs with serious apprehension, because the older skilled workers die off gradually, there is no supply of skilled workers in the best years of their life, and the rising generation does not care to undergo the necessary training. A Siegerland iron and steel works became so alarmed at this shortage of skilled workers that it sent a number of juvenile workers to the State trade school at Siegen to have them trained as molders, and pays them their full wages while they are at school.

With respect to the much-discussed problem of family allowances the report for the State of Saxony says:

A general introduction of family allowances has taken place only in the case of miners and in that of workers in State or municipal employment. The trade-unions generally oppose family allowances because they fear that the effect of the granting of such allowances will be that employers will hire only young unmarried men and juvenile workers, and on the advent of a business crisis will attempt to discharge the married men.

Home Work.

HOME work has generally increased in Germany according to the factory inspector's reports. The higher figures reported are due in part to the fact that the lists of home workers are now being better kept and in part to the fact that new home industries have

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developed and that new classes of the population, above all the women of the impoverished middle class, have taken to home work as a last resort. The report for the State of Wurttemberg speaks of large fluctuations. In the rural districts home work has decreased, but in the large medium-sized cities it has increased. The reason for the retrograde movement of rural home work is to be found in the improvement of the economic situation of the agricultural population. The increase of home work in the cities is due to the influx of workers from the former middle classes. Several reports, among others those for Wurttemberg, Hamburg, Saxony, and Berlin, emphasize how poorly these middle-class home workers are being remunerated. In several localities public-welfare organizations have attempted to procure home work (fine embroidery, knitting, crochet work, etc.) for impoverished women of the middle class, and thus to prevent such work being done for too low wages.

The report for the State of Saxony says that while in many industry branches wages have not kept step with the depreciation of the mark, collective wage agreements in several other branches, such as the hosiery and fabric glove industries and in ribbon weaving, were concluded which provide fair wage rates not only for factory workers but also for home workers. In Konigsberg there was a shortage of

skilled seamstresses.

The reports for the State of Saxony and the district of Stettin mention the poor housing conditions of home workers. The efforts of several employers at Stettin to provide special sanitary workshops in which their home workers could work together were unsuccessful. The home workers did not care to surrender their personal liberty, and, moreover, did not want to be bound by the 8-hour day. They want to work longer hours and make correspondingly larger earnings.

Factory Conditions in the Punjab in 1922.

THE annual report for 1922 on the working of the Indian factories act in the Punjab,¹ or northern India, gives some significant data as to conditions in Indian factories. Under the act at present in force all factories employing 20 or more workers on any one day in the year come within the scope of the law. The total number of factories registered as under the act at the close of the year was 366, of which 325 had worked for all or a part of the year, while 41 had remained closed. The total number of workers coming under the law had increased from 42,428 in 1921 to 46,588 in 1922. Apparently there were only two inspectors to cover the whole field, and the report points out that under such conditions it was impossible to enforce strictly the provisions of the law against the small factories whose owners, in many cases, resented legal control and evaded the regulations whenever possible.

In general, the condition of the larger factories which work more or less continuously throughout the year is said to be good; the worst conditions are found in connection with the seasonal industries,

¹ India. [Department of Industries and Land Records. Inspector of factories.] Annual report on the working of the Indian factories act, 1911, in the Punjab, for the year 1922. Lahore, 1923.

these factories requiring much more attention to bring them up to a standard of good sanitation. The water supply was generally good, and lighting was improving. Many owners of seasonal factories, finding the season was a good one, had repaired and used their electric-light installations, "whereas in 1921, when the season lasted for a few weeks only, candles or oil lamps were used." Ventilation showed a marked improvement as compared with conditions in 1921. Skylights ordered in that year had been put in and exhaust fans had been brought into play with advantageous results. The problem of dust removal, however, seemed to remain unsolved.

The ventilation of ginning rooms and the keeping of them free from dust remain a serious problem. Skylights and extra openings in walls were ordered to be made, helping greatly in ventilating the rooms, but the dust problem is not so easily dealt with. Cotton-ginners can be picked out from amongst other workers by their unhealthy appearance; 10 hours daily in the dust-laden atmosphere of a ginning room quickly affects both eyes and throats; it is not unusual to find cotton-ginning workers almost speechless from dust at the end of the day; as 90 per cent of these workers are women and children, of whom nearly 5,000 are in the Punjab alone, the problem should be regarded as sufficiently serious to warrant special efforts on the part of the health department to mitigate the evil.

A strong campaign for safety measures was made, and the number of accidents reported during the year was 320, as compared with 326 in 1921. These statistics are admittedly faulty, yet the inspector believes that accidents are being more regularly reported, and that these figures can be taken as approximately correct. The attitude of the authorities toward this matter is apparently not helpful. The report cites a case in which, during an inspection, it was discovered that a serious accident had occurred in the factory and had not been reported, and a prosecution was accordingly undertaken.

Apart from the irregularity of not reporting the accident, the factory owners and manager tried to cover up the accident, and afterward got the injured person to sign a document saying that the accident never occurred. These facts after much trouble and time were brought to the notice of the court, with the result that all the accused (two occupiers and one manager) were convicted and fined Rs. 50 [\$24.33 par] each. The fines appear to be entirely inadequate for such a grave offense and have little or no effect upon the factory owners, who are usually prosperous mill owners; neither does such a lenient judgment help factory inspectors.

Under the law prevailing at the beginning of 1922 the legal hours of work were 12 a day for men, 11 for women, and 6 for children. The act becoming effective in July, 1922, limited the hours for adults, men and women alike, to 11 a day and 60 a week, and left the hours for children unchanged. In the large and well-organized factories the hours were usually well within these limits, but the managers of the seasonal factories greatly resented the new regulations and evaded them when they could.

During the year 1922 the practice of overworking was considerably checked, but it is well known that many ginning factories continuously violate all the sections of the factories act relating to hours of work. To catch these persistent offenders redhanded requires far more time than the present existing small inspection staff has been able to give; factory owners are known to keep chaukidars on the stations continuously on the lookout for factory inspectors; immediately an inspector arrives, a signal is given, with the result that either the factories are closed or children illegally employed are sent away. It is hoped that with the proposed appointments of industrial surveyors as additional factory inspectors this malpractice will be checked to a large extent.

PRICES AND COST OF LIVING.

Retail Prices of Food in the United States.

THE 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, October 15, 1922, and September 15 and October 15, 1923, as well as the percentage changes in the year and in the month. For example, the price of milk was 13.3 cents in October, 1922, 14 cents in September, 1923, and 14.1 cents in October, 1923. These figures show an increase of 6 per cent in the year and 1 per cent in the month.

The cost of the various articles of food 2 combined showed an increase of 5 per cent in October, 1923, as compared with October, 1922, and an increase of four-tenths of 1 per cent in October, 1923,

as compared with September, 1923.

TABLE 1.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE OCTOBER 15, 1923, COMPARED WITH OCTOBER 15, 1922, AND SEPTEMBER 15, 1923.

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

Article.	Unit.	Averag	ge retail pri	ce on—	(+) 00 (-) 00	of increase r decrease et. 15, 1923, red with—
		Oct. 15, 1922.	Sept. 15, 1923.	Oct. 15, 1923.	Oct. 15, 1922.	Sept. 15, 1923.
Round steak Rib roast Chuck roast Plate beef Pork chops Bacon Ham Lamb, leg of Heus Salmon, canned, red Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated 15	ound	Cents. 38.3 33.1 28.0 19.9 12.8 36.6 36.6 36.9 34.8 31.6 13.3 11.2 50.8 27.8 26.9 34.1 17.5 23.2	Cents. 41.1 35.5 29.4 21.0 13.1 36.7 39.4 46.6 37.5 35.0 31.3 14.0 12.2 55.0 29.3 27.7 37.0 17.9 23.0	Cents. 40.0 34.4 28.9 20.8 13.1 34.2 39.4 46.4 36.5 34.8 31.4 11.1 12.2 56.3 29.7 27.7 38.5 18.6 23.5	+4 +4 +3 +5 +2 -7 -3 +2 -3 -1 +6 +9 +11 +47 +3 +13 +13 +6 +11	$\begin{array}{c} -3 \\ -3 \\ -2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ -7 \\ 0 \\ -0.4 \\ -3 \\ -1 \\ +0.3 \\ +1 \\ 0 \\ +2 \\ +1 \\ 0 \\ +4 \\ +4 \\ +2 \\ \end{array}$

In addition to monthly retail prices of food and coal, the bureau secures prices of gas and dry goods from each of 51 cities and for electricity from 32 cities. These prices are published at quarterly intervals in the MONTHLY LABOR REYLEW.

2 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 rosst, chuck rosst, plate beef, pork chops, bacon, ham, lard, hens, flour, corn meal, eggs, butter, milk, bread, potatoes, sugar, cheese, rice, coffee, and 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.

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Table 1.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE OCTOBER 15, 1923, COMPARED WITH OCTOBER 15, 1922, AND SEPTEMBER 15, 1923—Concluded.

Flour	(+) 0 (-) 00	Per cent of incre (+) or decre (-) Oct. 15, 19 compared with	(-	ce on—	ge retail pri	Averag	Unit.	Article,
Eggs, strictly fresh Dozen 54.3 48.6 54.6 Eggs, storage do 39.1 41.7 Bread Pound 8.7 8.7 8.7 Flour do 4.8 4.5 4.6 6.7 7.0 9.7 4.6 6.0 3.9 4.2 4.3 8.0 6.0 8.7 8.8 8.8 8.8 8.0 6.0 8.7 8.7 9.7	, Oct. 15, 1922.							
All articles combined 1.	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	+7 0 -4 +10 +1 0 -5 -1 0 +5 -1 +32 -1 +20 -2 +1 +1 +2 +2 +1 +1 +2 +3 +4 +4 +3 +4 +4 +4 +1 +1 +1 +2 +3 +4 +4 +4 +4 +4 +4 +4 +4 +4 +4		54.6 41.7 4.6 4.3 8.8 9.7 24.4 19.7 9.6 10.6 2.9 6.3 4.2 12.9 10.6 70.0 37.8 18.3 16.8	48.6 8.7 4.5 4.2 8.8 9.7 24.4 19.7 9.5 10.9 3.4 6.2 4.6 12.9 15.5 17.6 12.9 9.6 69.7 37.6 18.8	54.3 39.1 8.7 4.8 3.9 8.7 9.7 25.6 19.9 9.6 10.1 2.2 4.4 3.5 13.2 2.1 5.3 17.4 12.7 7 7.9 68.2 36.3 20.6	do Pounddo	Eggs, storage Bread. Flour Corn meal. Rolled oats Corn flakes. Wheat cereal Macaroni Rice Beans, navy Potatoes. Onions. Cabbage Beans, baked Corn, canned Peas, canned Tomatoes, canned Sugar, granulated Tea Coffee Prunes. Raisins. Bananas Oranges.

¹ See note 2, p. 52.

Table 2 shows for the United States average retail prices of specified food articles on October 15, 1913 and 1914, and on October 15 of each year from 1918 to 1923, together with percentage changes in October of each of these specified years compared with October, 1913. For example, the price per pound of cheese was 22.4 cents in October, 1913; 23.0 cents in October, 1914; 38.5 cents in October, 1918; 42.4 cents in October, 1919; 40.6 cents in October, 1920; 32.9 cents in October, 1921; 34.1 cents in October, 1922, and 38.5 cents in October, 1923.

As compared with the average price in October, 1913, these figures show the following percentage increases: 3 per cent in October, 1914; 72 per cent in October, 1918; 89 per cent in October, 1919; 81 per cent in October, 1920; 47 per cent in October, 1921; 52 per cent in

October, 1922, and 72 per cent in October, 1923.

The cost of the various articles of food combined showed an increase of 44 per cent in October, 1923 as compared with October, 1913.

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

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

Article.	Unit.		Α	verag	ge pric	es O	et. 1/	5.		(-	ent of) Oct. npare	15 of	each s	speci	fied ;	yea
		1913	1914	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	1914	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	192
		Cts	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.							
Sirloin steak	Pound		26. 2						40.0	+2	+60	+55	+73	+46	+49	+5
Round steak	do	23. 1	23.8	39.0	36.9				34.4		+69	+60	+81	+42	+43	+4
Rib roast	do	20.0	20.5	32.3	30.6	33.3	27.6	28.0	28.9	+3	+62	+53	+67	+38	+40	+4
Chuck roast	do	16, 4	17.0	27.9	24.5	25. 9	19.9	19.9	30.8	+4	+70	+49	+58	+21	+21	+5
Plata hoof	10	10 2	10 0	91 5	17.6	17.8	13, 2	12.8	13.1	+4	+75	+43	+45	+7	+4	+
ork chops	do	22.6	23. 0	45. 4	44.3	49.9	36.0	36.6	34. 2	+2	+101	+96	+121	+59	+62	+
Pork chops	do	27.8	28.6	57.9	52.8	54.6	41.2	40.8	39. 4	+3	+108		4-96			
Iam	do	27.6	28.3	52.0	52.4	59.8	48. 3	47. 6	46.4	+3	+88		+117			
amb	do	18.4	19.3	35, 2	33.9	37.9	30, 0	35. 9	36.5	+5	+91		+106			
lens	do	21.2	21.4	39.0	40.3	43.9	37.2	34. 8	34.8	+1	+84	+90	+107	+75	+64	+
Jamb. Hens. salmon, canned, red filk, fresh. Sutter	do			130.9	134.8	$^{1}39.0$	34.9	31.6	31.4							
filk, fresh	Quart	9.0	9.0	14.8	16.0	17.3	14.2	13.3	14.1	0	+64	+78	+92	+58	+48	+
lilk, evaporated	(2)				16.6	15.3	13.4	11.2	12.2							
Butter Deomargarine Jut margarine	Pound	38.2	37.6	65.1	71.1	68.9	00. 4	UU. C	00.0	- 4	+70	+86	+80	+39	+33	+
leomargarine	do				42.6	41.5										
ut margarine	do				35.8	35.7			27.7							
neese	do	122.4	123 ()	38.5	49.4	40.6			38. 5		+72	+89	+81	+47	+52	+
9.10	do	116 ()	15 5	34.2	36.1	29.2	17.2	17.5	18.6	-3	+114	+126	+83	+8	+9	+
egetablelard sub- stitutes																
stitutes	do				37.5	32.1	21.5	23. 2	23.5							
ggs, strictly fresh.	Dozen	41.6	39.0	64.1	72.0	80.8	58. 9	54. 3	54.6	-6	+54	+73	+94	+42	+31	+
ggs, storage	do				61.8	64. 2	44.1	39.1	41.7							
Bread	Found	5.6	6.4	9.8	10.1	11.8	9.5	8.7	8.7	+14		+80				
lourorn meal	do	3.3	3.7	6.7	7.3	7.8	5.4	4.8	4.6	+12		+121				
orn meal	do	3.1	3.3	6.8	6.6	6.5	4.3	3.9	4.3	+6		+113				
colled oats	do				9.2	11.6	9.8	8.7	8.8							
orn nakes	(3)				14.1	14.4	12.0	9.7	9.7							
v neat cereal	(4)				25.2	30.4	29.7	25. 6	24.4							
oned dats orn flakes. Vheat cereal facaroni ice eans, navy otatoes nions. abbage	Pound				19.4	22.0	20. 5	19. 9	19.7							-:
1ce	do	8.7	8.8	14.0	17.3	16.1	9.3	9.6	9.6	+1	+61	+88	+85	+7	+10	+
eans, navy	do	-:	-2-2	16.7	12.5	10. 9	8. 2	10. 1	10.6	177						-:
otatoes		1.8	1.5	3.5	3.8	3.4	3.0	2.2	2.9	-17	+94	+111	+89	+94	+22	+
abbaga	00			4. 5	6.3	4. 7	0.5	4.4	6.3							
anna halrad					4. 0	3.0	4. 8	3.0	4. 2							
eans, baked	(3)				11.1	10. 6	14. 0	15. 2	12. 9							
orn, canned	(5)				19.1	18.0										
eas, canned	(6)				19. 1	19. 2	10.0	11.4	11.0							
omatoes, canned	Downs	1.5.5	7 0	10.0	10.1	14.0	12. 8	7.0	12. 9		1 00	1 107	1 159	105	1 44	
ngar, granulated	round	0.0	6.2	10.0	71 0	13. 9	0. 8	00 0	70.0	$+31 \\ +0.4$	+95	+107	+100	+20	1 05	1
eans, baked orn, canned eas, canned omatoes, canned ugar, granulated ea	do	90 7	20 0	20.5	11.0	12.4	09. 1	26 9	27 0	-0.3	1 24	164	1 40	1 20	1 20	T
runes							10.1	20. 0	10 0	-0.3	+3	+04	740	+20	+44	T
laisins	30			15.5	29.0	21.9	27 9	20. 0	10.0							
ananas	Dozon			19. 9	20.9	17 0										
ranges	do				55.0	71 0	56 0	61 1	51 5					****		
ranges	***********				33. 3	11.0	30.0	01. 1	01.0							
ll articles com-																
bined 6		1.00			3.32.3			1	1000	+2	+74	+82	+91	+47	+37	1
										1		1 - 20	1 00			1 1

¹ Both pink and red. ² 15-16 ounce can.

Table 3 shows the changes in the retail price of each of 22 articles of food³ as well as the changes in the amounts of these articles that could be purchased for \$1, each year, 1913 to 1922, and for October, 1923.

³ 8-ounce package. ⁴ 28-ounce package.

⁵ No. 2 can. ⁶ See note 2, page 52.

⁸ Although monthly prices of 43 food articles have been secured since January, 1919, prices of only 22 of these articles have been secured each month since 1913

Table 8.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES OF FOOD AND AMOUNT PURCHASABLE FOR \$1, IN EACH YEAR, 1913 TO 1922, AND IN OCTOBER, 1923.

	Sirloin	steak.	Round	steak.	Rib	roast.	Chuck	roast.	Plate	beef.	Pork	chops.
Year.	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1,	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.
1913	Per lb. \$0. 254 . 259 . 257 . 273 . 315 . 389 . 417 . 437 . 388 . 374 . 400	Lbs, 3, 9 3, 9 3, 9 3, 7 3, 2 2, 6 2, 4 2, 3 2, 6 2, 7 2, 5	Per lb. \$0. 223 . 236 . 230 . 245 . 290 . 369 . 389 . 395 . 344 . 323 . 344	Lbs. 4.5 4.2 4.3 4.1 3.4 2.7 2.6 2.5 2.9 3.1 2.9	Per lb. \$0. 198 . 204 . 201 . 212 . 249 . 307 . 325 . 332 . 291 . 276 . 289	Lbs. 5.1 4.9 5.0 4.7 4.0 3.3 3.1 3.0 3.4 3.6 3.5	Per lb. \$0.160 .167 .161 .171 .209 .266 .270 .262 .212 .197 .208	Lbs. 6.3 6.0 6.2 5.8 4.8 3.7 3.8 4.7 5.1 4.8	Per lb. \$0.121 .126 .121 .128 .157 .206 .202 .183 .143 .128 .131	Lbs. 8.3 7.9 8.3 7.8 6.4 4.9 5.0 5.5 7.0 7.8 7.6	Per lb. \$0.210 .220 .203 .227 .319 .423 .423 .349 .330 .342	Lbs. 4.8 4.5 4.9 4.4 3.1 2.6 2.4 2.9 3.0 2.9
	Bac	eon.	На	m.	La	rd.	He	ns.	Eg	gs.	But	tter.
1913. 1914. 1915. 1916. 1917. 1918. 1919. 1920. 1921. 1922. 1922.	Per lb. \$0,270 .275 .269 .287 .410 .529 .554 .523 .427 .398 .394	Lbs. 3.7 3.6 3.7 3.5 2.4 1.9 2.3 2.5 2.5	Per lb. \$0. 269 . 273 . 261 . 294 . 382 . 479 . 534 . 555 . 488 . 488 . 464	Lbs. 3.7 3.7 3.8 3.4 2.6 2.1 1.9 1.8 2.0 2.0 2.2	Per lb. \$0.158 .156 .148 .175 .276 .333 .369 .295 .180 .170 .186	Lbs. 6.3 6.4 6.8 5.7 3.6 3.0 2.7 3.4 5.6 5.9 5.4	Per lb. \$0. 213 . 218 . 208 . 236 . 286 . 377 . 411 . 447 . 397 . 360 . 348	Lbs. 4.7 4.6 4.8 4.2 3.55 2.7 2.4 2.2 2.5 2.8 2.9	Per dz. \$0.345 .353 .341 .375 .481 .569 .628 .681 .509 .444 .546	Dozs. 2.9 2.8 2.9 2.7 2.1 1.8 1.6 1.5 2.0 2.3 1.8	Per lb. \$0,383 .362 .358 .394 .487 .577 .678 .701 .517 .479 .563	Lbs. 2.6 2.8 2.8 2.5 2.1 1.7 1.5 1.4 1.9 2.1 1.8
	Che	ese.	Mi	lk.	Bre	ead.	Flo	our.	Corn	meal.	Ri	ice.
1913	Per lb. \$0. 221 . 229 . 233 . 258 . 332 . 426 . 416 . 340 . 329 . 385	Lbs. 4.5 4.4 4.3 3.9 3.0 2.8 2.3 2.4 2.9 3.0 2.6	Per qt. \$0.089 .089 .088 .091 .112 .139 .155 .167 .146 .131 .141	$\begin{array}{c}Qts,\\11.2\\11.2\\11.4\\11.0\\9.0\\7.2\\6.5\\6.0\\6.8\\7.1\end{array}$	Per lb. \$0.056 .063 .070 .073 .092 .098 .100 .115 .099 .087	Lbs. 17.9 15.9 14.3 13.7 10.9 10.2 10.0 8.7 10.1 11.5	Per lb. \$0.033 .034 .042 .044 .070 .067 .072 .081 .058 .051	Lbs. 30.3 29.4 23.8 22.7 14.3 14.9 13.9 12.3 17.2 19.6 21.7	Per lb. \$0.030 .032 .033 .034 .058 .068 .064 .065 .045 .043	Lbs. 33.3 31.3 30.3 29.4 17.2 14.7 15.6 122.2 25.6 23.3	Per lb. \$0. 087 . 088 . 091 . 104 . 129 . 151 . 174 . 095 . 096	Lbs. 11. 5 11. 4 11. 0 11. 0 9. 6 7. 8 6. 6 5. 7 10. 5 10. 4
	Pota	toes.	Su	gar.	Con	fee.	T	ea.				
1913. 1914. 1915. 1916. 1917. 1917. 1919. 1919. 1920. 1921. 1922.	Per lb. \$0.017 .018 .015 .027 .043 .032 .038 .063 .031 .028 .029	Lbs. 58. 8 55. 6 66. 7 37. 0 23. 3 315. 9 32. 3 35. 7 34. 5	Per lb. \$0.055 .059 .066 .080 .093 .097 .113 .194 .080 .073 .106	Lbs. 18. 2 16. 9 15. 2 12. 5 10. 8 10. 3 8. 8 5. 2 12. 5 13. 7 9. 4	Per lb. \$0. 298 . 297 . 300 . 299 . 302 . 305 . 433 . 470 . 363 . 361 . 378	Lbs. 3.4 3.4 3.3 3.3 3.3 3.3 2.1 2.8 2.8 2.6	Per lb. \$0.544 .546 .545 .546 .582 .648 .701 .733 .697 .681 .700	Lbs. 1.8 1.8 1.8 1.7 1.5 1.4 1.4 1.4 1.5 1.4				

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,4 by years from 1907 to 1922, and by months for 1922, and for January to October, 1923. 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. These figures must be used with caution. For example, the relative price of rib roast for the year 1920 was 168, which means that the average money price for the year 1920 was 68 per cent higher than the average money price for the year 1913. The relative price of bacon for the year 1919 was 205 and for the year 1920 it was 194, which figures show a drop of 11 points but a decrease of only 5 per cent in the year.

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

The curve shown in the chart on page 58 pictures more readily to the eye the changes in the cost of the family market basket and the trend in the cost of the food budget than do the index numbers given in the table. The retail cost of the food articles included in the index has decreased since July, 1920, until the curve is brought down in October, 1923, to approximately where it was in May, 1917. The chart has been drawn on the logarithmic scale, because the percentages of increase or decrease are more accurately shown than on the arithmetic scale.

⁴ See note 2, p. 52.

^{*}See note 2, p. 32.

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. 20-24. Also "The 'ratio' charts," by Prof. Irving Fisher, reprinted from Quarterly Publications of the American Statistical Association, June, 1917, 24 pp.

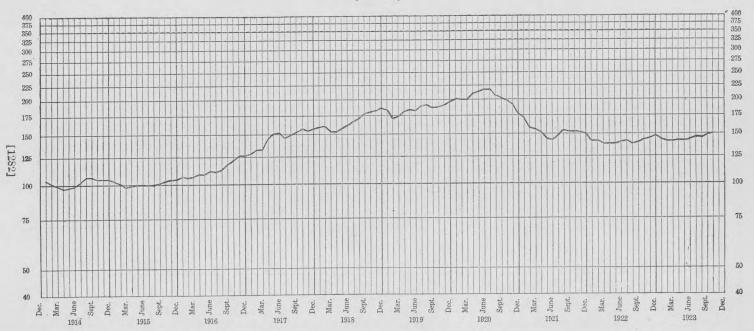
Year and month.		Round steak.	Rib roast.	Chuck roast.			Ba- con.	Ham.	Lard.	Hens.	Eggs.	But- ter.	Cheese	Milk.	Bread.	Flour.	Corn meal.	Rice.	Pota- toes.	Su- gar.	Cof- fee.	Tea.	All article com- bined
1907	73 77 77 77 80 81 91 100 1002 1001 108 124 153 164 172 153 147 143 148 154 152 151 146 146 146	68 71 74 78 79 89 100 103 110 165 174 145 135 138 141 146 153 153 153 153 151 148 141 142 141 142 145 145 159 159 159	76 78 81 85 85 94 100 101 107 126 168 147 139 135 134 141 142 142 141 139 139 139 140 142 145 148 147 149 149 149 149 149 149 149 149 149 149	100 104 101 107 131 166 169 164 133 123 121 122 124 125 127 125 124 123 121 123 121 123 121 123 121 123 121 123 121 123 121 123 123	100 104 100 103 130 170 151 118 106 106 107 107 107 107 107 107 108 108 109 109 109 109 109 109 109 109 109 109	74 76 83 92 85 91 1100 105 166 108 152 1201 166 157 138 149 157 164 161 164 167 174 174 175 140 140 147 140 143 143 143 143 144 145 145 145 145 145 145 145 145 145	74 777 83 95 91 100 102 100 108 152 194 158 147 158 147 150 150 151 151 151 151 151 151 151 151	76 78 82 91 89 99 102 178 199 97 109 142 178 181 164 181 183 185 188 180 177 172 169 168 167 167 168 169 171 172 173 172	\$1 80 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90 90	81 83 89 94 91 93 100 102 97 111 134 177 193 31 73 173 177 177 177 177 177 177 177	84 86 93 98 94 99 100 102 99 109 139 145 145 145 145 157 187 187 187 187 187 187 187 187 187 18	85 86 90 94 88 8 100 94 94 95 127 151 127 120 120 115 120 115 122 118 13 135 143 151 151 150 150 150 151 152 151 151 151 151 151 151 151 151	100 104 105 117 150 162 198 154 149 149 149 149 145 139 141 143 144 145 161 166 169 170 168 164 161 163 163 164 167 174	87 90 91 95 96 96 97 100 100 99 102 125 156 174 153 148 148 144 140 140 144 151 154 154 153 153 153 154 154 154 154 154 154 154 155 156 156 156 157 156 157 157 157 157 157 157 157 157 157 157	100 113 125 130 164 175 177 155 157 155 155 155 155 155 155	95 102 109 108 102 100 104 126 135 211 203 218 245 176 148 155 148 155 148 145 145 145 145 145 145 145 145 145 145	88 92 94 100 105 108 113 113 1227 213 217 150 130 130 130 130 130 130 130 13	100 101 101 104 105 119 119 120 109 107 107 107 107 107 108 109 110 110 110 109 109 108 108 108 108 108 108 108 108 108 108	105 1111 1122 101 130 135 159 159 159 159 159 165 167 182 224 182 217 171 182 212 115 124 124 124 124 124 124 124 124 124 124	105 108 107 109 117 115 100 108 120 146 169 120 146 169 120 146 145 145 145 145 145 145 145 145 145 145	1	100 100 100 100 100 107 119 129 135 128 125 124 124 124 125 125 125 126 127 128 129 127 127 127 127 128 128 128 129 129 129 129 129 129 129 129 129 129	88 88 89 99 99 100 100 101 114 148 148 143 144 144 144 144 144 144 144

[1281]

RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD.

TREND IN RETAIL COST OF ALL ARTICLES OF FOOD, COMBINED, FOR THE UNITED STATES, BY MONTHS, JANUARY, 1914, TO OCTOBER, 1923.





Retail Prices of Food in 51 Cities on Specified Dates.

A VERAGE retail food prices are shown in Table 5 for 40 cities for October 15, 1913 and 1922, and for September 15 and October 15, 1923. For 11 other cities prices are shown for the same dates with the exception of October, 1913, as these cities were not scheduled by the bureau until after 1913.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

[The prices shown in this table are computed from reports sent monthly to the Bureau by retail dealers.

		1	Atlan	a, Ga		Ва	ltim	ore, M	d.	Birr	ningh	nam, 1	Ala.
Article.	Unit.	Oct.	15	Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	15—	Sept.		Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct
		1913	1922	15, 1923.	15. 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923
Sirloin steak	do	Cts. 24. 2 21. 3 19. 7 15. 4 9. 6	30.5 26.6 18.1	32.2 27.9 20 5	Cts. 36, 1 32, 5 27, 5 20, 8 11, 7	22.0 17.3	33.8 29.0 18.9	31.3 20.6	35.8 30.2	23.0 20.5 16.5	30.3 25.6 20.1	38.0 33.7 27.8 22.4	33.4 27.0 22.
Pork chops	do	25. 0 32. 2 30. 8 20. 2 20, 8	40.3 45.9 38.3	36.8 46.3 36.7	33.0 36.5 47.3 36.1 32.5	22.5 28.5 18.0	36.6	51.9 37.2	34. 4 52. 2 37. 3	35. 0 32. 0 21. 9	37.2	39.7 47.5 39.5	40.
Salmon, canned, red Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated Butter Dleomargarine			29. 5 16. 7 13. 3 49. 9 30. 2	29. 9 16. 7 14. 4 56. 9 32. 4	57.3	8.7	54.8	14.0 12.1	12.1 60.6	10.0	30. 4 19. 0 12. 3 50. 0 32. 6	18.5 13.2 56.2	18. 13. 58.
Nut margarine	do		97.0	96.7	27, 3 36, 1 19, 3 22, 1 43, 8	23. 3 14. 8 36. 3	17. 4 21. 9	17.9 22.4	37.3 18.6 23.3	23. 0 15. 2	18.4	37.6 18.2 20.1	38. 18. 20.
Eggs, storage Bread Flour Corn meal Rolled oats	Pound	5.9	9. 6	9.1 5.0 3.8	39.3 9.1 5.0 4.0	5. 5 3. 2 2. 6	2. /	8.7 4.3 3.4	41.3 8.8 4.3 3.6 8.5	5.4	5.6	8.8 5.5 3.4	5.
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg 28-oz. pkg Pounddodo	8.6	9.6 26.0 21.6 9.0 11.8	26.6 21.1	26. 8 21. 2 8. 8	9. 0	8.9 24.5 19.4 9.2 9.7	22.3 18.8 9.2	22. 2 19. 6 9. 2	8.2	9. 9 27. 2 19. 6 9. 4 11. 2	26. 4 18. 9 9. 2	19.
Potatoes	do do do No. 2 can	2.3	3. 2 6. 3 4. 6 13. 5 15. 6	7.8 5.7 13.6	8.1 5.3	1.8	4.6	6. 4 4. 7 11. 5	4.3			6.8 5.8 14.0	7. 5. 14.
Peas, canned Fomatoes, canned Sugar, granulated Fea Coffee	do Pound dodo	5. 8 60. 0 32. 0	17. 5 12. 5 8. 2 87. 3 35. 9	17.6 13.3 9.8 93.7 37.5	13. 4 11. 1 93. 7		10.7 7.3 64.1	8.9 68.0	11.7 10.0 67.9	5.7	19.8 11.1 7.9 82.1 37.0	11.9	12. 11. 85.
Prunes Raisins Bananas Oranges	do		21. 8 20. 8 26. 4	18.5 18.8 28.3 45.2	18.8 28.6		27.5	14.6	14. 4 27. 3		23. 3 25. 5 35. 5 54. 2	19.2	19.

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

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES.

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

]	Boston	, Mass		Br	idgep Conn	ort,	В	uffalo	o, N.	Y.	Bu	tte, M	ont.	Ch	arlest	on, S.	. C.
Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	Sept.		Oct.	15—	Sept.			Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct,
1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	15, 1922.	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	15, 1922.	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.
Cts. 1 35.0 35.0 25.6 18.0	51. 5 36. 6	56. 2 40. 2 26. 3	Cts. 1 63. 7 53. 9 38. 9 26. 2 16. 8	34.0 24.3	43.0	Cts. 48. 3 41. 3 36. 5 25. 9 11. 5	19.3	27.8	33. 8 28. 5 21. 1	32.6 28.3 21.4		Cts. 29, 6 24, 8 22, 8 16, 6 10, 5	Cts. 28. 0 24. 1 22. 1 15. 8 10. 0	20. 4 20. 0 15. 0	32.5 31.3 27.5 20.2	35.6	30. 5 26. 8 20. 2
24. 4 25. 4 31. 3 20. 5 25. 6	41. 8 38. 5 54. 6 38. 7 40. 3	37. 4 52. 7 40. 8	37. 9 37. 7 53. 2 39. 1 39. 5	44. 6 55. 6 36. 4	44.7 54.4 40.9	35. 9 45. 1 54. 2 37. 6 39. 9	22.3 26.7 15.3	47. 2 31. 8	46.6 33.2	32.7	34.8 47.7 53.4 32.5 30.5	34. 0 48. 2 51. 8 33. 5 30. 1	32. 8 48. 2 51. 4 31. 7 29. 0	. 28. 8	42.2	40.8	35.0 42.7 41.7
8.9	29. 7 14. 5 11. 7 49. 4 28. 2	29. 2 14. 9 12. 8 55. 0 30. 7	29. 9 14. 9 12. 7 56. 8 30. 2		15.0 12.5 55.7	29. 6 15. 0 12. 3 56. 5 28. 3	37.1	27. 4 14. 0 10. 9 52. 7 27. 6	13.3 11.8 55.1	27. 1 13. 3 11. 9 55. 5 28. 2	36. 4 14. 0 12. 1 51. 8 30. 0	38. 5 14. 3 12. 5 55. 5	38. 5 14. 3 12. 5 56. 3	12.0	27.3 18.5 11.1 .46.5 27.3	18. 0 12. 0 53. 1	18.0
23. 1 15. 7 53. 3	26.3 35.2 17.4 23.9 80.1	26. 4 38. 6 18. 1 24. 3 71. 6	26. 0 38. 4 19. 3 24. 8 78. 1	24. 3 33. 3 17. 0 22. 9 74. 7	26. 3 39. 0 17. 2 23. 3 66. 3	26.3 39.4 18.1 23.8 74.7	21.5	26. 2 32. 8 16. 8 21. 8 63. 2	36.7 17.0 22.5	27.4 37.1 17.7 22.7 57.1	30, 2 35, 8 21, 4 26, 8 60, 0	32.7 38.3 20.2 26.3 54.5	25, 6	21.0	28. 0 31. 0 18. 6 21. 6 37. 4	34. 9 18. 9 22. 2	
6.0 (3.6 (3.5	42.8 8.4 5.3 4.9 8.3	8. 4 5. 0 5. 2 8. 8	45. 0 8. 4 5. 0 5. 0 8. 9	43.8 8.4 4.9 6.9 8.3	8.6 4.5 7.1 8.3	45.9 8.6 4.6 7.1 8.2	5.6 3.0 2.5	37.3 8.5 4.1 3.5 7.7	8. 4 4. 0 3. 7 7. 7	39. 2 8. 4 4. 0 3. 7 7. 8	39.7 9.7 5.5 3.8 6.7	9.6 5.1 4.0 6.8	40.8 9.6 5.1 4.0 6.9	5.9 3.8 2.6	34. 4 9. 7 5. 9 3. 0 9. 4	10. 2 5. 9 3. 1 9. 5	38. 3 10. 2 5. 8 3. 5 9. 4
9.4	10.2 26.0 23.6 11.1 9.9	9.5 24.6 23.4 11.1 10.4	9.5 24.8 23.1 10.6 10.3	9.5 25.3 24.5 10.0 11.0	9. 5 23. 5 24. 0 10. 1 11. 4	9.4 23.5 24.0 10.1 10.9	9.3	9. 2 25. 2 22. 1 9. 3 10. 0	9. 1 23. 9 21. 5 8. 9 10. 9	9. 1 23. 8 21. 5 9. 1 10. 5	12.1 28.8 22.7 9.9 9.3	11.9 28.3 21.3 10.1 11.0	12.1 27.9 21.0 10.1 10.8	5.6	10.0 25.0 19.8 6.5 10.9	25. 0 20. 2 6. 6	6.8
1.7	2.0 4.4 4.7 14.6 18.2	3.3 7.0 5.0 14.7 19.5	2.6 6.7 5.0 14.6 19.0	2.0 4.3 3.6 11.9 18.1	3. 8 6. 6 6. 1 11. 8 18. 9	3.2 7.5 5.5 11.6 18.9		1.8 4.6 2.2 11.0 14.8	5.4	2.5 7.0 4.3 11.1 14.9	1. 2 3. 8 3. 0 18. 1 16. 4	2.6 4.8 3.5 17.5 15.0	2.0 5.4 3.6 17.5 15.0		2.4 5.1 3.8 11.4 14.7	3.6 5.4 5.7 11.0 14.3	3.1 6.3 5.0 10.9 14.3
5.4 58.6 33.0	21.2 13.8 7.7 68.9 43.1	21.4 12.7 9.5 69.7 43.2	21, 2 12, 4 10, 9 70, 1 43, 2	19.8 13.1 7.6 57.4 34.3	21. 5 13. 5 9. 5 58. 3 35. 7	21. 4 13. 8 10. 3 58. 0 36. 1	5. 4 45. 0 29. 3	16. 4 13. 1 7. 6 60. 9 34. 6	13. 4 9. 4 62. 4	15.6 13.6 10.4 62.6 35.0	16. 0 15. 0 9. 8 79. 5 45. 0	16. 0 14. 9 11. 9 82. 5 45. 4	82.5	5. 0 50. 0 26. 8	19.7 10.3 7.3 72.6 32.9	17.9 10.8 9.0 70.7 33.1	18, 1 10, 6 10, 2 70, 7 32, 5
	20.8 19.3 41.1 68.4	18. 9 16. 0 48. 8 54. 3	18.8 15.6 50.0 56.8	19.5 34.1	37.0	18.5 15.9 36.0 54.3		19.1 18.4 41.7 66.8	18.9 15.0 45.0 54.4	18.7 14.8 46.4 52.8	22. 3 22. 9 2 14. 4 65. 0	20.0 20.0 2 15.2 50.0	18.5 20.0 2 15.2 50.0		21. 4 20. 8 30. 6 46. 4	17. 0 40. 7	40.7

² Per pound.

TABLE 5 .- AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTI

		(Chica	go, Ill		Cin	cinna	ti, Ol	nio.	Cle	velan	đ, Ol	nio.
Article.	Unit.	Oct.	15—	Sept.		Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct.
		1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1922.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.
Sirloin steak	do do	Cts. 24.8 21.6 20.1 15.8 12.0	30. 1 29. 5 19. 7	32.7 31.4 21.0	32.3 31.6 21.1	23.3 21.0 19.2 16.1	29.8	32.8 28.7	31. 2 28. 2	25. 4 22. 9 18. 7 16. 9	28.8 24.9	38. 2 31. 6 26. 4 20. 7	30. 9 25. 8 20. 4
Pork chopsBacon, slicedHam, slicedLamb, leg ofHens.	do do	32.7 32.0 19.8	46. 9 49. 5 35. 2	44.9 48.8 37.4		26.0 30.0 17.8		33.9 47.9 32.9	33.8 48.1 33.3	28.1 35.7 18.7	33.8	40.3 49.3 35.4	40. 4 50. 5 34. 4
Salmon, canned, red Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated Butter Oleomargarine	Quart15-16-oz. can Pounddo	8.0	32. 5 12. 0 10. 0 49. 3 23. 6	33. 5 14. 0 11. 5 53. 1 25. 9	14.0 11.5 54.3	8.0 37.8	10.5	12.0 11.6 53.5	14.0 11.5 54.5	8.0 39.2	10.6	14.0 11.7 57.0	14.0 11.9 57.5
Nut margarine	do	25. 7 15. 0	22. 4 35. 8 16. 9	24.7 40.0 17.1 24.3	18. 2 24. 4	21.0 14.2	15.6 22.0	38.6 17.4 23.8	39.0 18.1 24.5	24.0 16.4		35.3 18.9 24.5	36. 2 19. 0 24. 4
Eggs, storageBreadFlour.Corn meal.Rolled oats.	do	2.9		9.7 4.1 5.5		4.8	4.5	8. 4 4. 5 3. 4	3.6	5.6 3.1 3.0	43. 6 7. 9 4. 5 3. 5 8. 6	7.9 4.6 3.9	4.
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg 28-oz. pkg Pound do do	9.0	9. 4 24. 3 18. 5 9. 7 9. 9	23. 4 18. 5 10. 2	23. 4 18. 2 10. 1	8.8	9. 4 24. 6 16. 4 8. 9 9. 3	22.8 16.6 9.0	23. 5 16. 6 9. 4	9.0	10. 0 25. 6 20. 1 9. 0 9. 2	24.5 19.4 9.0	24.8 20.2 9.8
Potatoes Onions Cabbage Beans, baked Corn, canned	do	la de la constante de la const	4.1	5.9 3.8 12.9	3.5 12.9	1.8	4.4	6. 0 4. 7 11. 4	5.9 4.3 11.4			5.9 4.6 12.9	6 4. 4 13.
Peas, canned. Tomatoes, canned. Sugar, granulated. Tea Coffee.	do Pound	5. 2 55. 0	15. 6 13. 6 7. 4 66. 6	9.1 72.6	14. 2 9. 8 72. 7	5.4	7.7 69.3	12.7 9.6 72.5	12. 5 10. 3 72. 2	5. 5 50. 0	68.4	9.5 68.1	13.8
Prunes	Dozen		21. 6 21. 6 36. 6 67. 9	17.3 39.0	17.1 37.7		19. 7 20. 5 33. 9 52. 2	17.1 42.3	16.7 45.6		19.8 20.7 42.9 58.9	16.7 51.9	17. 0 53. 8

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

CLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES-Continued.

Co	lumb Ohio,	us,	1	Dallas	s, Tex		Ī	enve	r, Col	0.	D	etroit	, Mic	h.	Fa	ll Riv	er, Ma	ass.
Oct.	Sept	Oct.	Oct.	15—	Sept.		Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct.
15, 1922.	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.
Cts. 34. 8 30. 5 26. 6 20. 9 14. 3	27.8 21.1	27.7 21.3	21.3 20.1 16.9	32. 1 26. 6 21. 9	30. 3 26. 4 21. 1	29. 8 26. 4 21. 1	21. 4 17. 8 15. 8	26. 5 22. 6	28. 5 23. 3 17. 3	26. 1 22. 5	15, 4	29.1	32. 3 28. 4 21. 1	$ \begin{array}{c c} 30.6 \\ 27.1 \\ 20.4 \end{array} $	Cts. 135. 3 28. 0 23. 3 18. 0	41.8 27.0	44.6 30.6 22.1	44. 5 29. 9 21. 9
34. 0 38. 3 47. 1 35. 9 33. 4	46.6 35.3	46.6 38.0	38.3 32.5 23.3	44.6 54.5 40.0	50.0 41.3	50.0 41.3	28. 0 31. 7 14. 6	44.8 52.7 34.1	42.9 50.5 35.9	43.3 49.7 34.8	27. 0 16. 4	50. 7 36. 7	51.3 39.0	40. 2 50. 3 37. 3	31. 2 18. 3	37. 7 47. 6 39. 2	34. 1 36. 9 48. 1 41. 0 42. 9	47. 8 39. 6
32. 2 11. 0 11. 0 49. 8 25. 3	13.0	13. 0 11. 9 55. 3	11.6	12.5	15. 0 14. 0 54. 4	15. 0 14. 0 56. 8	8.4	11.2	11.7 11.7 50.5	11.9	37.0	30. 4 13. 0 10. 7 50. 8 27. 0	11. 8 55. 5	11.8 56.5	9. 0	12.5	31. 6 14. 0 13. 4 52. 5 31. 7	14. 0 13. 5
24.7 33.9 16.2 22.5 51.9	15.8 22.6	38. 0 17. 3 23. 9	20. 0 16. 8		21.4 20.3	37.7 22.6		27. 7 36. 6 19. 4 24. 6 45. 6	19.0	19. 4 21. 3	21. 7 16. 5	23.0	23.7	24. 1	23.6 15.3	31. 3 35. 1 16. 5 23. 0 76. 0	27. 7 38. 8 17. 6 24. 6 70. 2	18.3 25.3
39.0 7.6 4.5 2.9 9.0	7.7 4.1 3.3 9.1	39:0 7:7 4:2 3:5 9:0	5.3 3.2 3.3	34.0 8.8 4.6 3.7 10.3	8.7 4.4 3.7 10.7	35. 0 8. 7 4. 4 4. 0 10. 7	5. 5 2. 6 2. 6	36. 8 8. 3 3. 7 3. 0 8. 8		38.6 7.8 3.7 3.3 9.0	5. 6 3. 1 2. 8	38. 1 8. 6 4. 4 4. 3 9. 3	8.6 4.0 4.5 8.8	40. 0 8. 6 4. 1 4. 5 9. 0	6. 2 3. 3 3. 7	41. 2 9. 2 5. 1 6. 3 9. 3	9, 1 4, 9 6, 1 9, 7	45. 5 9. 1 4. 9 6. 9 9. 6
9.5 26.2 19.0 10.4 9.3	24.2		9.3	11.8 25.6 21.2 10.8 10.7	11. 0 25. 1 21. 1 10. 0 11. 5	11.0 25.1 21.1 9.9 11.3	8.6	10. 1 25. 2 20. 7 9. 9 10. 5	9.6	9.9 24.5 20.7 9.8 12.3	8, 4	9. 0 24. 9 19. 4 9. 5 8. 9	9.1 24.3 19.1 9.4 9.6	19.7	10.0	10. 0 27. 7 24. 2 10. 2 10. 5	10. 0 26. 7 23. 3 10. 2 10. 7	26. 4 23. 0
2.1 5.4 4.0 13.2 13.1	3. 2 7. 4 4. 5 13. 6 12. 6		2.5	3.3 6.0 5.0 15.8 17.3	4, 2 7, 0 5, 4 14, 4 16, 1		1.4	1.8 4.2 2.1 14.7 14.7	2.9 4.7 2.3 14.5 14.8		1.6	1.6 3.8 2.7 12.3 15.3	3. 2 6. 1 5. 0 11. 9 14. 8	1. 9 5. 8 4. 1 11. 8 14. 5	1.8	2. 0 4. 7 3. 8 12. 9 15. 2	3.7 6.9 4.7 13.0 16.1	4.8
14.9 13.7 8.0 78.4 36.0	9.8 77.5	13.8 10.6 77.7	5. 8 66. 7 36. 7	21.1 14.0 8.4 92.7 41.5	21.1 14.2 10.2 92.3 42.5	11.3 92.3	5. 4 52. 8 29. 4	16. 2 13. 4 8. 6 69. 3 35. 7	13. 4 10. 2	16. 5 13. 2 11. 3 66. 5 36. 5	5. 4 43. 3 29. 3	16.8 13.2 7.5 64.1 36.4	16. 5 12. 7 9. 5 62. 4 38. 0	12.6 11.0	5. 3 44. 2 33. 0	17. 4 13. 2 8. 0 60. 2 38. 5	17. 7 13. 8 9. 8 59. 4 39. 8	10. 8 59. 1
22. 5 19. 8 36. 7 57. 4	19, 5 15, 9 39, 4 50, 3	17.6 40.4		23. 8 22. 2 35. 7 67. 2	20. 5 18. 2 33. 3 53. 6	17.5 34.0		21. 5 21. 3 212. 1 64. 2	20. 3 18. 1 ² 12. 4 50. 2	17.5 214.1		20. 7 19. 3 31. 7 61. 7	18. 2 16. 5 36. 9 51. 7	18. 3 16. 4 39. 0 52. 8		18. 1 21. 6 210. 0 50. 0	17. 5 18. 0 211. 0 48. 9	18.4

² Per pound.

TABLE 5 .- AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTI

		Hou	ston,	Tex.	Ind	ianap	olis, l	nd.	Jack	ksony	rille, I	Fla.
Article.	Unit.	Oct.	Sept	Oct.	Oct.	15—	Sept	Oct.	Oct.	15—	Sept	Oct.
		15, 1922.	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.
Sirtoin steak	do	Cts. 29.6 27.8 23.4 19.2 14.3	98 0	28.9 23.9 20.0	24.7 17.8 16.3	34. 4 25. 9 21. 9	38.1 26.3	36. 2 25. 6 22. 3	21.0 21.3 14.6	28.8 26.5 17.2	28. 8 26. 0 17. 0	28. 9 26. 4 17. 7
Pork chops Bacon, sliced Ham, sliced Lamb, leg of Hens	do.	47.1 32.9 33.9	44.7 45.4 35.0	45.0 35.0	29.7 31.2 20.7	48.7	36.9 50.0 39.2	36.8 50.0 38.3	31.0 30.2 21.6	37.9 45.0 36.6	35. 0 43. 8 35. 0	35. 0 44. 4 35. 0
Salmon, canned, red. Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated. Butter. Oleomargarine.	do Quart 15–16-oz. can Pound	30.6 15.3 11.8 49.2 31.8	15.3 12.8 54.3	12.8 54.9	8. 0 36. 8	38. 2 10. 0 10. 4 47. 4 26. 6	12.0 11.6 55.1	12.0 11.6 55.7	12.3	30. 7 17. 7 11. 4 48. 8 29. 6	16.3 12.7 53.9	18.7 12.8 56.0
Nut margarine Cheese. Lard. Vegetable lard substitute. Eggs, strictly fresh	do	29. 0 33. 5	34.6 19.9 17.3		21.3 15.0		36.5 15.3 24.0	37.7 16.8 24.4	22. 5 15. 8	22.4	34.9 18.0 23.4	35. 3 18. 4 23. 3
Eggs, storage Bread Flour Corn meal Rolled oats	Pound do do do do do	35. 8 6. 6 4. 9 3. 3 8. 3	7.1 4.5 3.8		5.1 3.2 2.5	38.0 7.3 4.5 3.1 7.9	8.5 4.4 3.4 7.6	4.3 3.5	2.9	41. 5 10. 6 5. 6 3. 1 9. 3	10.3 5.3 3.6	5.3
Corn flakes. Wheat cereal Macaroni Rice. Beans, navy.	8-oz. pkg 28-oz. pkg Pound do do	9.7 24.8 19.7 7.7 9.6	19.9	24.1 19.6 7.7	9.2	9.1 25.6 18.8 10.0 9.7	18.5 10.2	23.9 18.6 10.3	6.6	19.3	24. 4 19. 4	24.1 19.1 8.9
Potatoes. Onions Cabbage. Beans, baked. Corn, canned	do No. 2 can	3.6 5.1 5.0 14.2 13.6	6.3 4.9 13.2	5. 1	1.7		7.0	6.8 4.1 13.7		2.6 4.8 4.7 12.6 15.9	7.5 5.4 11.5	7. 6 5. 2 12. 2
Peas, canned Tomatoes, canned Sugar, granulated Tea Coffee	do	18. 2 11. 8 7. 8 72. 4 31. 6	11.9 9.1 70.8	11.8 10.0 70.8	5.7	13.7 8.3 74.4	14.1 9.9 77.1	10.0		10.4	9.7 86.5	11. 1 10. 8 86. 8
Prunes Raisins Bananas Oranges	do	29.5	17. 2 16. 9 30. 5 45. 3	16.8 33.2		22.6	19.6 17.8 31.3 48.9	17.7 31.4		20. 2 23. 3 31. 1 35. 1		18.3

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

CLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES-Continued.

Ka	nsas	City,	Mo.	Lit	ttle R	ock,	Ark.	Lo	s Ang	eles,	Calif.	I	ouisv	rille, 1	Ky.	Man	nches	ter, N	. н
Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct.	Oct	. 15—	Sept.	Oct.	Oct	. 15—	Sept.	Oct.	Oct	. 15—	Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	. 15—	Sept.	
1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15 192
Cts. 24. 9 22. 3 18. 0 15. 6 12. 2	Cts. 35. 7 30. 6 24. 2 17. 5 10. 8	27. 0 18. 7	32.7 26.3 18.2	25. 0 20. 0 20. 0 17. 5	32.7 30.0 25.9 18.4	31. 1 26. 7	34.6 30.7 27.1 19.2	21. 0 19. 4 15. 8	35. 0 28. 7 28. 5 17. 8	27. 9 27. 7 17. 0	28. 1 28. 0 17. 8	23. 0 20. 0 18. 2 15. 9	30.7 28.1 23.0 17.2	17.7	29. 0 23. 5 18. 0	137. 0 29. 5 20. 5 17. 0	44. 5 25. 9 21. 8	29.3	47 28 22
3. 1 1. 3 9. 4 8. 3 6. 1	34.7 44.3 49.3 30.9 28.5	46. 9 32. 3	47.1	36. 7 30. 0 18. 8	42. 4 50. 3 35. 7	42.0 47.7 40.0	41.3	33, 1 35, 0	50. 7 59. 1	49. 8 57. 2 33. 3	51. 4 59. 5 33. 6	29. 5 29. 0	37.9	33. 5 41. 3 34. 6	33, 5 40, 9 35, 0	23. 5 29. 0 20. 0	34.6 44.6 36.9	33. 9 40. 9 59. 3	33 41 37
9.3	31.6 12.7 11.4 47.8 26.6	13.3 12.0 54.2	13.3	10. 0 45. 0	11.6	15.3 13.3 54.5	15.7 13.3 56.6	10. 0 39. 5	40. 2 14. 0 10. 5 63. 2 31. 7	15. 0 10. 7 59. 8	15. 0 10. 9 60. 3	8. 8 39. 2	29. 0 12. 0 10. 7 51. 9 27. 2	13. 0 12. 2 55. 8	12.3	8. 0	12.8	13. 8 14. 0 56. 8	13 13 59
1. 8 6. 4 5. 0	27. 0 35. 3 18. 0 24. 5 41. 9	38.3 18.7 23.8	27. 8 38. 5 18. 7 24. 1 41. 1	16.5	28. 6 34. 3 19. 7 22. 7 39. 1	28. 7 37. 6 19. 1 21. 3 40. 7	19.4	17.9	19.5	37.5	38.6	16. 1	15.8 22.4	34. 7 16. 1 23. 7	27.3 36.7 17.4 24.0 41.0	22. 0 16. 3	23. 3 33. 9 17. 5 23. 1 68. 1	36.7 18.0 20.6	37 18 21
6. 0	34.3 7.9 4.5 4.5 8.3	7.9 4.1 4.5 8.9	4.2	6. 0 3. 6 2. 8	35. 0 8. 3 5. 2 3. 0 10. 3	8.1 4.8 3.3 10.1	38.3 8.1 4.9 3.6 9.8	6.0 3.4 3.4	41. 6 9. 0 4. 8 4. 3 10. 0	9.0 4.6 4.3 9.7	42.7 9.0 4.6 4.4 9.9	3.5	35. 0 8. 8 4. 9 2. 4 8. 6	8. 4 4. 8 3. 0 8. 4	8. 4 5. 0 3. 3 8. 3		41.1 7.7 5.2 4.6 9.0	8. 4 4. 8 4. 6 8. 6	44 8 4 4 8
8. 7	9.9 26.6 21.3 9.6 10.5	10. 2 25. 4 21. 4 9. 2 10. 5	24.9 21.8 9.6	8.3	9.8 25.8 21.6 8.0 9.9	9.8 25.1 20.3 7.8 11.5	9.8 25.1 20.3 8.0 10.7		9. 9 24. 4 16. 6 9. 7 8. 8	9.5 23.2 15.6 9.8 9.9	00 4	8.7	9.3 24.7 17.6 8.8 9.1	9.1 23.8 16.7 8.5 9.8	9. 0 24. 4 16. 9 7. 9 9. 7	8.8	9. 7 26. 1 24. 7 9. 2 10. 2	9.8 24.3 24.2 9.3 10.2	24
1. 9	2.3 5.1 3.7 14.5 13.6	2.7 6.7 4.5 14.3 14.0	2.2 6.9 3.9 14.1 14.0	2.4	3. 0 5. 7 4. 3 13. 3 14. 7	3.8 7.0 5.4 13.2 15.3	3.1 7.7 5.1 12.4 15.3	1.7	2.6 4.6 4.3 14.3 17.3		5.8 3.8 13.1		2.0 3.8 3.3 11.8 14.2	3.6 6.0 4.8 11.3 13.5	2. 4 6. 9 4. 2 11. 5 13. 6	1.6	1.8 3.9 3.9 15.1 18.0	3. 1 6. 8 4. 7 14. 5 17. 4	2 6 4 14 17
5. 7 4. 0 7. 8	15. 5 13. 1 8. 2 80. 2 37. 8	15. 4 13. 8 9. 8 79. 6 39. 4	13.8	50.0	18.7 13.1 8.8 91.8 39.7	18.8 12.9 10.6 92.3 41.0	18.5 12.7 11.7 92.3 41.3	5. 5 54. 5	19.3 215.7 8.1 70.8 38.4	18.4 214.9 9.9 69.4 38.9	18.5 214.9 10.7 69.8 39.8	5.4	15. 5 11. 3 7. 7 73. 9 34. 9	15. 5 11. 7 9. 5 73. 4 36. 3	15.6 12.1 10.8 72.7 36.0	5. 3 47. 5 32. 0	20. 8 319.2 8. 0 57. 4 39. 3	20. 9 320. 7 9. 8 57. 7 39. 5	20. 320 11. 57. 39.
		18.6 18.9 4 12.9 50.3			23.4	19.8 19.9 10.7 48.3	19.4		20.3	4 11.8	16.8		18. 7 21. 2 31. 7 45. 1	18. 5 16. 0 39. 7 41. 6	17. 2 15. 3 37. 5 44. 8			18. 4 15. 7 411. 9 48. 3	17. 15. 411. 51.

²No. 2½ can.

³ No. 3 can.

⁴ Per pound.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTI

		Me	mphi	s, Tei	ın.	Mil	wauk	ee, W	is.	Min	neapo	lis, M	inn.
Article.	Unit.	Oct.	15—	Sept.		Oct.		Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	15—	Sept.	
		1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923,
Sirloin steak	do do	20. 0 21. 0 15. 4	28. 4 23. 8 17. 3	34. 8 31. 0 25. 7 19. 0	33. 2 29. 6	21. 6 18. 8 16. 4	33. 0 26. 7	35, 1 28, 3 23, 0	38. 0 33. 8 27. 5	23. 0 21. 3 20. 0 17. 0	27. 1 24. 2	29.7 25.0 18.9	26. 3 24. 3 18.
Pork chops. Bacon, sliced. Ham, sliced. Lamb, leg of. Hens.	do do	31. 0 29. 0 20. 0	37. 6 47. 3 36. 4	37. 7 45. 8 36. 3	36. 2 44. 3 34. 1	21. 2 28. 6 29. 0 19. 5 18. 8	41. 8 45. 5 36. 2	41.6 45.1 37.5	41. 1 44. 9 36. 2	32.7 14.8	43.6 48.1 32.1	41. 8 47. 3 33. 7	40. 46. 33.
Salmon, canned, red Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated Butter Oleomargarine	do	10.0	35. 5 15. 0 11. 1 47. 0 30. 0	36. 0 15. 0 13. 0 51. 9 30. 0	15.0	7.0	32.6 9.0 10.6 50.0 25.0	11. 0 11. 5 53. 5	11.6 53.5	8.0	11.6	12. 0 12. 6 50. 2	12. 12. 51.
Nut margarine Cheese Lard Vegetablelard substitute Eggs, strictly fresh	do	00.0	27. 2	24. 2	25. 0 36. 7 17. 6 23. 2 41. 1	22. 0 15. 8 35. 0	17. 7 22. 4	36. 2 18. 3 23. 5	37. 0 19. 0 24. 2	20: 8 15: 7 34: 0	24, 1	35. 8 17. 6 24. 7	36. 18. 25.
Eggs, storage Bread. Flour Corn meal. Rolled oats.	Pound	6.0	9.0	8. 9 5. 1 3. 4	38. 5 9. 2 5. 1 3. 6		8.9	4.1	8. 8 4. 2 4. 1	5. 6 2. 8 2. 5	4. 5	9. 0 4. 3 3. 8	4.
Corn flakes	Pound		17.0	24. 6 17. 7	24. 3 18. 0 8. 1	9.0	24. 5 17. 3	24. 2 17. 6 10. 2	24. 5 17. 5 10. 4	8.6	25. 2 17. 9 9. 6	24.4	24. 17. 9.
Potatoes. Onions. Cabbage. Beans, baked. Corn, canned.	do		4 (5. 2 3. 9 13. 2	5. 4	1.6	3.4	6. 0 2. 8 11. 7	6.3	1.3	3.9	6. 0 3. 8 2 13. 9	5. 2. 13.
Peas, canned. Tomatoes, canned. Sugar, granulated Tea Coffee	ododoPounddododododododo	5. 6 38. 8 27. 5	17. 8 12. 2 8. 1 8. 5 8. 5 8. 6 8. 6	13.1	12.6 11.0 84.2		13. 7 7. 6 68. 9	14. 0 9. 4 70. 4	14. 0 10. 1 170. 4		15. 2 8. 1 63. 7	14.8 10.0 65.3	14. 10. 65.
Primes. Raisins Bananas Oranges.	Dozen		30.6	19. 8 19. 2 35. 6 41. 4	18.0		19.8	16.9	16.7		20, 5	20. 4 17. 7 1 3 13. 0 1 52. 8	17

¹ Whole.

² No. 3 can.

³ Per pound.

CLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued.

Mol	oile, A	la.	N	ewark	, N.	J.,	New	Hav	en, Co	onn.	Ne	w Orl	eans,	La.	Ne	w Yo	rk, N.	Y.
Oct.			Oct.	15	Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	15	Sept.		Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct
15, 1922.	15, 1923.		1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923
Cts. 29. 6 29. 3 25. 0 19. 0 15. 8	31.3 26.5 19.8	31. 5 31. 2 25. 2	27.7 27.7 21.0 18.6	22.2	45.6 36.7 25.4	44. 2 36. 0 25. 3	29.6 24.2 20.0	35.3	44.6 36.6 28.6	43.9 36.4 27.7	18.4 15.5		29.7 28.9 19.9	31. 5 28. 1 27. 5 20. 1	Cts. 26. 1 25. 5 21. 6 16. 0 14. 8	36. 1 22. 3	Cts. 45. 0 43. 5 37. 3 23. 3 18. 5	42. 36. 23.
35, 8 41, 8 46, 2 33, 6 35, 5	39.5 45.5 35.6	39.6 43.8	25. 8 120. 8 19. 0	38.9 128.3 37.5	39. 8 129. 6 39. 9	39. 1 128. 6 37. 7	32. 8 18. 3	41. 1 54. 9 38. 2	40.5 55.2 42.1	40.3 54.4 39.1	30. 4 26. 0 21. 0	40. 1 41. 8 47. 1 40. 7 36. 7	37. 4 39. 7 43. 9 40. 5 36. 6	40. 0 43. 6 39. 3	25.7 29.5 15.2	40. 2 54. 8 33. 7	38. 5 38. 1 52. 1 37. 1 36. 3	38. 51. 35.
30, 3 15, 0 11, 8 50, 8 30, 2	15. 0 13. 0 56. 9	15.0 12.8 57.9	9.0	10.7		16.5 11.9	9.0	15. 0 10. 8 46. 6	34.3 16.0 12.5 52.9 31.0	16.0 12.5 54.8	9.5	14. 0 11. 0		15.0 12.1 54.8	9.0	10.6	11.7 54.9	15. 11. 56.
27. 1 33. 4 17. 5 23. 0 43. 3	37.3 17.8	37.4 18.3 20.0	24.8 16.3	25.3 35.1 17.3 22.3 72.9	40. 4 17. 5	40. 2 18. 7 24. 4	23.5 15.7	17.4 22.2	36.7	37.5 18.2	21. 4 14. 9	16.8	36. 1 17. 2	36.3 17.7 22.1	19.8 16.3	17.6 22.7	23.9	38 19 24
39. 4 8. 2 5. 2 2. 9 9. 0	8.9 5.0 3.5	5.1	5. 6 3. 6 3. 6	42.8 8.6 4.9 6.1 7.9	6.1	4.5 6.4	6.0 3.2 3.2	4.7	8. 0 4. 4 5. 9	6.0	5. 0 3. 8 2. 9	5.5		5.4	6. 0 3. 2 3. 5	5.0	9. 6 4. 5 5. 1	5
9. 4 24. 2 20. 0 8. 2 11. 3	23.5 20.1 8.8	23. 5 19. 4 8. 6		8. 9 25. 4 21. 1 9. 1 10. 2	23, 8 21, 0 9, 4	23.5 21.0 9.4		9. 4 24. 8 21. 8 10. 2 10. 2	23. 4 22. 7 9. 8	23. 4 22. 8 9. 8		9. 5 24. 5 9. 7 8. 6 10. 1	24. 0 8. 8 9. 1	24. 0 8. 9 9. 2	8,0	8.6 24.7 20.4 9.1 10.2	22. 9 20. 3 9. 5	22 20 9
3. 2 4. 5 4. 0 13. 2 15. 1	6.0 4.5 12.1	6.1 4.3 11.9		2. 1 4. 9 4. 1 11. 2 14. 8	6.1	4.9		2. 0 5. 2 3. 7 12. 4 18. 2	6.8 6.6 12.0	6.9 5.9 12.0	2.1	3. 1 4. 2 4. 3 12. 8 13. 1	5. 0 4. 0 12, 8	5. 2 4. 0 12. 9		2. 2 4. 2 3. 1 11. 5 14. 3	6. 2 5. 7 11. 8	6 5 11
16. 0 12. 3 8. 1 75. 3 35. 6	12.3 9.8 73.9	11.9 11.3 75.5	5. 2 53. 8	49.5	11.9 9.0 54.9	11.9 10.1 54.9	5, 5 55, 0	57.7	9.5	20. 7 2 22. 1 10. 6 57. 2 40. 3	5. 1 62. 1	12.0 7.6 72.3	9.0	11.7 10.4 69.9	4.9 43.3 27.2	47.9	11.6 8.9 57.2	11 9 57
21. 7 23. 3 26. 5 55. 0	18. 7	30.0		37.5	16.3 15.6 39.4 56.8	15.8 39.5		18.8	17.6 15.8 32.7 49.1	15.6 32.9		22. 4 22. 0 25. 0 55. 7	17.5 20.0	16.3 22.0		19. 2 18. 2 41. 7 76. 6	15. 5 42. 5	15 43

TABLE 5 .- AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTI

		No	rfolk,	Va.	(Omaha	, Nebr		P	eoria, 1	11.
Article.	Unit.	Oct. 15,	Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct. 15,	Oct. 15,	Sept.	Oct.
		1922.	1923.	1923.	1913	1922	1923.	1923.	1922.	1923.	15, 1923.
Sirloin steak Round steak Rib roast Chuck roast Plate beef	dodododo	Cts. 37. 9 32. 1 30. 0 20. 0 14. 1	36. 1 33. 3	Cts. 41.8 35.9 32.8 21.0 14.4	22. 8 19. 4	33.8 25.4 19.9		Cts. 36.8 33.4 26.8 20.7 10.5	Cts. 33.6 31.9 24.4 20.1 12.8	33. 4 23. 6 20. 1	32. 23. 20.
Pork chops	do	33. 3 37. 7 40. 4 38. 2 37. 3	34.9 35.0 41.4 40.0 36.9	32. 7 34. 8 41. 8 40. 0 36. 8	21. 9 28. 6 30. 0 16. 3 16. 3	46.3 51.7	35. 9 45. 6 49. 1 36. 9 29. 3	33. 3 45. 0 49. 4 36. 3 28. 7	34. 4 42. 9 47. 9 35. 2 30. 0	41. 4 48. 9 35. 1	46. 34.
Salmon, canned, red Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated Butter Oleomargarine	Quart	29. 6 17. 0 10. 4 49. 7 28. 4	29. 3 17. 0 11. 4 55. 9 28. 3	29.3 17.0 11.5 56.5 27.5	8.2	33. 8 11. 0 10. 8 47. 3 28. 4	33. 7 12. 3 12. 0 50. 1 28. 9	33. 2 12. 3 12. 0 50. 5 28. 8	33. 1 10. 4 11. 2 46. 6 27. 9	12. 0 52. 1	11. 12. 53.
Nut margarine	do	25. 6 30. 9 17. 1 21. 6 46. 0	26. 8 33. 3 17. 4 17. 5 47. 9	26.8 34.0 17.5 17.9 50.1	23. 3 17. 6	27. 3 33. 1 19. 1 24. 3 38. 8	28, 4 35, 5 19, 6 24, 2 36, 4	28. 6 3648 19. 5 23, 8 39, 0	27. 2 34. 4 17. 5 24. 2 45. 9	36. 8 17. 9 24. 2	18. 24.
Eggs, storage Bread Flour Corn meal Rolled oats	Poundddo	35. 8 8. 0 4. 8 3. 5 8. 2	7.8 4.4 3.7 8.0	42.8 7.8 4.5 3.8 7.9	2.5	28. 5 9. 8 4. 0 3. 4 10. 7	9. 8 3. 8 3. 8 10. 1	35. 0 9. 8 3. 9 3. 9 10. 1	36. 0 8. 5 4. 7 3. 6 8. 8	8. 0 4. 5 3. 7	35. 8. 4. 3. 9.
Oorn flakes	28-oz. pkg Pounddo	9.6 25.8 20.3 9.9 9.6	9.4 23.8 20.0 9.9 10.8	23. 6 19. 4 9. 9	8.5	9.8 25.7 20.5 9.8 10.8	10.3 24.2 20.0 9.2 11.8	10.6 24.2 20.0 9.4 11.0	10. 0 27. 3 19. 5 10. 1 10. 6	26.1 19.5 9.5	25. 19. 9.
Potatoes Onions Sabbage Beans, baked Corn, canned	do	2.3 4.8 3.8 10.9 14.8	3.3 6.4 4.9 9.8 15.7	4.6	1.8	1.6 4.0 2.8 15.0 16.1	2. 4 5. 3 3. 8 15. 2 16. 3	2.0 5.7 3.5 15.3 16.3	2. 0 4. 8 3. 3 13. 4 14. 6	4.1 12.9	2. 7. 3. 12. 14.
Peas, canned	Pounddo	18.7 11.0 7.5 75.4 36.9	18.8 10.8 8.8 82.1 37.9	18. 2 10. 8 9. 9 81. 5 37. 4	5. 8 56. 0 30. 0	16. 6 15. 0 8. 2 76. 7 38. 8	17.3 14.6 9.9 75.2 41.1	17. 4 14. 4 10. 3 75. 4 41. 1	17. 0 14. 2 8. 5 61. 9 35. 6	17. 2 14. 1 10. 1 60. 6 36. 6	17. 14. 10. 61. 36.
Primes	Dozen	19.5 20.9 34.6 54.5	17. 5 16. 9 35. 4 53. 4	15. 6 36. 7		23, 2 22, 8 4 10, 2 59, 5	20.3 19.8 4 12.6 48.2	19. 8 19. 4 4 13. 2 48. 5	22. 6 24. 3 4 10. 2 60. 0		20. 17. 4 11. 44.

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

CLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES-Continued.

Phi	ladelj	ohia, 1	Pa.	Pi	ttsbu	rgh, I	Pa.	Por	tland,	Me.	P	ortlan	d, Or	eg.	Pi	ovide	nce, R	. I.
Oct.	15—	Sept.		Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct.		Sept.		Oct.	15—		Oct.	Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct
1913	1922	15, 1923,	15, 1923,	1913	1922	1923.	15, 1923.	15, 1922.	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923
Cts. 31.2 26.4 22.1 18.2 11.5	38.5 32.8 20.2	21.4	40. 4 33. 5 21. 1	Cts. 27.7 23.7 21.7 17.8 12.8	Cts. 41. 1 33. 9 31. 3 21. 1 11. 1	36.9 32.5 22.3	36.7 32.5 22.4	46. 1 29. 3 19. 1	29.7 20.4	46. 4 29. 5	21. 0 19. 6 16. 9	25.8 24.5 16.0	25. 1 24. 3 16. 3	24.1 16.1	24.2	1 66.9 48.8 36.7	39.2	49. 37. 27.
23.3 27.5 31.9 19.1 23.1	38.8	36.6 52.9 39.6	36.2	23. 2 30. 6 29. 9 20. 0 25. 5	38.3	42. 2 54. 3 39. 7	41. 4 53. 8 38. 6	38. 4 53. 3 37. 2	36. 9 48. 4 39. 5	47.3 37.7	23, 4 31, 5 30, 8 16, 9 21, 3	45.3 48.6 31.0	46.0 47.8 32.4	46. 5 32. 4	33.3 18.7	37.0 54.5 40.2	36. 7 53. 7 43. 5	37. 52. 41.
8.0	27.5 12.0 11.0 55.8 27.3	13.0 12.2 58.6	12.2	8.8	10.4	14.0 12.1 56.1	15.0 12.1 58.0	14.0 12.1 52.9	14.0 13.5 57.8	13.7	9.7	11.8	13.0 12.0 55.8	13.0 11.9 57.7	9.0	12.0	15.0	12. 54.
25. 0 15. 6 42. 5	27.0 35.5 16.5 22.7 57.4	38.0 17.5 23.1	17.8	24. 5 15. 7 38. 0	15. 9 23. 2	37.5 16.4 23.7	38.3 17.7 24.2	34.7 17.8 24.0	39. 4 17. 9 22. 8	40.1 18.4 23.2	20.8	19.8 25.3	37.9 19.5	39.3 20.0	22.0 15.7	17.3 23.6	29. 1 36. 0 17. 5 23. 9 66. 4	36. 17. 24.
4. 8 3. 2 2. 8	41. 2 8. 6 4. 9 3. 6 8. 0	4.5	42. 0 8. 4 4. 6 4. 1 8. 3	5.5 3.2 3.0	38.5 8.2 4.8 3.9 8.8	8.5 4.4 4.4	4.8	9. 4 4. 9 4. 3	9.3 4.5 4.7	42.7 9.3 4.5 4.6 6.9	2.9 3.4	4.3	9. 2 4. 3 3. 6 9. 3	4.1 3.8	3.5	5.1	8.8 4.9 4.1 9.4	4.
9.8	8.8 25.0 21.1 10.3 9.5	23.9 20.5 10.2	23.7 20.5 10.3	9. 2	9.6 25.4 20.2 9.5 9.8	24.9 21.8 9.6	25. 0 21. 3 10. 0	23. 4 10. 7	24. 5 23. 4 10. 5	23.6 10.4	8.6	11. 0 28. 6 16. 4 10. 1 9. 2	25.7 18.4	26.3 18.1 9.9	9.3	9.8 26.7 22.1 9.5 10.4	9.7 24.1 22.4 9.4 10.6	24. 22. 9.
2.3	2.3 4.2 3.2 11.8 14.9	6. 2 5. 1 11. 2	3.8 5.9 4.5 11.2 14.7		2. 1 4. 3 3. 6 12. 8 14. 0	6.7 4.7 12.8	6.6 4.7 12.8		6. 4 2. 9 15. 7	6.3 3.0 15.7			4.6	3.0 15.0	1.7	2.1 4.6 3.6 13.0 17.5	3. 7 6. 3 4. 2 12. 1 16. 9	6. 4. 1 12. 1
5. 0 54. 0 24. 5	16.3 11.9 7.2 59.4 31.1	12.5 8.8	12.0 10.0 59.2	5.7		12.6 9.5 74.8	12.6 10.7 76.5	20. 4 223.1 8. 1 56. 5 40. 4	9.6 57.5	222. 0 10. 9 57. 5	6, 2 55, 0	63.8	316. 4 9. 9 65. 7	316.9	5.1		20. 0 13. 8 9. 3 61. 1 41. 7	13. 10. 60.
	18.6 20.1 30.9 57.9	16.1	16.2 34.0		20. 9 21. 0 41. 7 56. 4	16.6 44.1	45.3	19.7	17.7 15.4 411.7 52.2	15.4		20. 2 413. 7	16.4	16. 1 415. 6		20. 1 20. 1 33. 5 77. 5	19. 4 16. 6 36. 9 60. 8	16. 35.

² No. 3 can.

³ No. 2½ can.

⁴ Per pound

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTI

		Ri	chmo	nd, V	a.	Rock	iester,	N.Y.	St	. Loi	iis, M	0.
Article.	Unit.	Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct.		Sept.		Oct.	15—	Sept.	
		1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	15, 1922.	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.
Sirloin steak. Round steak Rib roast. Chuck roast. Plate beef.	do	Cts. 22. 2 20. 0 18. 9 15. 9 12. 6	33.8 29.5 21.8	35.1 30.7 21.9	34.6	33.7 27.7 22.3	34. 5 30. 0 23. 5	29. 7 23. 4	26.0 24.3	26.8 18.3	33.6 27.6 18.2	32. 9 28. 9 19. 1
Pork chops. Bacon, sliced Ham, sliced Lamb, leg of. Hens	dododododododododo	22. 0 27. 2 25. 0 19. 3 20. 4	37.2 42.2 42.5	33.9 40.0 42.1	34.1 39.0 42.3		34.7 46.8 38.2	34, 4 46, 4 36, 8	19. 8 26. 9 27. 3 18. 3 16. 8	39.9 44.1	39. 0 43. 8 35. 0	44. 1 34. 4
Salmon, canned, red Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated Butter Oleomargarine.	do. Quart 15-16-oz.can. Pound	10.0	32. 4 13. 0 12. 3 53. 6 28. 2	31. 2 14. 0 13. 6 58. 9 30. 2	32. 0 14. 0 13. 6 60. 3 29. 6	49.9	13.0 12.1 54.5	13.3 12.1 56.3	8.8	12.0 10.2		13.0 11.5 58.2
Nut margarine Cheese Lard Vegetable lard substitute Eggs, strictly fresh	do	22.3	27.6 34.2 17.7	28.8 37.0	29. 3 37. 6 19. 0 23. 6	34.5	37.6 17.2 19.7	38.3 18.0 20.2	19. 5 13. 1 31. 0	22.3	35.1 14.6 23.0	36. 3 15. 1 24. 0
Eggs, storage. Bread Flour Corn meal Rolled oats	Pound do do do	5. 4 3. 2 2, 3	38.8 9.1 5.0 3.9 9.5	8.7 4.6 4.7	41. 8 8. 6 4. 6 4. 5 9. 1	8. 0 5. 0	8.0 4.4 4.7	4.5	5.6 2.9 2.5	34.6 9.0 4.1 3.0 8.3	8.9 4.0 3.4	4.2
Corn flakes Wheat cereal Macaroni Rice Beans, navy	8-oz. pkg 28-oz. pkg do do do	10.0	9. 9 26. 5 20. 3 11. 6 10. 4	25. 5 21. 1 11. 0	25. 5 21. 1 11. 0	24.9 18.9 9.6	24.0 18.6 9.4	23.9 18.6 9.5		8. 9 24. 2 19. 9 8. 9 9. 9	23. 2 19. 1 8. 9	24. 2 20. 0 9. 3
Potatoes Onions Cabbage Beans, baked Corn, canned	dodododo	2.1	2.7 5.1 3.9 12.0 15.0	7.9 5.7 11.6	3. 9 7. 5 5. 3 11. 4 15. 0	4, 5 3, 1 11, 4	6.1 4.6 11.2	3, 9	1.9	2.5 4.0 3.4 11.4 14.7	5.9 3.6 11.0	5. 8 3. 6 11. 3
Peas, canned Tomatoes, canned Sugar, granulated Tea Coffee	do do Pound do do do	5. 4 56. 0 27. 4	18. 9 12. 5 8. 0 78. 4 35. 4	9.5	19. 5 12. 0 10. 6 81. 7 37. 8	7.5	9. 4 62. 2	12. 4 10. 5 62. 5	5. 3 55. 0 24. 4	16.3 11.6 7.9 66.8 35.0	11.9 9.7	12. 0 10. 6 69. 7
Prunes . Raisins . Bananas . Oranges .	do		23, 2 20, 8 36, 9 58, 5	21.7 17.8 39.2 52.7	16.9	19. 1 40. 0	15.3 42.8	15.4 42.8				17. 0 31. 6

¹ No. 21 can.

CLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES-Continued.

St	. Pau	l, Min	n.	Salt	Lake	City,	Utah.	San	Franc	eisco,	Calif.	Sava	innah	, Ga.	8	Scrant	on, Pa	
Oct.		Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	15—	Sept.	Oct.
1913	1922	15, 1923.	1923.	1913	1922	1923.	1923.	1913	1922	1923.	1923.	15, 1922.	1923.	1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.
Cts. 26. 4 23. 0 20. 4 16. 8 10. 8	26. 9 20. 0	30. 9 28. 9 21. 6	27.7 21.3	20. 0 19. 4 15. 0	25. 7 22. 3 17. 0	24. 0 20. 8 16. 9	23.7 20.8 16.3	19.7 21.3	27.3 28.5	Cts. 30. 4 27. 6 29. 2 17. 8 13. 8	27. 4 29. 6	22.4	25. 8 24. 6	Cts. 30. 4 25. 4 23. 3 15. 0 13. 2	22. 0 23. 0 17. 6	Cts. 46. 9 37. 8 35. 5 25. 9 11. 5	36.5 26.7	40.3 36.1 26.9
20. 4 27. 0 28. 8 16. 1 18. 0	45.7 33.1	39.6 44.3 33.3	42.9 31.1	30. 0 30. 0 16. 9	39. 5 48. 6 30. 7	37.9 42.9 31.8	37.5 42.5	34.4	53. 9 55. 0	53. 5	51. 2 53. 1 36. 6	36. 7 39. 6 37. 5	35. 4 36. 5 36. 3	34. 2 37. 0	27.5 30.0 17.3	43.1 55.3 42.5	41. 6 41. 8 54. 0 46. 6 42. 3	41.7 53.8 45.2
7.8	11.3	12.0 12.1 50.3	12.0 12.1	8.7	9.0	10.9	34. 7 10. 0 10. 9 52. 9		10.5	13.0 10.9 60.5	13. 0 10. 9 60. 9	17.3 10.8 51.1	17.5	11.3	8.8	36. 4 13. 0 11. 6 47. 7 26. 6	14.0 12.3 53.5	35. 2 14. 0 12. 2 54. 7
21. 0 15. 3	17.7 24.8	34.9 17.8 24.0	18.9	24. 2 20. 0 42. 0	20.1 26.2	31.7 19.5 27.4	32. 2 20. 2 28. 4		19. 2 25. 4	38. 4 19. 2 25. 6	39.7 19.5	32. 5 18. 0 21. 6	35.6 17.4 18.5	18.1	18.3 16.0	17.7 23.2	35.8 17.8 22.8	36.4 18.5 23.5
6.0 2.9 2.5	4.9	9.4 4.4 3.6	35.7 9.4 4.4 3.7 9.8	2.4	3.2	3.2	42. 4 9. 8 3. 3 3. 8 9. 2	3.4	5.1	9.2 4.8 4.9	4.8	8.7 5.3 2.7	8. 5 5. 2 3. 2 8. 8	40. 8 8. 5 5. 2 3. 4 8. 7	5.6	37. 9 8. 7 5. 5 6. 0 9. 6	9.1 5.1	
10.0		25. 0 18. 7 9. 6	25.0 18.8 9.5		21.0	24.9 18.9 8.6	24.9 19.2 8.8	8.5	25.1 13.7	23. 2 14. 3 9. 2	23.0 15.3 9.2	24.7 17.9 8.1	9.1 24.2 17.5 8.1 11.8	17.1 8.4	8.5	9.9 26.5 22.7 9.7 11.1	10. 1 25. 6 22. 7 9. 4 12. 6	22.6 9.6
1.3	1.3 3.4 1.9 14.5 14.6	5.8 2.9 14.2	3.4	1.4		4.9 3.0 15.5	2.9	1.8		4.1	4.0	6.3 4.5 12.6	5.1	4, 8 12, 3		1.9 4.6 2.9 12.6 16.3	6.6 4.6 12.1	6.3 3.6 12.2
5. 6 45. 0 30. 0	64.2	14.2 10.0 67.1	10.5	5.8	16. 0 14. 4 8. 9 79. 1 44. 1	13. 4 10. 5 82. 6	13. 4 11. 0 83. 4	5.4	1 14. 5 7. 9	9.6 58.0	114. 4 10. 3 57. 5	7.6 67.9	10.6 9.2 66.9	10.6 10.3 66.9	5.5 52.5	58.7	13. 0 9. 4 60. 7	13.1 10.5 60.7
	22. 1 22. 7 211. 4 68. 8	18.3 212.9	18.3		214.4	17. 5 16. 9 215. 2 44. 1	215.8		19. 4 19. 5 36. 3 66. 3	15.5	14.8 32.9	19.8	15.8 35.9	15. 4 37. 5		18.8 20.9 32.8 61.5	16.7 32.4	16.6 35.0

² Per pound.

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

		1	Seattle	, Wash	1.	Sprin	ngfield,	III.	Wa	shing	gton, 1	D. C
Article.	Unit.	Oct.	. 15—	Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	Sept.	Oct.	Oct.	15—	Sept.	
		1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	15, 1922.	15, 1923.	15, 1923.	1913	1922	15, 1923.	15, 1923
Sirloin steak Round steak Rib roast Chuck roast Plate beef	do	Cts. 24. 3 20. 7 19. 3 16. 0 13. 0	Cts. 30. 3 26. 5 24. 3 15. 9 12. 4	26. 4 24. 1 16. 1	24. 2 16. 3	32.2 21.9 19.1	Cts. 34.8 34.2 23.7 19.9 13.1	Cts. 34.3 33.2 23.2 19.9 13.0	23.5 20.7 17.3	38.3	41.1 34.8 23.6	40. 34.
Pork chopsBacon, slicedHam, slicedLamb, leg ofHens.	dododododo	24.3 32.5 30.0 17.7 24.3	37. 1 49. 3 52. 0 31. 5 29. 8	52. 0 32. 2	32.6	46.1	34. 5 40. 0 47. 1 38. 1 31. 8	31. 4 39. 9 46. 1 38. 1 32. 5	30.0 19.1	39. 8 40. 5 56. 9 40. 6	40.7 37.1 55.0 42.1	37. 37. 54. 41.
Salmon, canned, red	Quart 15-16-oz. can Pounddo	9.7	31. 2 12. 0 10. 7 55. 2 28. 8	13. 0 10. 9 54. 5	13.0	11.1 11.7 50.5	34. 0 12. 5 12. 8 54. 1 29. 0	34.4 12.5 12.9 55.7 29.3	40.3	11.0	12.3 57.3	28. 14. 12. 58. 29.
Nut margarine Cheese Lard Vegetable lard substitute Eggs, strictly fresh	dododo	22.7 17.1	28. 9 33. 8 19. 3 25. 5 56. 2	29. 0 36. 3 19. 2 24. 8 47. 8	29. 4 36. 1 19. 8 25. 7 61. 5	23.1	28. 1 38. 6 17. 8 25. 1 38. 9	18. 2 26. 9		17.7 23.0	38.0 18.6 23.8	39 19 24
Eggs, storage Bread Flour Jorn meal Rolled oats	Pounddododo	5. 2 2. 9 3. 3	42.0 9.9 4.4 3.8 8.4	9.9 4.3 4.2 8.1	45. 0 9. 9 4. 2 4. 2 8. 3	39. 2 9. 7 5. 1 4. 2 9. 9	9.3 4.7 4.5 10.6	36.3 9.3 4.7 4.6 10.6	5. 7 3. 8 2. 7	39.5 8.5 5.1 3.7 9.3	9.0 4.8 3.9	40 9 4 3 9
Corn flakes	28-oz. pkg Pounddo	7. 7	11.7 26.9 18.2 11.0 9.6	11.7 24.7 18.3 11.1 10.5	11.6 24.6 18.3 11.6 10.6	9.7 26.8 20.5 10.3 10.9	10.1 25.2 19.6 10.1 10.5	10.1 25.3 19.6 10.2 9.9	9.4	9.4 25.3 21.6 10.6 10.6	20.8 10.2	9. 24. 21. 10.
Potatoes Onions Cabbage Beans, baked Corn, canned	do No. 2 can do		1.9 3.3 3.2 15.9 17.5	2.4 4.8 4.6 15.2 15.5	2.4 4.9 3.5 15.4 17.5	2.0 4.6 3.7 14.1 14.5	2.6 7.0 4.7 13.2 14.8	2.1 6.8 3.6 13.0 14.4		2.7 4.8 3.9 11.9 14.3		3. 6. 5. 11. 14.
Peas, canned Comatoes, canned Sugar, granulated Cea Coffee	Pound	6.4	19.3 1 16.0 8.3 66.2 38.8	18.6 1 15.4 10.1 68.2 38.6	19.3 1 15.0 11.0 70.4 38.6	17. 9 15. 0 8. 7 71. 1 35. 9	17.8 14.9 10.5 75.7 38.1	17.4 14.7 11.6 77.4 37.5	5.1 57.5 28.8	16.3 11.2 7.6 75.5 34.0	15.5 11.7 9.1 76.8 35.3	15. 11. 10. 75. 34.
Prunes Raisins Bananas Oranges	Dozen		20. 9 21. 0 2 13. 8 66. 4	16. 1 17. 2 2 15. 9 48. 2	16.2 17.3 2 15.7 51.3	21.7 24.2 2 10.3 60.0	20. 2 19. 8 2 12. 1 49. 2	19.2 19.0 2 12.3 51.5		22. 1 21. 4 35. 8 62. 1	20.1 17.1 38.9 55.3	20. 16. 38. 57.

1 No. 21 can.

2 Per pound.

Comparison of Retail Food Costs in 51 Cities.

TABLE 6 shows for 39 cities the percentage of increase or decrease in the retail cost of food in October, 1923, compared with the average cost in the year 1913, in October, 1922, and in September, 1923. 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.

⁷ For list of articles, see note 2, p. 52.

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

Effort has been made by the bureau each month to have perfect reporting cities. For the month of October 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 36 cities who is cooperating with the bureau sent in his report

in time for his prices to be included in the city averages:

Birmingham, Bridgeport, Buffalo, Butte, Chicago, Cincinnati, Dallas, Denver, Fall River, Houston, Indianapolis, Jacksonville, Kansas City, Little Rock, Los Angeles, Louisville, Manchester, Memphis, Minneapolis, Newark, New Haven, New Orleans, Norfolk, Omaha, Peoria, Philadelphia, Portland, Me., Portland, Oreg., Richmond, St. Louis, St. Paul, San Francisco, Savannah, Scranton, Seattle, Springfield, Ill.

The following summary shows the promptness with which the

merchants responded in October:

RETAIL PRICE REPORTS RECEIVED DURING OCTOBER, 1923.

			Geogra	aphical div	vision.	
Item.	United States.	North Atlantic.	South Atlantic.	North Central.	South Central.	Western.
Percentage of reports received	99	98	97	99	99. 5	99. 5
which every report was received	36	9	4	10	7	6

TABLE 6.—PERCENTAGE CHANGES IN THE RETAIL COST OF FOOD IN OCTOBER, 1923, COMPARED WITH THE COST IN SEPTEMBER, 1923, OCTOBER, 1922, AND WITH THE AVERAGE COST IN THE YEAR 1913, BY CITIES.

att	Percentage	e increase Oc mpared wit	ctober, 1923, h—	C1.1	Percentage cor	increase Oc npared wit	etober, 1923, h—
City.	1913	October, 1922.	September, 1923.	City.	1913	October, 1922.	September, 1923.
Atlanta	47 57 51 55	6 7 5 4 8	1 1 0. 3 1 0. 1 0. 1 0	Milwaukee Minneapolis Mobile Newark New Haven	50 45 50 54	6 4 5 5 6	1 1 1 1 1 0.4 1
Buffalo Butte Charleston Chicago Cincinnati	54 49 55 48	2 3 5 7 6	1 1 0. 3 0. 4 1 1 1	New Orleans New York Norfolk Omaha Peoria	46 57 44	3 5 5 5 5	1 1 1 0.4 1 1 1 0.1
Cleveland Columbus Dallas Denver Detroit	45 37 56	7 6 2 6 7	$\begin{smallmatrix}1&1\\&1\\1\\0.3\\1&2\end{smallmatrix}$	Philadelphia Pittsburgh Portland, Me Portland, Oreg Providence	54 54 40 57	6 9 3 4 4	0.4 2 1 3 0.2
Fall River Houston Indianapolis Jacksonville Kansas City	54 44 43 41	7 3 8 5	1 0.4 1 2 2 1 1	Richmond Rochester St. Louis St. Paul Salt Lake City	58 49 31	4 5 5 4 6	1 1 0. 1 0. 3 1 1 2
Little Rock Los Angeles Louisville Manchester Memphis	41 47 39 52 40	3 4 5 6 5	$\begin{smallmatrix} 0 \\ 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0.2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{smallmatrix}$	San Francisco Savannah Scranton Seattle Springfield, Ill Washington, D.C.	51 56 46 59	2 4 6 5 3 4	3 0.4 1 0.4 3 1 0.4 0.4

¹ Decrease.

Retail Prices of Coal in the United States.a

THE following table shows the average retail prices of coal on January 15 and July 15, 1913; October 15, 1922; and September 15 and October 15, 1923, for the United States and for each of the cities from which prices have been obtained. 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 bins where an extra handling is necessary.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JANUARY 15 AND JULY 15, 1913, OCTOBER 15, 1922, AND SEPTEMBER 15 AND OCTOBER 15, 1923.

	19	13	1922	19:	23
City, and kind of coal.	Jan. 15.	July 15.	Oct. 15.	Sept. 15.	Oct. 15.
United States:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	\$7.99	\$7.46	\$15.39	\$15.26	\$15.83
Chestnut	8. 15	7.68	15.37	15. 21	15. 79
Bituminous	5, 48	5.39	11. 26	9. 99	10. 12
Atlanta, Ga.:					
Bituminous	5.87	4, 83	10.79	8.29	8. 2
Baltimore, Md.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	1 7. 70	1 7. 24	1 15.75	1 15. 92	1 16. 7
Chestnut	1 7. 93	17.49	1 15. 75	1 15. 75	1 16. 5
Bituminous			10.92	8, 20	8.4
Birmingham, Ala.:				0.00	
Bituminous	4.22	4.01	7.77	8.03	8.3
Boston, Mass.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—	0.05	= =0	15 00	15 50	40.0
Stove. Chestnut	8. 25	7.50	15,00	15.50	16.0
Bridgeport, Conn.:	8. 25	7.75	15.00	15.50	16.0
Pennsylvania anthracite—				1	
Stove			15.63	16, 25	16, 0
Chestnut			15. 63	16, 25	
Buffalo, N. Y.:			10.00	10.00	16.0
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	6, 75	6, 54	13, 24	13.11	13, 6
Chestnut	6, 99	6.80	13. 24	13.11	13, 6
Butte, Mont.:	0,00	0,00	20.21	10.11	20.0
Bituminous			11.53	11.32	11.3
Charleston, S. C.:			10000		70.9
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	1 8.38	1 7. 75		1 17.00	1 17.0
Chestnut	1 8. 50	18.00		1 17. 05	1 17.1
Bituminous	1 6. 75	1 6.75	12,00	12.00	12.0
Chicago, Ill.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—	0 00	12.00	95.75		
Stove	8.00	7.80	15.98	16.44	17.0
Chestnut	8, 25	8.05	15.65	16.44	17.0
Bituminous	4.97	4.65	10.94	8.73	8.7

¹ Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

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

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JANUARY 15 AND JULY 15, 1913, OCTOBER 15, 1922, AND SEPTEMBER 15 AND OCTOBER 15, 1923—Continued.

	191	3	1922	192	23
City, and kind of coal.	Jan. 15.	July 15.	Oct. 15.	Sept. 15.	Oet. 15.
Cincinnati, Obio:					
Bituminous	\$3.50	\$3.38	\$9.60	\$8,58	\$8.5
Cleveland, Ohio:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—	7 50	7 95	15.66	14.75	15. 4
Stove. Chestnut.	7. 50 7. 75	7. 25 7. 50	15. 66	14. 75	15. 4
Bituminous	4.14	4.14	10.57	9.56	9. 5
Columbus, Ohio:				***	
Bituminous			9.58	7.54	7.4
Dallas, Tex.:		,			
Arkansas anthracite—			17.50	16.92	17.5
EggBituminous	8. 25	7. 21	15, 41	13.79	13.
Denver, Colo.:	0.20		20121		
Colorado anthracite—					
Furnace, 1 and 2 mixed	8.88	9.00	17.00	16. 75	17.0
Stove, 3 and 5 mixed	8, 50	8. 50	17.00	16. 75	17. (
Bituminous	5. 25	4. 88	11.16	10.72	10.
Detroit, Mich.: Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove.	8.00	7.45	15. 56	16, 25	16.0
Chestnut	8. 25	1.00	15, 56	16.19	16.
Bituminous	5. 20	5. 20	12.19	10. 29	10.5
Stove. Chestnut Bituminous. Fall River, Mass.:					
Pennsylvania antinractie—	8. 25	7. 43	15. 58	15, 50	16.
Stove Chestnut.	8. 25	7. 61	15. 33	15.42	16.
Houston, Tex.:	0.20		20,00		
Bituminous			12.75	12, 50	13. (
Indianapolis, Ind.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—	0.05	0.00	15.55	10 00	17.
Stove	8.95 9.15	8.00	15, 75 15, 75	16.00 16.00	16.
Chestnut. Bituminous	3. 81	8. 25 3. 70	9.71	8. 13	8.
acksonville, Fla.:	0.01				
Bituminous Kansas City, Mo.:	7. 50	7.00	15. 00	13.00	13. (
Arkansas anthracite			45.00		10
Furnace			17. 00	16.14	16.
Stove, No. 4	4.39	3.93	17. 81 9. 91	17. 06 8. 40	17. :
BituminousLittle Rock, Ark.:	4.00	0. 50	0.01	0. 10	0.
Arkansas anthracite—					
Egg			15, 00	14.00	15.
Bituminous	6.00	5. 33	13, 29	10.54	11.
Los Angeles, Calif.:	19 50	12.50	16.50	15, 50	15.
Bituminous	13. 52	12. 30	10. 50	10.00	10.
Louisville, Ky.: Bituminous	4.20	4,00	10.34	8.62	8.
Menchester, N. H.:	13100				
Bituminous	100		20 20	30.30	
DUVE	10.00	8. 50	17.00	17.17	18.
Chestnut	10.00	8. 50	17.00	17.17	17.
Memphis, Tenn.: Bituminous	2 4. 34	2 4. 22	9. 50	7.43	7.
Milwankee Wis:	1.01	1	0.00	11.30	
Milwaukee, Wis.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			10000	A SUMMER	
Stove	8.00	7.85	16.11	16,00	16.
Chestnut	8.25	8. 10	16.08	16.00 10.29	16. 10.
Bituminous	6. 25	5. 71	12.35	10. 29	10.
Minneapolis, Minn.: Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	9, 25	9.05	17.50	17.50	18.
_ Chestnut	9, 50	9.30	17.47	17.38	18.
Bituminous	5. 89	5. 79	13, 82	11.96	11.
Mobile, Ala.:			10.47	9.79	11.
Bituminous			10.47	9. 79	11.
Newark, N. J.: Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	6.50	6, 25	12.75	12.75	13.
Stove	6.75	6. 50	12.75	12.75	13.
New Haven, Conn.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—	7.50	6, 25	15, 13	15.75	15.
Stove	7. 50 7. 50	6. 25		15.75	15.

Per 10-barrel lots (1,800 pounds).

71915°—23——6 [1299]

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JANUARY 15 AND JULY 15, 1913, OCTOBER 15, 1922, AND SEPTEMBER 15 AND OCTOBER 15, 1923—Continued.

	19	13	1922	195	23
City, and kind of coal.	Jan. 15.	July 15.	Oct. 15.	Sept. 15.	Oct. 15.
New Orleans, La.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—		***			
Stove	\$10.00	\$10.00	\$19.50	\$20.75	\$20.
Chestnut	10.50 26.06	10. 50 2 6. 06	19.50 10.33	20.75 9.72	20. 10.
Bituminous	- 0.00	- 0.00	10.00	9.14	10.
Pennsylvania anthracite					
Stove	7.07	6.66	13.83	14.50	14.
Chestnut	7.14	6. 80	13.83	14.50	14.
Vorfolk, Va.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove			16.00	15.00	16.
Chestnut		**********	16.00	15.00	16.
Bituminous			11.62	11.36	11.
omaha, Nebr.:					
Bituminous	6.63	6.13	12.60	10.85	10.
eoria, Ill.:			0.40	0 10	
			8.48	6.46	6.
hiladelphia, Pa.: Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	1 7, 16	1 6.89	1 14, 54	1 15, 43	1 16.
Chestnut	1 7.38	17.14	1 14, 54	1 15.00	1 16.
ittsburgh, Pa.				1-00	
Pennsylvania anthracite—				2 000 000	2.22
Stove	1 7. 94	1 7.38	1 17. 00	1 17. 00	1 18,
Bituminous	1 8.00 3 3.16	1 7. 44 8 3. 18	1 17. 00 8. 38	1 17. 00 7. 54	1 18. 7.
ortland, Me.:	0 3.10	0.18	0.00	7.04	4.
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove			15.84	15.84	16.
Chestnut			15.84	15.84	16.
ortland, Oreg.:	0 80	0.00	11.01	10.00	40
Bituminous	9.79	9.66	14.31	13.20	13.
rovidence, R. I.: Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	4 8, 25	4 7, 50	4.15, 50	4 15, 30	416.
Chestnut	4 8. 25	4 7.75	4 15. 50	4 15, 30	416.
ichmond, Va.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—	0.00	W 05	1 . 10	10 50	40
Stove. Chestnut	8.00	7.25	15.42	16.50	16.
Rituminous	8. 00 5. 50	7. 25 4. 94	15. 42 12. 60	16.50 11.91	16. 11.
Bituminousochester, N. Y.:	0.00	1.01	12.00	11,01	11.
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove. Chestnut.			13.45	13.45	14.
Chestnut			13.45	13, 45	14.
t. Louis, Mo.: Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	8.44	7.74	16.19	16.38	17.
Chestnut	8, 68	7. 99	16. 25	16.56	17.
Bituminous	3.36	3.04	8, 66	7.08	7.
. Paul, Minn.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—	0.00	0.00		48 80	4.0
Stove	9. 20	9.05	17.75	17.50	18.
Chestnut	9. 45 6. 07	9, 30 6, 04	17. 73 13. 94	17.35 12.39	18. 12.
It Lake City, Utah.:	0.01	0.01	10. 51	12.00	12,
Bituminous					
Furnace, 1 and 2 mixed	11.00	11.50	20.00	17.50	17.
Stove, 3 and 5 mixed	11.00	11.50	20.00	17. 50	17.
Bituminous	5.64	5. 46	9. 50	8.30	8,
New Mexico anthracite—					
Cerillos egg	17.00	17.00	26.75	26.50	26.
Cerillos egg Colorado anthracite—	11.00	11,00	20.70	20.00	20.
Egg.	17.00	17.00	24. 25	24.50	24.
Bituminous	12.00	12.00	17.90	16.80	16.

Per ton of 2,240 pounds.
 Per 10-barrel lots (1,800 pounds).
 Per 25-bushel lots (1,900 pounds).
 Fifty cents per ton additional is charged for "binning." Most customers require binning or basketing the coal into the cellar.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JANUARY 15 AND JULY 15, 1913, OCTOBER 15, 1922, AND SEPTEMBER 15 AND OCTOBER 15, 1923—Concluded.

	19	13	1922	192	23
City, and and kind of coal.	Jan. 15.	July 15.	Oct. 15.	Sept. 15.	Oct. 15.
Savannah, Ga.:					
Pennsylvania anthracite—			5 \$18, 10	5 \$17,05	5 \$17.05
Stove			5 17, 10	5 17. 05	5 17. 05
Chestnut			5 12.18	5 11.72	5 11.90
Bituminous			12, 10	0 11. 12	0 11. 90
Scranton, Pa.: Pennsylvania anthracite—					
	\$4,25	\$4,31	9,78	9.82	10, 53
Stove	4. 50	4, 56	10. 27	9.82	10. 53
Seattle, Wash.:	4.00	2,00	10.21	0,02	100 00
Bituminous	6 7, 63	67.70	6 10. 21	6 10, 10	6 10, 21
Springfield, Ill.:	1.00	10	10,21	20.20	10.2
Bituminous			5, 73	4, 50	4, 58
Washington, D. C.:					-
Pennsylvania anthracite—					
Stove	17.50	17.38	1 15.63	1 15.33	1 16, 20
Chestnut	17.65	17.53	1 15.63	1 15, 21	1 15.98
Bituminous			1 11. 24	1 9.77	1 9.10

Per ton of 2,240 pounds.
 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.
 Prices in Zone A. The cartage charges in Zone A were as follows: January and July, 1913, \$0.50; October, 1922, \$1.25 to \$1.75; September and October, 1923, \$1.25.

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices in October, 1923.

SLIGHT downward tendency in the general trend of wholesale prices is shown for October by information gathered by the United States Department of Labor through the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The bureau's index number, which includes 404 commodities or price series weighted according to their commercial importance, declined to 153 compared with 154 for September.

The lowering of the general price level was due mainly to further declines in fuels and metals. Among fuel and lighting materials there were appreciable decreases in prices of bituminous coal, coke, crude oil, and gasoline. Anthracite coal averaged higher than in September. Decreases in pig iron, steel billets, copper, and lead brought the level for metals well below that of the month before. In the cloths and clothing group the strong reaction in raw silk from the high prices of the preceding month, together with the lower prices of worsted yarns, forced the price level downward despite rising costs of cotton goods. A small decrease took place also in the group of miscellaneous commodities, due to declines in sole leather and rubber.

Among farm products decreases in cattle, hogs, sheep, poultry, onions, and potatoes were offset by advances in grain, cotton, eggs, flaxseed, hides, and alfalfa and clover hay, the price level remaining unchanged. No change was reported for building materials and house-furnishing goods, also, while small increases took place among foods and chemicals and drugs.

Of the 404 commodities or series of quotations for which comparable data for September and October were collected, increases were shown in 136 instances and decreases in 104 instances. In 164

instances no change in price was reported.

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES.

- 1	10	13=	_ 1	nn	1
- 1	13	10-	- 1	UU	

	0.1.1	1923			
Group.	October, 1922.	Septem- ber.	October.		
Farm products	138	144	144		
FoodsCloths and clothing	140 188	147 202	148 199		
Fuel and lighting	226	176	172		
Metals and metal products	135	144	142		
Building materials	183	182	182		
Chemicals and drugs	124	128	129		
House-furnishing goods	176 120	183 121	183 120		
Miscellaneous	154	154	153		

Comparing prices in October with those of a year ago, as measured by changes in the index numbers, it is seen that the general price level has declined less than 1 per cent. Fuel and lighting materials averaged 24 per cent lower than in October, 1922, while building materials were slightly lower. The group of miscellaneous commodities showed no change in the price level. In all other groups prices were appreciably higher than in October of last year.

Wholesale Prices in the United States and Foreign Countries, 1913 to September, 1923.

N THE following table the more important index numbers of wholesale prices in the United States and several foreign countries, as compiled by recognized authorities, have been reduced to a common base, in order that the trend of prices in the several countries may be directly compared. The results here shown have been obtained by merely shifting the base for each series of index numbers to the year 1913; i. e., by dividing the index for each year or month on the original base by the index for 1913 on that base. These results are therefore to be regarded only as approximations of the correct index numbers in the case of series constructed by averaging the relative prices of individual commodities.1 This applies to the index numbers of the Statistique Générale of France, the series for Italy constructed by Prof. Riccardo Bachi, and the series here shown for Japan. The index numbers of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, those of the Bureau of Statistics of Canada, and those of the Census and Statistics Office of New Zealand are built on aggregates of actual money prices, or relatives made from such aggregates of actual prices, and therefore can readily be shifted to any desired base. The series here shown for Sweden, Germany, Canada, the United Kingdom, and Australia are reproduced as published, the last three series being rounded off to three figures. It should be understood also that the validity of the comparisons here made is affected by the wide difference in the number of commodities included in the different series of index numbers.

¹ For a discussion of index numbers constructed according to this method, see Bulletin No. 181 of the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, pp. 245-252.

WHOLESALE PRICES IN THE UNITED STATES AND CERTAIN FOREIGN COUNTRIES. [Index numbers expressed as percentages of the index number for 1913. See text explanation.]

Year and month.	United States: Bureau of Labor Statis- tics (re- vised); ¹ 404 com- modi- ties (vari- able).	Canada: Dominion Bureau of Statistics; 238 commodities.	King- dom: Board of Trade (revised);	France: Statis- tique Géné- rale: 45 com- modi- ties.	Ger- many: Statis- tisches Reichs- amt; 38 com- modi- ties.	Italy: Riccardo Bachi; 100 com- modi- ties. ²	Japan: Bank of Japan, Tokyo; 56 com- modi- ties.	Sweden: Göte- borgs Handels- tidning; 47 com- modi- ties.	Australia: Bureau of Census and Statistics; 92 commodities.	New Zea- land: Census and Sta- tistics Office; 140 com- modi- ties.
1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1920 1921 1922	98 101 127 177 194 206 226 147	208 241 170 150	307 197 159	100 102 140 188 262 339 356 510 345 327	1486 1911 34180	100 95 133 201 299 409 364 624 578 562	100 96 97 117 147 192 236 259 200 196	\$ 100 116 145 185 244 339 331 347 211 162	4 100 141 132 146 170 180 218 167 154	100 102 121 131 148 172 175 208 197
1920 January February March April May June July August September October November December.	233 232 234 245 247 243 241 231 226 211 196 179	233 238 241 251 257 255 256 250 245 236 224 212	297 310 319 325 326 322 317 313 311 302 287 264	487 522 554 588 550 493 496 501 256 502 461 435	1256 1685 1709 1567 1508 1382 1367 1450 1498 1466 1509 1440	508 557 602 664 660 632 604 625 655 659 670 655	301 314 322 300 272 248 239 235 231 226 221 206	319 342 354 361 366 364 365 362 346 331 299	203 206 209 217 225 233 234 236 230 215 208 197	190 194 2002 205 206 205 215 215 216 218 214 214
1921 January February March April May June July August September October. November December.	170 160 155 148 145 142 141 142 141 142 141 142 141	202 191 186 181 171 164 163 166 162 156 154	246 225 211 205 202 198 194 190 187 181 173 168	407 377 360 347 329 325 330 331 344 331 332 326	1439 1376 1338 1326 1308 1366 1428 1917 2067 2460 3416 3487	642 613 604 584 547 509 520 542 580 599 595	201 195 191 190 191 192 196 199 207 219 214 209	267 250 237 229 218 218 211 198 182 175 174 172	196 192 181 171 166 162 159 160 160 156 151	212 206 204 201 198 196 196 193 193 191 187
1922 January. February March. April. May. June. July. August. September October. November December.	138 141 142 143 148 150 155 155 153 154 156 156	150 152 151 151 152 151 152 150 145 146 150 151	164 162 160 160 161 160 156 154 155 158	314 306 307 314 317 325 325 331 329 337 352 362	3665 4102 5433 6355 6458 7030 10059 19202 28698 56601 115101 147430	577 562 533 527 524 537 558 571 582 601 596 580	206 204 201 197 194 197 201 195 193 190 188 183	170 166 164 165 164 165 163 158 155 154 155	147 147 146 148 155 156 157 155 158 159 162 161	182 178 176 176 174 172 174 174 171 171 171 173
1923 January February . March. April May June July August September	156 157 159 159 156 153 151 150 154	151 153 155 156 155 155 154 153 153	157 158 160 161 160 159 157 155 158	387 422 424 415 406 409 407 413 424	278480 558500 488800 521200 817000 1930500 7478700 94404100 39000000	575 582 586 588 580 568 566 567 569	184 192 196 196 199 198 192	156 158 162 159 158 160 157 163 155	163 161 163 167 170 178 180 175 172	168 170 171 171 173 174 173 172

For particulars concerning revised index numbers, see Monthly Labor Review for July, 1922, pp. 59 and 60.
 38 commodities prior to 1920: 76 commodities in 1921.
 3 July, 1913, to June, 1914.
 4 July, 1914.

[1303]

House Rents in Christiania, Norway, 1900 to 1922.

Social Endeddeleser No. 7, 1923, issued by the Norwegian Department for Social Affairs (Department for Sociale Saker), contains a brief account of house rents in Christiania, 1900–1922. During the last year (information was received for 88 per cent of the apartments in 1922) house rents increased for all apartments except in the two largest apartment types. Increases were irregular, the two and three room apartments increasing 0.5 per cent and the three to five room apartments increasing on an average of 4 per cent.

The table following gives rents in Christiania for apartments with from 2 to 11 rooms for the period 1900–1922. It also shows the percentage of increase since 1910, the period before the large increase

in house rents, and since 1914.

Compared with 1910 the increases range from 67 to 87 per cent, being smallest for the 2-room apartments and highest for the 8 and 9 room apartments. The percentage of increase since 1914 has been considerably less, being less for the 2 and 3 room apartments than for the others. A weighted average for all size types shows an increase in house rents of 37 per cent since February 1, 1914.

AVERAGE YEARLY RENT IN CHRISTIANIA, NORWAY, 1900-1922, AND PER CENT OF INCREASE FROM DECEMBER 1, 1910, TO DECEMBER 1, 1922, AND FROM FEBRUARY 1, 1914, TO DECEMBER 1, 1922.

[Krone at par=26.8.]

	Average yearly rental of apartments with—											
Date.	2 rooms.	3 rooms.	4 rooms.	5 rooms.	6 rooms.	7 rooms.	8 rooms.	9 rooms.	10 rooms.	11 rooms.		
Dec. 3, 1900. Dec. 31, 1905. Dec. 1, 1910. Peb. 1, 1914. Feb. 1, 1920. Dec. 1, 1921. Dec. 1, 1922.	Kroner, 165 132 154 198 232 256 257	Kroner, 260 204 242 313 372 413 416	Kroner. 388 301 358 457 548 604 633	Kroner. 545 428 513 657 811 902 935	Kroner. 763 595 727 908 1, 169 1, 294 1, 335	Kroner. 1,006 799 947 1,180 1,525 1,685 1,708	Kroner. 1, 298 1, 068 1, 193 1, 477 1, 936 2, 166 2, 221	Kroner. 1, 619 1, 328 1, 406 1, 791 2, 309 2, 609 2, 636	Kroner. 1,839 1,718 1,690 2,026 2,873 3,082 3,000	Kroner. 1, 951 1, 827 1, 740 2, 135 2, 670 3, 303 3, 026		
			,	F	er cent	ofincreas	e.					
Dec. 1, 1910, to Dec. 1, 1922 Feb. 1, 1914, to Dec.	67	72	77	82	84	80	86	87	78	74		
1, 1922	30	33	39	42	47	45	50	47	48	42		

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR.

The 48-hour Week in Industry.

By J. C. Bowen, of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics.

FROM the time when the manual worker toiled from daylight until dark down to the present he has been hoping for, demanding, and slowly getting a reduction of hours of labor. It took many years, centuries in fact, to advance from a 12 and 14 hour day to a 10-hour day. Years more elapsed before he got even a touch on the 9-hour day, then, as the 9-hour day became in part a realization, a start was made for an 8-hour day.

This reduction of hours of labor has come mainly to the building mechanic, the factory employee, the miner, and the railroad man. Practically no statistical data are available to show the extent to

which the agricultural wage earner has been affected.

Prior to the World War the 8-hour day was enjoyed by comparatively few workers, and these were mainly in the building and printing trades and in Federal and State Government employ. The 8-hour movement, however, has grown so rapidly since 1914 that there is now scarcely an industry or trade that does not contain a greater or less number of 8-hour workers. Several State legislatures have established by law the 8-hour workday in public employment, and many cities have adopted the 8-hour day for their employees.

The principle of the 8-hour day was accepted by the War Labor Board and has since been recognized by nearly every labor board or

commission.

The practice of working fewer hours on Saturday than on other days of the week, thus reducing the hours of many employees to 44

or even less per week, is also making progress.

Quite an amount of statistical information is available concerning hours of labor, but it is scattered through various reports. The most important of the material available is assembled in this article so as to give as far as possible a comparatively recent survey of working hours in the different industrial fields of the United States. The greatest sources of information are the United States Census Office reports and reports of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, though considerable information is also found in State reports. As nearly all of the material herein used comes from published reports few figures are available for 1923. Prewar and postwar conditions are brought into comparison in some of the tables.

Most of the information here presented is in the form of hours per week rather than in the form of hours per day, but the hours per day may very generally be inferred from the hours per week. A 60-hour week generally means a 10-hour day; a 54-hour week a 9-hour day; and a 48-hour week an 8-hour day. There are exceptions, however; for example, there may be a 9-hour day from Monday to Friday with 5 hours on Saturday, making a 50-hour week, and quite often there may be a day of 8\frac{2}{3} hours with 4\frac{2}{3} hours on Saturday, making a 48-hour week. This latter combination of hours is frequently looked upon as an 8-hour day. In a few instances the 8-hour day is followed by a full Saturday holiday, making a week of only 40 hours.

[1305]

Of the 6,615,046 wage earners covered by the Census of Manufactures in 1909, only 523,652 or 7.9 per cent, worked 48 hours or less per week, while by 1919 the working time had been so far reduced that 4,418,693, or 48.6 per cent, of the 9,096,372 wage earners covered in that year were on that basis. The number of wage earners whose working time was less than 48 hours per week is not available for 1909 or 1914, but, in 1919, 1,111,107 employees, or 12.2 per cent, had a working week of 44 hours or under, and 346,179, or 3.8 per cent, were reported between 44 and 48 hours.

Combining the figures shown in the table following it is seen that only 30.6 per cent of the wage earners had a week of 54 hours or less in 1909, while in 1914 the percentage was 51.1, or more than one-half of the whole number covered, and in 1919 the percentage had increased to 74.1 or nearly three-fourths of all wage earners in manufacturing industries. Space does not permit the presentation of figures for each industry, but percentages are shown for industries

having 100,000 or more wage earners in 1919.

Figures are not available for all the industries for 1909, owing to the differing classifications of industries, but a comparison as between 1914 and 1919 is shown for each industry. Some combination of Census Office industry classifications has been necessary in order to make them comparable from year to year. Employees were classified by the Census Office according to the prevailing hours of the establishment in which they worked, no attempt being made to classify each individual employee, because in most establishments practically all the employees worked the same number of hours, so that the figure for any given group would represent to a large extent the classification of individuals.

To some extent the 8-hour basic day does not necessarily mean an actual working-day of 8 hours; occasionally longer hours are worked, with an increased rate for all time in excess of 8 hours.

PER CENT OF WAGE EARNERS IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1909, 1914, AND 1919, IN ESTABLISHMENTS WORKING EACH CLASSIFIED NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK: ALL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES AND SELECTED INDUSTRIES EMPLOYING IN 1919 OVER 100,000 WAGE EARNERS.

[Source: Reports of the Census of Manufactures for 1909, 1914, and 1919.]

			Per cent of employees whose prevailing hours of labor per week were—								
Industry.	Year.	Total average		Over	er	Over			48 and under, in detail.		
maustry.	rear.	wage earners.	48 and un- der.	48 and under 54.	54	54 and under 60.	60	Over 60.	and un- der.	Over 44 and under 48.	48
All manufacturing industries combined.	1909 1914 1919	6,615,046 7,036,247 9,096,372	7. 9 11. 9 48. 6	7.3 13.4 16.4	15. 4 25. 8 9. 1	30.2 21.9 13.7	30.5 21.1 9.1	8.7 5.8 3.0	(1) (1) 12.2	(1) (1) 3.8	(1) (1) 32.6
Industries employing over 100,000 wage earners in 1919.											-
Automobiles (including bodies and parts).	1909 1914 1919	75, 721 127, 092 343, 115	.4 11.3 44.0	3.0 22.0 36.7	30.0 14.0 5.3	35.2 42.8 13.0	29.4 9.9 .8	1.9 (2) (2)	(1) (1) 2.5	(1) (1) 1 7	(1) (1) 39, 9
Boots and shoes 3	1909 1914 1919	198,297 206,088 229,705	2.7 62.8	3.3 12.2 22.4	24. 0 40. 9 9. 8	57.3 41.2 4.6	14.9 3.0 .5	.1	(1) (1) (1) 8.5	$\begin{pmatrix} (1) \\ (1) \\ (1) \\ 12.2 \end{pmatrix}$	$\binom{1}{2}$ $\binom{1}{42.1}$

Not reported in detail.
 Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

[1306]

 $^{^{\}rm 3}$ Includes boots and shoes, cut stock, and findings, 18,656 in 1919.

PER CENT OF WAGE EARNERS IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1909, 1914, AND 1919, IN ESTABLISHMENTS WORKING EACH CLASSIFIED NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK: ALL MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES AND SELECTED INDUSTRIES EMPLOYING IN 1919 OVER 100,000 WAGE EARNERS—Concluded.

			Per	ent of	emplo	per w	whose peek we	orevail ere—	ing ho	urs of	labo
Industry.	Year.	Total average wage	48	Over		Over			48 an	d unde detail.	er, in
	earners. and 48 and 54 and under		and under 60.	60	Over 60.	and un- der.	Over 44 and under 48.	48			
Industries employing over 100,000 wage earners in 1919—Concluded.											
Bread and other baking products.	1909 1914	100, 216 124, 052	6.4	3.1 5.6	18.6	11.2	49.8	10.9	(1) (1)	(1) (1) 14.7	(1) (1)
Cars and general shop con- struction and repairs by steam railroads. Clothing, men's 4	1919 1909 1914 1919 1914	141,592 282,174 339,518 484,437 173,747 175,270 153,743 168,907	60. 0 7. 5 21. 9 73. 3 20. 2	8.6 7.9 14.9 2.2 50.6	17. 9 35. 6 29. 7 1. 5 21. 7	3.7 20.1 13.7 22.4 6.0	7.8 15.6 4.9 .4 1.5	1.8 13.3 14.9 .3	2.9 (1) (1) .6 (1) 75.6	(1) (1) 9.4 (1)	42. (1) (1) 63. (1)
Clothing, women's	1919 1909 1914	153,743 168,907	90. 4 4. 8 7. 0	5. 9 43. 9 72. 9	2.4 24.1 17.0	1.1 21.6 2.8	5.0	.1 .6 (2) (2)	(1)	4.0 (1) (1) 5.6	(1) (1)
Cotton goods and small wares.	1919 1909 1914	378, 880 385, 964	89.5	9.2	1.0 .2 39.8	50.4 18.2	31.5 40.7	17.1	72.7 (1) (1)	(1)	(1) (1)
Electrical machinery, apparatus and supplies.	1919 1909 1914	440, 362 87, 256 118, 078	39.3 1.3 3.5	3.8 15.9 25.9	14. 2 23. 8 32. 9	31.9 52.2 35.3	10.7 6.7 2.5	(2) (2)	(1) (1)	(1) (1)	38. (1) (1)
Foundry and machine-shop products.5	1919 191 4 1919	118, 078 212, 374 398, 316 661, 163	59.0 4.5 37.5	25.1 11.9 25.9	5.1 30.8 13.1	9.3 36.8 19.0	1.4 13.2 4.2	.1 .4 .3	9.2 (1) 8.0	3.6 (1) 2.5	46. (1) 26.
Furniture (including refrigerators).	1909 1914	661, 163 128, 452 133, 498 144, 117	4.4 8.1	4.1 9.6	12.7 22.5	22.5 28.0	56.1 31.6	.2	(1) (1)	(1)	(1) (1)
ron and steel: Blast furnaces 6	1919	38, 429	18.2	29.3	15.6	28.3	3.0	96.5	6.3	(1)	(1)
	1914 1919	29, 356 41, 660	(2) 7.0	.3	5.3	(2) 6.3	15. 2 19. 6	79. 1 67. 0	(1)	(1)	3,
Steel works and rolling mills.	1909 1914 1919	240, 076 248, 716 375, 088 129, 275	7.6 8.0 31.8	1.7 7.7 3.3	10.0	12.1 18.5 19.2	34. 2 31. 3 21. 9	34. 4 24. 2 20. 2	(1) (1) 15. 0	(¹) (¹) 2.3	(1) (1) 14.
Knit goods and hosiery	1909 1914 1919	150, 520	2.4	2. 6 5. 2	3.7 3.7 58.2	50.6	38.6 11.0 2.7	3.8	(1) (1)	(1) (1) (2.7	(1) (1)
Lumber and timber prod- ucts.4	1919 1914 1919	172, 572 479, 786 480, 945	38. 9 2. 7 23. 9	26.7 2.3 3.8	17. 6 4. 5 5. 6	13. 9 5. 1 7. 5	74. 1 56. 7	11.3 2.4	4.5 (1) 2.3	(1)	31. (1) 21.
Paper and wood pulp	1909 1914 1919	75, 978 88, 457 113, 759	7.4	8.0 6.3 6.2	4.5 14.4 10.0	8.7	30. 2 21. 5 7. 0	41. 2 34. 1 11. 8	(1) (1) 3.5	(1) (1) 1.1	(1) (1) 57.
Printing and publishing (newspaper, periodical, book and job). Rubber tires, tubes, etc	1909 1914	258, 434 227, 496	61.7 53.7 70.4	16.1	18.3 12.8	3.3 7.4 2.8	4.2	.3		1.1	
book and job). Rubber tires, tubes, etc	1919 1909 1914	243, 386 26, 521 50, 220	86.4 .6 6.4	6.8 4.5 19.2	4. 0 20. 4 16. 0	1.9 54.6 50.6	19.8 7.1	(2) .8	8.7	3.1	74.
Shipbuilding, steel and	1919 1909 1914	119, 848 40, 506	65. 4 9. 5	15.3	1.0 24.4	16.1 24.8	2.1 34.7	(2) 1.1	2.8	21.0	41.
wood, including boat building. Silk goods	1919	44, 489 387, 446 99, 037	33.1	17. 2 . 5 2. 3	27.7 .6 2.3	3.4 .1 82.2	17.5	(2)	67.1	1.2	30.
Mr. 20005	1909 1914 1919	108, 170 126, 782	1.1 47.9	2. 3 4. 5 37. 3	52. 4 11. 2	40.0	13.0 2.0 .6	(2) .4	24. 9	2.3	20.
Slaughtering and meat packing.	1909 1914	89, 728 98, 832	5.5	4.6	11.7 13.3	4.8	72. 2 68. 8	1.3			
Tobacco, cigars, and cigarettes.	1919 1909 1914	160, 996 166, 810 152, 892	84. 2 29. 0 29. 4	3. 6 10. 4 12. 7	3. 1 8. 5 30. 6	2. 5 38. 6 20. 2	6. 4 13. 1 5. 5	1.6	3.0	1.2	80
Woolen and worsted 4	1919 1914 1919	138, 773 158, 692 166, 787	38. 7 . 7 74. 9	30. 2 1. 4 7. 1	22. 2 55. 6 10. 8	6. 8 35. 9 6. 0	1.8 6.4 1.1	(2) (2)	14.3	5. 9	18

Not reported in detail.
*Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

*Comparable figures not available for 1909.

*Comparable figures not available for 1909; including engines; power pumps; iron and steel tempering and welding; machine tools; steel barrels, drums, etc.; and textile machinery.

*Has less than 100,000 employees, butincluded for comparison with the next item.

For several years the Bureau of Labor Statistics has conducted periodic investigations into the hours of labor, wage rates, and earnings of employees in the principal manufacturing industries of the United States. These data were obtained from representative establishments in each industry, and the number of employees reported was the actual number appearing on the pay rolls of the establishments covered at the time of the investigation. The results of these investigations have been published from time to time in the various bulletins of the bureau. In the following tables, taken from past and forthcoming bulletins, the individual employee has been classified according to his regular full-time hours per week rather than the full-time hours of the plant as a whole. In comparing these tables with the same industries in the reports of the Census of Manufactures it must be remembered that the bureau's tables classify individuals while the census figures classify employees according to the prevail-

ing hours of the plants in which they work.

The 8-hour day has increased rapidly since 1914 in all industries shown in the table following. The percentage of employees working 48 hours or under per week increased from less than 1 per cent in 1914 to 33.7 in 1922 in cotton goods manufacturing; to 39.2 in the hosiery and underwear industry; and to 68.4 in the boot and shoe industry. No employees worked on a 48-hour-per-week basis in 1915 in the lumber industry, but in 1921, 21.5 per cent were on or under that basis. The number of employees on an 8-hour-day basis in the woolen and worsted goods manufacturing industry in 1914 is not available, but in 1922, 88.4 per cent worked 48 hours or less per week. In the men's clothing industry 12.1 per cent of the workers had a 48-hour week in 1914, while an additional 1 per cent worked under 48 hours; in 1922 the hours of labor had decreased to such an extent that all employees were on an 8-hour-day basis and 94.9 per cent had a 44-hour week. While the iron and steel industry does not show any considerable increase in 8-hour-day work in 1922 as compared with 1914, the employment records received currently by the Bureau of Labor Statistics state that since August of 1923 the industry is being placed to a large extent on an 8-hour basis. The percentage of employees who have actually been changed to an 8-hour day, however, is not available. Figures for the automobile industry are presented for 1922 only, and for foundries and machine shops for 1923 only. No satisfactory comparison with earlier years is available for either of these industries.

The hours of labor of males and females do not vary to any great extent. In cotton goods and woolen and worsted goods manufacturing the number of females employed is so large that a separate

classification is presented for each sex.

PER CENT OF EMPLOYEES WORKING SPECIFIED NUMBER OF FULL-TIME HOURS PER WEEK.

[Source: Bulletins of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.]

		Num-	Per	cent o	femple	yees v week	whose f	ull-tim	ie houi	s per
Industry.	Year.	ber of employ- ees cov- ered.		48	Over 48 and under 54.	54	Over 54 and under 57.	Over 57 and under 60.	60	Over 60.
Cotton manufacturing: All employees	1914 1920 1922	79, 258 59, 565 62, 833	0. 5 3. 9 2. 1	(1) 44. 0 31. 6	0. 8 2. 8	33. 2 8. 0 14. 3	23. 3 35. 1 43. 7	5. 7 . 1 . 1	36. 0 7. 8 4. 5	1.3
Males	1914 1920 1922	45,726 31,384 34,791	3. 4 2. 0	(1) 36. 5 26. 5	 8 2.5	28. 9 7. 0 11. 3	22. 4 43. 0 50. 4	5. 0 . 2 . 1	41. 2 8. 7 5. 7	2. 1 . 4 1. 5
Females	1914 1920 1922	33,532 28,181 28,042	.5 4.5 2.2	52. 4 38. 0	9	39. 0 9. 1 18. 1	24. 5 26. 4 35. 3	6.7	29. 0 6. 7 3. 0	(1)
Woolen and worsted manufacturing: All employees	1914 1920 1922	40,061 38,164 39,430	2.0 1.6	91. 2 86. 8	² 1. 4 1. 4 1. 3	62. 2 4. 1 7. 6	22. 4 . 2 . 4	7.0 .6 .9	5.7 3.6 .7	1.3
Males	1914 1920 1922	23,145 19,852 21,980	1. 5 1. 4	91. 7 86. 2	2 1. 0 1. 7 1. 5	60. 0 3. 2 6. 3	18.3 .3 .6	8. 5 . 5 1. 2	9.9 3 1.1 1.3	2.3
Females	1914 1920 1922	16,824 18,312 17,450	2. 5 1. 9	90. 7 87. 5	2 2. 0 1. 1 1. 0	64. 8 5. 1 9. 1	28. 2	5. 0 . 6 . 4		
Hosiery and underwear: All employees	1914 1922	31, 989 32, 178	(1) 1.7	37.5	6. 6 30. 4	56. 5 11. 1	21. 5 18. 1	10. 2	4.2	(1) (1)
Men's clothing: All employees	1914 1922	24, 597 25, 013	.5	12.1	69.9	17.1	.4			
Boots and shoes: All employees.	1914 1920 1922	53,071 51,235 47,374	(1) 13. 4 9. 4	(1) 57. 9 59. 0	17.3 18.8 21.8	34. 1 8. 1 8. 6	33. 1 1. 4 1. 0	13.0 .4 (1)	³ 2. 2	
Lumber: All employees.	1915 1921	58, 845 45, 667		721.5	(1) (1)	1.3	61.8		70. 9 66. 4	27. 2 6. 9
Foundries: All employees. Machine shops: All employees.	1923 1923	32, 166 58, 914	2.7	26, 1 27, 3	26. 7 36. 8	23. 5	610.3 617.3		7.1	3. 5
Automobiles: All employees.	1922	56, 309	5.4	25.8	50. 2		813.3			

¹ Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.
2 Reported as "under 54."
3 Reported as "60 and over."
494.9 per cent worked 44 hours.
5 Reported as "60 and over." Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.
6 Reported as "60 ver 54 and under 60."
7 Reported as "48 and under."
8 Reported as "55 and over."

PER CENT OF EMPLOYEES WORKING SPECIFIED NUMBER OF FULL-TIME HOURS PER WEEK—Concluded.

		Num-	Per	Per cent of employees whose full-time hours week were—							
Industry.	Year.	ber of em- ployees covered.	48 and un- der.	Over 48 and under 60.	60	Over 60 and under 72.	72	Over 72 and under 84.	84	Over 84.	
Iron and steel: Blast furnaces.	1914 1920 1922	9, 253 12, 083 10, 556	(9) 1 1	5 18 7	13 7 13	12 11 10	22 16 39	7 17 13	41 29 17	(9) (9) (9)	
Bessemer converters	1914 1920 1922	2,267 2,888 2,294	12 14 11	9 7 6	4 2 6	11 14 10	40 25 53	13 17 5	12 21 9		
Open-hearth furnaces	1914 1920 1922	5,415 8,007 7,954	(9) 1 3	7 32 15	6 2 4	9 9 15	23 14 28	32 38 20	24 6 16	(9) (9) (9)	
Puddling mills	1914 1920 1922	4,606 3,262 2,758	27 24 41	55 41 33	6 12 10	9 15 15	1 7 (9)	(9) 1	(9) 1 1	(9) (9)	
Blooming mills	1914 1920 1922	2,476 3,571 4,132	3 12 4	8 12 21	5 2 7	8 12 12	59 35 27	9 18 18	9 8 12	(9) (9) (9)	
Plate mills	1914 1920 1922	2,301 3,227 3,545	(9) (9)	3 5 22	4 4 16	44 41 22	39 42 28	6 4 4	$\begin{array}{c} 4\\3\\7\end{array}$	(9)	
Standard rail mills	1914 1920 1922	1,725 1,344 1,270	5 33 32	(9) 4 12	3 2 3	13 20 19	74 37 26	1 2 2	4 2 6		
Bar mills	1914 1920 1922	8,802 6,685 6,399	4 9 6	31 28 39	12 8 4	44 40 35	7 12 14	2 3 1	(⁹) ₁		
Sheet mills	1914 1920 1922	6,304 8,527 9,242	62 64 60	2 6 8	8 8 10	10 9 10	13 9 7	2 2 2	2 1 3	(9)	
Tin-plate mills	1914 1920 1922	6,033 10,366 8,992	59 58 61	17 18 18	9 6 5	12 10 9	2 7 5	(9) 1 1	(9) (9)	(9) (9)	

⁹ Less than 1 per cent.

While the 8-hour day has made rapid gains generally in the United States, it is found to a far greater extent among organized workers. With but few exceptions, the members of the organized trades have been successful in establishing the 8-hour day and to a large extent

the 44-hour week with a Saturday half holiday.

The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics recently made a survey of the union scale of wages and hours of labor of over 860,000 members of the organized trades and occupations in 66 of the principal cities of the United States as of May, 1923. Of the total number of members covered, 89 per cent had written or oral agreements providing for an 8-hour day, and 68 per cent worked 44 hours or less per week. The remaining 11 per cent varied between a week of "over 48 and under 54 hours" and one of "over 60 hours," and was largely made up from the chauffeurs and teamsters and drivers' unions. The building trades and granite and stone trades were almost entirely on a 44-hour-week basis, and 89 per cent of the members in the book and job printing trades also had a 44-hour week. The newspaper printing trades worked slightly more hours per week, although less than 1 per cent worked more than 48 hours.

Sometimes more than 8 hours a day are worked from Monday to Friday in exchange for a Saturday half holiday, but when the hours

total 48 per week such pooling of hours is generally considered an

8-hour day.

In the following table the full-time hours per week of individuals have been classified, except in rare instances where employees may work less than the scale hours:

PER CENT OF LABOR-UNION MEMBERS WORKING EACH SPECIFIED NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK, MAY, 1923.

[From forthcoming bulletin of Bureau of Labor Statistics, covering 66 representative eities of the United States and more than 860,000 union members.]

Bakery trades. 3 7 84 1 3 (¹)		Pe	er cent	of mer	nbers	whose :	hours	per wee	ek wer	e
Bakers	• Trade or occupation.	and un-	and under	48	48 and under		and under			Ir- regu- lar.
Asbestos workers	Bakery trades.									
Asbestos workers Bricklayers. Sewer, tunnel, and caisson 100 Building laborers 96 4 (') Sewer, tunnel, and caisson 100 Building laborers 91 (') 2 6 (') Carpenters. 96 4 (') Sewer, tunnel, and caisson 100 Building laborers 97 (') 2 (6 (') Wharfand bridge 100 Cement finishers 89 7 1 2 (') Composition roofers 97 2 (') Composition roofers' helpers 100 Composition roofers' helpers 100 Composition roofers' helpers 100 Elevator constructors' helpers 100 Elevator constructors' helpers 98 2 2 Elevator constructors' helpers 99 1 (') (') (') (') (') Bringiers, portable and hoisting 99 1 (') (') (') (') (') (') Glaziers 99 1 (') (') (') (') (') (') (') (') (') (')	Bakers	3	7	84	1	3	(1)			(1)
Bricklayers	Building trades.									
Marble setters. 100 (1)	Bricklayers. Sewer, tunnel, and caisson Building laborers. Carpenters. Millwrights. Parquetry-floor layers. Wharf and bridge. Cement finishers. Cement finishers' helpers. Composition roofers. Composition roofers. Elevator constructors. Elevator constructors' helpers Engineers, portable and hoisting. Glaziers. Hod carriers. Inside wiremen. Fixture hangers	96 100 91 96 98 100 100 89 100 97 100 98 99 99 99 99 95 89 92	7 2 4 2 6	(1) (1) (1) (2) 1 1 (1) (1) (1)	2			2		
Fresco	Marble setters. Marble setters' helpers. Mosaic and terrazzo workers	100 100 100								
Tile layers. 100	Building. Fresco. Sign. Plasterers. Plasterers'laborers. Plumbers and gas fitters. Plumbers'laborers. Sheet-metal workers. Ship carpenters. Slate and tile roofers. Steam fitters. Steam fitters' helpers Stonemasons Structural-iron workers. Finishers.	100 100 96 97 100 89 97 87 98 100 100 91 99	3	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) 3 13						
Chauffeurs and teamsters and drivers. Chauffeurs	Tile layers. Tile layers' helpers	100 100								
Chauffeurs 1 7 5 23 27 21 15 15 15 2 25 12 38 8 8 All chauffeurs, teamsters, and drivers 1 (!) 12 3 24 19 31 10 Freight handlers		97	2	(1)	(1)	(1)		(1)		
All chauffeurs, teamsters, and drivers 1 (1) 12 3 24 19 31 10 Freight handlers.	Chauffeurs	i	1		5 2					
Freight handlers.			(1)	12	3	24	19	31	10	
7										0
Longshoremen	Longshoremen		1	91	7			1		

¹ Less than 1 per cent.

PER CENT OF LABOR-UNION MEMBERS WORKING EACH SPECIFIED NUMBER OF HOURS PER WEEK, MAY, 1923—Concluded.

	Pe	er cent	of mer	nbers	whose	hours p	er we	ek wer	e
Trade or occupation.	and under.	Over 44 and under 48.	48	Over 48 and under 54.	54	Over 54 and under 60.	60	Over 60.	Ir- regu lar.
Granite and stone trades.									
Granite cutters	100								
Stone cutters	100			(1)					
All granite and stone trades	100			(1)					
Laundry workers.									
Laundry workers			95	4	1				
Linemen	49		38	7	4	2		(1)	
Metal trades.					_	_			
Blacksmiths. Blacksmiths' helpers.	88		12						
Blacksmiths' helpers	91 48	2	9 41	4	5				
Boilermakers. Boilermakers' helpers.	48		38	4	9				
Coppersimens	80		20 98						
Core makers	36	(1)	53	(1)	3	(1)	(1)		
Machinists' helpers	42	(1)	57 61						
Metal polishers and buffers	24	(1)	61 94	15	(1)		(1)		
Molders, iron	65	1	20	14	(1)				
All metal trades	35	1	56	5	2	(1)	(1)		
Millwork.	=	-	-	-	-				-
Carpenters	74	1	22	2	1				
Glaziers	95 90	4	10						
	77	1	20	2	(1)				
All millwork trades.	11	1	20		(1)				
Printing and publishing, book and job.			0"						
Bindery women	75 80		25 20						
Compositors Electrotypers:	99		1 84						
Batterymen and builders. Finishers and molders.	5 77	10 2	21						
Machine operators	97	(1)	3						
Machine tenders (machinists)	99 98		1 2						
Photo-engravers	100								
Press assistants and feeders	89		11						
Pressmen: Cylinder	84		16						
Platen	84		16						
All book and job trades	89	1	10						
Printing and publishing, newspaper.							-		
Compositors:									
Daywork	8	34 51	58 39						
Night work	10	91	99		*****				
Daywork	18	31	51						
Night work- Machine tenders (machinists):	19	39	43						
Daywork. Night work.	5	57	38						
Night work.	5	69	27						
Machinist operators: Daywork	20	16	64						
Night work	13	35	52						
Photo-engravers:	86	7	7						
Daywork. Night work.	93	6	i						
Pressmen, web presses:	(1)	0							
Daywork	(1) 45	3 3	97 52	(1)		1			
Stereotypers:				()					
Daywork	8	7 20	85 29	1		(1)			
Night work	50			_	*****	(1)	*****		
All newspaper trades	18	29	53	(1)		(1)			
TILL MO IN PROPOSE STANDON - TILL THE T									

¹ Less than 1 per cent.

In addition to what is shown in the above table covering union hours of labor in the 66 principal cities of the United States, the bureau has available the official reports of three international unions covering the hours of labor of the different locals throughout those

organizations.

A statement made by the International Typographical Union in 1922 lists approximately 675 local unions in the United States, having a total membership of approximately 70,000. Of the 675 locals 629 reported the union scale of hours of labor per week applying to their members. The reports contained separate scales for hand work and machine work and for day work and night work in the two branches

of the trade-book and job and newspaper.

A study of the scale of hours reported by the various locals shows that the entire organization has a working-day of 8 hours or less. The 44-hour and 48-hour week, however, shows a wide variation in the two different branches. Approximately 95 per cent of the unions reporting book and job work had a 44-hour week, while in the newspaper branch about 65 per cent had a 48-hour week. Very little difference is noticed between hand and machine workers, and day and night work did not vary to any considerable extent.

A summary of the various local reports has been made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and is presented herewith. Each local did not have each classification of work, hence no one class shows 629 locals reporting. A few of the locals reported a range of weekly hours instead of one common scale, such as 39 to 48, 40 to 48, etc. The average of the range given has been used in each case. For example, the report 39 to 48 has been tabulated as $43\frac{1}{2}$, 40 to 48 as 44, etc.

The locals shown in this summary include the unions from which information was received in the union wage investigation of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the figures for which appear elsewhere in this article, on pages 87 and 88.

UNION SCALE OF HOURS OF LABOR OF THE INTERNATIONAL TYPOGRAPHICAL UNION AS REPORTED JULY, 1922.

		Per cent of locals whose weekly scale of hours were—								
Classification.	Number of locals reporting.	Under 42.	42	43½	44	45	Over 45 and under 48.	48		
Newspaper offices.								,		
Hand compositors:							1			
Day	609	0.5	1.5	0.2	20.0	8.5	1.5	67.8		
Night Machine operators:	534	.7	4. 1	.2	15. 4	14. 2	1, 5	63, 9		
Day	608	.7	2.1	.2	20.1	8. 2	1.2	67.6		
Night	541	1, 1	4.3	.4	15. 5	14. 2	1. 2 1. 3	63.4		
Book and job offices.				-						
Hand compositors:										
Day	601		.3		97.3			2.3		
Night Machine operators:	346	1. 2	2. 3		94. 5			2.0		
Day	597	.2	.7		96.8			2.3		
Night	355	1.4	2.3		94.4			2.0		

A supplement to the August, 1923, issue of The Carpenter, the official publication of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America, contains a list of all the local unions of the organization with a statement opposite each of the hours of work per day, and whether or not it is the custom to work a half day on Saturday. This report has been summarized and is presented below. Of the 2,072 local unions in the United States at that time 1,724 furnished information as to the hours of labor, although only 1,370 reported the custom of the union with regard to Saturday practice. Of the 1,724 locals reporting, 1,522 had an 8-hour day, 149 had a 9-hour day, 24 had one of 10 hours, and 29 reported a day which varied in length from 8 to 10 hours.

UNION SCALE OF HOURS OF THE UNITED BROTHERHOOD OF CARPENTERS AND JOINERS OF AMERICA, 1923.

Number of unions re- porting.	Number of hours per day.	Number of hours on Saturday.	Number of hours per week.
7	8	None	40
855	8	One-half day	44
357	8	Eight	48
303	8 8 8	Eight Not reported	
43	9	One-half day	
75	9	Nine	54
31	9	Not reported	
4	10	One-half day	55
4 7	10	Ten	60
13	10	Not reported	
18	8-10	One-half day	
4 7	8-10	Full day	
7	8-10	Not reported	

The Plasterer, the official journal of the International Association of Plasterers and Cement Finishers, in its July, 1923, issue gave reports for 254 local unions in the United States in addition to those located in the 66 cities already mentioned. Six of these locals report the hours of plasterers as 40 per week, 191 as 44, 7 as "over 44 and under 48," 47 as 48, and 3 report "over 48 and under 54."

The Bureau of Labor Statistics has available 136 agreements of individual local unions in localities other than the 66 cities covered by the union wage inquiry, and of the 33 bakers' agreements examined 30 provide for a 48-hour week. Eleven agreements for bricklayers show 7 at 44 hours per week and 4 at 48. Electrical workers were divided between a 44 and a 48 hour week, 12 of the 25 agreements in hand showing 44 hours, 12 showing 48 hours, and 1 reporting a week of 54 hours. Of the 8 agreements of hod carriers and building laborers, 7 fix the hours at 44 and 1 at 48. Two of the agreements for painters and paper hangers provide for 5 days of 8 hours or 40 hours per week, 36 for a 44-hour week, and 1 for 48 hours. Plumbers, gas, steam, and sprinkler fitters and helpers show 44 hours per week in the 8 agreements examined, and of the 12 agreements received for molders and core makers 8 show 48 hours, one "over 48 and under 54," two 54, and one alternated from 44 hours one week to 48 the next.

The following are extracts from the report of the executive council of the American Federation of Labor to the forty-third annual convention:

The granite cutters have not only maintained the 44-hour week but in some localities have secured the five-day work week * * * * * * the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union reduced the working

week in the dress and waist industry from 44 to 40 hours.

The 48-hour week was also maintained for most of the [textile] industry.

A statement issued by the international president of the Granite Cutters' Union for October, 1921, shows that the 44-hour week has been universally accepted for that trade. This report includes the granite cutters at the quarries as well as in cities, and includes those employed in the cities covered by the union-wage investigation of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The 8-hour day and 44-hour week for photo-engravers have been almost universally established. The report of the twenty-first annual meeting of International Photo-Engravers Union of North America in August, 1920, shows that the standard working time for commercial establishments was 8 hours per day and 44 hours per week in 63 of the 64 cities reported. In one city engravers still worked a full day on Saturday or 48 hours per week. In those cities having night work the prevailing hours were 7 to 8 per night and 40 to 42 per week.

The extent of the 8-hour day in 1921 in bituminous coal mining and the changes in the hours of labor since 1903 are set forth in the table following. According to the table 56.4 per cent of the mines had an 8-hour day in 1903, as compared with 96.6 per cent in 1921.

PER CENT OF MEN EMPLOYED IN BITUMINOUS COAL MINES HAVING WORKING-DAYS OF 8, 9, AND 10 HOURS.

[From report of the U.S. Geological Survey.]

Year.	Per cent	t of total er in—	nployees	Weighted
rear.	8-hour mines.	9- hour mines.	10-hour mines.	working day (hours).
1903 1904 1904 1905 1906 1907 1908 1910 1911 1911 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1919 1919 1919 1919 1919 1919 1919 1919 1920 1921	56. 4 62. 1 61. 1 63 64 63. 5 62. 1 62. 9 61. 6 61. 9 60. 7 59. 6 79 90. 6 95. 5 97. 1 96. 6	17. 1 13. 8 13. 6 13. 5 11. 6 11. 1 11. 3 10. 9 11. 5 15. 2 15. 4 17 17. 4 12. 6 6. 7 3. 5 2 2. 9	26. 5 24. 1 25. 3 23. 5 24. 4 25. 4 26. 6 26. 2 26. 9 22. 9 23. 9 23. 9 24. 4 8. 4 2. 7	8. 7 8. 6 8. 6 8. 6 8. 6 8. 6 8. 6 8. 6 8. 6

¹ Percentages are calculated on base of total number of men in mines definitely reported as having 8-hour, 9-hour, or 10-hour day. A small number of mines that work more than 10 hours or less than 8 hours have been excluded, as have also all mines for which the reports were defective or which changed their working day during the year.

The October, 1923, Monthly Labor Review, page 19, contains a digest of the report of the committee appointed by the United States Coal Commission to study labor relations in the anthracite industry. The committee consisted of H. S. Dennison, W. E. Hotchkiss, and J. H. Willits.

The following quotation from the report is here reprinted:

The 8-hour day prevails in the industry. The Coal Commission's study of wage rates indicates that in 148 colleries about 2 per cent of the employees in 55 specified occupations work in excess of 8 hours per day, and that about 70 per cent of these 2 per cent work on a 12-hour basis. The sense of unfairness among the relatively few men working 10 to 12 hours keeps up irritations which cost more than the saving, if any, from the longer hours. The committee therefore recommends the elimination of the long day.

The anthracite wage agreement 1 which was concluded between the representatives of the operators and of the miners on September, 1923, has three clauses relating to the 8-hour day. By this agreement outside and inside company men working on the basis of a day in excess of 10 hours are placed on the basis of an 8-hour day, those working on the basis of a 9 or 10 hour day were also placed on the basic 8-hour day as well as monthly men coming under the agreement of September 2, 1920, who were working on a basis in excess of 8 hours.

The following extracts are drawn from the Fourteenth Census, volume 9, Mines and Quarries. The statements relate to the year 1919.

(Page 279.)

Coal.—The normal hours of labor in the coal mining industry generally were 44 to 53 per week, and in fact were 248—the 8-hour day and the 6-day week prevailing. Among the anthractie enterprises the exceptions to these prevailing hours were almost entirely reported by those who operated only culm washeries and dredges. In bituminous-coal mining other hours than those generally prevailing were reported by a considerable number of enterprises in fully half of the States, but the wage earners employed in such enterprises were relatively quite few in number except in West Virginia, eastern Kentucky, northeastern Tennessee, Alabama, Arkansas, Texas, Utah, and South Dakota.

(Page 320.)

Petroleum and natural gas.—The table shows that the prevailing hours of labor were quite generally more than 54 per week, about 60 per cent of the enterprises employing wage earners reporting 54 or more hours per week. The hours per day in the petroleum and natural-gas industry were commonly 9 or 10, and very frequently longer. Furthermore, the 7-day week was the rule in many enterprises. The reason for prevalence of long hours in this industry is that drilling operations are usually conducted continuously, 24 hours per day and 7 days per week, and also because where there is large volume of production uninterrupted attendance is required.

(Page 346.)

Iron ore.—In the industry as a whole 44 to 53 hours per week; that is, the 8-hour day and 6-day week prevailed for a majority of the enterprises employing wage earners, but only for 44.4 per cent of the total average number of wage earners. In 43.5 per cent of the enterprises employing wage earners and for 53.9 per cent of the wage earners, the prevailing hours of labor were 54 to 62 per week with the 10-hour day and 6-day week ruling.

In Michigan and Wisconsin the 48-hour week prevailed, but in Minnesota a large majority of the wage earners worked 60 hours per week, and as a consequence 60 hours was the prevailing time in the Lake Superior Region. In the Northeastern Region the prevailing hours were 44 to 53 per week and the 8-hour day and 6-day week were most common. In the Southeastern Region longer hours prevailed, chiefly 10 a day and 60 a week.

[1316]

¹ See Monthly Labor Review, October, 1923, p. 83. ² Evidently should read "in fact were mainly."

(Page 373.)

Gold, silver, copper, lead, and zinc.—For the combined producing and nonproducing industries in the United States, for nearly three-fifths of the enterprises employing wage earners and for one-half of the total average number of wage earners the prevailing hours of labor were 54 to 62 per week; and for approximately two-fifths of the enterprises and nearly one-half of the wage earners the prevailing hours were 44 to 53 per week. Enterprises and wage earners for which less than 44 and more than 63 hours per week prevailed were very few. In the Western Region hours ranging from 54 to 62 per week, resulting principally from the 9 or 10 hour day and 6-day week, but also from the 8-hour day and 7-day week in many enterprises, were most frequently reported, while hours ranging from 44 to 53 per week, indicating the 8-hour day and 6-day week, were reported by about a third of the enterprises. In the Lake Region the hours 44 to 53 per week and the 8-hour day and 6-day week was the rule. These hours prevailed in the Central Region for more than four-fifths of the enterprises but a considerable number of the wage earners employed in mills in these enterprises worked longer hours.

(Page 404.)

Stone.—For the combined quarrying industries and for limestone, sandstone, slate, basalt, and marble the hours prevailing for a majority of the enterprises were 54 to 62 per week. These hours were those for 69.8 per cent of all the wage earners in the quarrying industries. For the five industries separately considered the proportion of wage earners working 54 to 62 hours was as follows: Limestone, 81.3 per cent; sandstone, 86 per cent; slate, 61.8; basalt, 77.5; marble, 86.2. The hours per day in these industries were most commonly 10, and the 6-day week was the rule. In the granite industry a majority of the enterprises and 60 per cent of the wage earners were in the class reporting working hours as 44 to 53 per week. The 8-hour day and 6-day week prevailed in the granite industry.

(Page 422.)

Phosphate rock.—In the United States as a whole, for a majority of the enterprises and for 84.2 per cent of the wage earners employed, the hours of labor were 54 to 62 per week and the 10-hour day and 6-day week prevailed. The same hours ruled in all States except Idaho and Utah, where the hours of labor were 8 per day and 48 per week.

(Page 430.)

Gypsum.—In the industry as a whole, for a majority of the enterprises and for 60 per cent of the wage earners employed, the hours of labor were 54 to 62 per week; that is, the 10-hour day and 6-day week prevailed. In Iowa, however, the prevailing hours of labor were 44 to 53 per week, and the 8-hour day and 6-day week was the rule.

The basic 8-hour day for railroad train-service employees was fixed by the Adamson Act. The basic 8-hour day in railroad service is, however, more a method of wage payment than an actual 8-hour day. General rules governing hours in train service are determined by agreement. The day's work is based on mileage made as well as hours on duty. The following table, drawn from a report of the Interstate Commerce Commission, shows the average hours per day worked by train-service employees during June, 1923. No data were available from which to classify the hours per day of each employee, so averages only are shown.

AVERAGE HOURS WORKED BY TRAIN-SERVICE EMPLOYEES IN JUNE, 1923, BY OCCUPATION.

Occupation.	Passenger service.	Freight service.	Yard.
Conductors Engineers and motormen Firemen and helpers		9. 4 8. 8 8. 2	8. 6 8. 5
Brakemen and flagmen Baggagemen	7. 5 8. 1	8.9	

[1317]

The principle of the basic 8-hour day for other classes of railroad employees was recognized by the Railroad Administration during Government operation of the roads and later by the Railroad Labor Board in various decisions. Maintenance of way employees averaged 8.7 hours per day during June, 1923, and the shop crafts ranged from an average of 8.28 hours per day for blacksmiths to 9.3 hours for firemen and oilers during the same period. Clerks, freight handlers, station employees, etc., were usually on duty between 8½ and 9 hours per day.

A number of States, through their labor departments, have accumulated and published data covering the hours of labor of their employees in manufacturing, construction, and other industries.

These data have been presented in various ways, but all give a fairly good idea of the hours worked by employees in their respective States. A summarization of these reports has been made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and is herewith presented.

According to the Eighteenth Biennial Report of the Colorado Bureau of Labor Statistics, 94 labor unions in that State, having a membership of 13,194, had an 8-hour day in 1921–22. Two unions with 156 members had a 9-hour day, while 10 unions with 652 members were on a 10-hour basis. One union comprising 36 members worked 12 hours.

According to a general summary of the union scale of hours of employment of various classes of labor in Louisiana as of December 31, 1921, practically all of the building trades worked 8 hours per day and 44 hours per week. Building laborers and hod carriers were on a 9-hour day and a 50-hour week basis and plasterers worked 8 hours per day and 45 hours per week. The metal trades, except molders and helpers, also worked an 8-hour day and 44-hour week. Molders and helpers worked a full day on Saturday or 48 hours per week. The printing trades all varied between 8 and 9 hours per day and 48 and 52 hours per week.

Data as of December, 1921, collected by the Industrial Commissioner of New York and published in the Industrial Bulletin of that State, cover 1,648 representative firms with over 460,000 employees, or more than one-third of the factory workers in the State. Hours are reported for shop employees only, since office employees were not included in the inquiry. While only one-third of the factory workers in the State were included in the investigation, information was received from a sufficient number of representative plants in each industry to be thoroughly representative of conditions in that industry. The total at the end of the table following shows that 60.2 per cent of the men in New York factories had a week of 48 hours or less, and that 61.9 per cent of the women had a week of 48 hours or less.

NUMBER OF HOURS CONSTITUTING A STANDARD WEEK FOR SHOP EMPLOYEES IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES OF NEW YORK STATE, DECEMBER, 1921.

[Source: Industrial Bulletin of New York State, January and February, 1922.]

				Me	n.				W	omen		
Tuduotur	Num- ber			P	er cei	ıt.				Per	cent.	
Industry.	ofre- ports.	Num- ber.	hrs. or less.	45 to 48 hrs.	49 to 51 hrs.	52 to 54 hrs.	Over 54 hrs.	Num- ber.	44 hrs. or less.	45 to 48 hrs.	49 to 51 hrs.	52 to 54 hrs.
tone, clay, and glass products Miscellaneous stone and min-	57	8, 263	10.7	12.8	24.6	32.0	19.9	867	0.2	2.2	64.4	33.2
eral products. Lime, cement, and plaster. Brick, tile, and pottery. Glass. fetals, machinery and convey-	14 9 24 10	1,658 1,788 2,234 2,583	6.6	3.6	60.6 40.9 4.5		5.4	77 21 483 286	2.6	6.6	97. 4	100.0
ances Gold, silver, and precious stones Brass, copper, aluminum, etc. Pigiron and rolling mill prod-	294 8 27	91,001 602 6,824	2.4 38.7 9.4	36.2		10.1	10.4	6,317 84 353	3.3 16.7 46.7	23.8	59.5	
Structural and architectural ironwork.	10	3,923 694		47.7	22.9 15.6	7.7	69.4 36.7	86			••••	100.
Sheet-metal work and hard- ware	35 17	7,277	.5	29.0	33.0	27.4	10.1	1,127		53.2	33.6	
Firearms, tools, and cutlery Cooking, heating, and venti- lating apparatus	12	2, 491 6, 460	6.6	38.7 55.0	3.0	11.0 35.4		288	28.3	52.1 13.0	39.9	7. 58.
Machinery (including electrical apparatus)	80	24, 568	.2	69.5	16.3	8.8	5.2	2,520	.2	85.1	10.2	4.
cars, locomotives, and railway	27	7,474	4.8	70.3	22.7	2.2		29	6.9	65.5	10.3	
repair shops Boat and ship building Instruments and appliances Vood manufactures. Sawmill and planing mill	33 7 29 116	20, 354 2, 754 7, 580 14, 922	9.8	67.6 80.5 52.4 35.1		3.7 4.7 9.3	14.3 .6 17.0	55 2 1,727 1,762	.1 10.9	92.7 39.4 53.4	5. 5 60. 5 23. 6	1.
products Furniture and cabinetwork. Pianos, organs, and other musical instruments	40 42 18	3, 890 5, 607 3, 652	11.6 11.9			13. 4 12. 2	16.1 26.4 6.1	211 477 300	13.3 10.4	20.9 36.3 46.0	50. 2 40. 9	12.
Miscellaneous wood and allied products	16 113	1,773		41.9	16.4	10.4	12.2	774	14.7	75.7	27.0	5.
'urs, feather, and rubber goods Leather. Furs and fur goods Boots and shoes Miscellaneous leather and can-	11 7 29	18, 426 1, 811 618 13, 089		19.7 23.9	14.1 37.5 8.2	6.2 42.2		8, 199 99 317 5, 523	9. 9 80. 4 6. 5	67. 1 7. 0 19. 6 81. 5		6. 25.
vas goods Rubber and gutta - percha goods	33 8	1, 250 559	26.2	35.3 66.4	8.2	10.5	19.8	913	8.7	55.2	6.3	29.
Pearl, horn, bone, celluloid, hair, etc	25	1,099	7.7	23.4	33. 6 50. 7	14.8		183	10.1	65.0 26.8	35.0 46.3	16.
hemicals, oils, paints, etc. Drugs and chemicals. Paints, dyes, and colors. Animal and mineral oil prod-	51 12 12	15, 184 1, 308 2, 079	2.1	64.6 15.8 60.0	50.8	6.4 15.8 8.9		4, 054 574 255	2.3 2.8	67. 1 27. 5 8. 2	19. 5 50. 0 40. 4	19.
ucts	16	6,859	4.7	66.6 76.7	11.4 3.8	3.4		1,278	6.1	68.4	24.9	10
aper : rinting and paper goods. Paper boxes and tubes. Miscellaneous paper goods. Printing and bookmaking. extiles.	22 110 14 19 77 139	4, 938 5, 947 15, 975 1, 008 1, 635 13, 332 23, 561	2.1 49.5 1.9	74. 4 46. 5 45. 2 26. 5 49. 1	1.4 8.7 24.5 69.7	7. 0 16. 0 2. 4 19. 3 1. 4 21. 8	7.5	1,947 243 7,110 1,069 1,618 4,423 23,496	1. 2 27. 0 43. 4 1. 9	85. 6 52. 7 48. 8 40. 6 41. 7 53. 3 59. 0	58.3	28. 3. 10.
Silk and silk goods. Wool manufactures. Cotton goods. Cotton and woolen hosiery	28 19 5	2,871 7,343 2,911	11.5	61. 2 54. 5 82. 5	14.8	10.3 35.2 9.2	2.2	5, 800 4, 735 1, 729	4.4	73. 9 60. 2 82. 8		4.
and knit goods Other textiles and allied prod- ucts	56 31	5, 098 5, 338		44.0	17.5			8, 225 3, 007		46.3		

NUMBER OF HOURS CONSTITUTING A STANDARD WEEK FOR SHOP EMPLOYEES IN MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES OF NEW YORK STATE, DECEMBER, 1921—Concl'd.

				Mei	1.				W	omen		
7.7.4	Num- ber			P	er cen	it.				Per	cent.	
Industry.	ofre- ports.	Num- ber.	44 hrs. or less.	45 to 48 hrs.	49 to 51 hrs.	54	Over 54 hrs.	Num- ber.	44 hrs. or less.	48	49 to 51 hrs.	54
Clothing, millinery, laundering, etc Men's clothing Men's shirts and furnishings Women's clothing	285 60 47 86	6, 498 3, 294	90.8	6.3 25.9	· 2.3 5.5	15.4 .1 53.6 3.8	7.1	23, 886 4, 727 9, 321 2, 920	78.8	17.0 16.8	3.0 64.2	1.2
Women's underwear and fur- nishings Women's headwear Miscellaneous sewing	30 20 17	186	80.6	80. 5 15. 6 81. 1	3.8		2.8	797		78,8 31.6 70.9	56.8	11.6
Laundering, cleaning, dyeing, etc. Food, beverages, and tobacco. Flour, feed, and other cereal	25 129		15.8 3.5	16.4 41.8	.54.4 11.3	12.1 16.3	1.3 27.1	1,897 8,638	17.4 6.3	31. 4 43. 4	45.7 15.0	5. 8 35. 8
productsFruit and vegetable canning	10	1,685	9.1				11.1				19.7	
and preserving Groceries not elsewhere classi-	10				1221		36.9				22.5	
fiedMeat and dairy products Bread and other bakery prod-	10 16				31.4		43.1 53.3		10.3	14.3 7.9	51.5	
uets Confectionery and ice cream Beverages.	19 14 27	2,019		55.0 52.8 77.0	12.7	13.9		2,628	76.9	64.7		
Cigars and other tobacco prod- uets	23 10					25. 2 14. 1	3. 2 44. 5			42.7		44.4
Total	1, 326,	225, 711	10.0	50.2	17.1	11.9	10.8	84, 575	12.9	49.0	24.2	13.9

The department of industrial relations of the State of Ohio made a canvass of the union scale of wages and hours of labor in force in the organized trades in 16 of the principal cities in the State, as of May 15, 1921. The total of the membership of all local unions covered in the investigation was approximately 90,000, although the

exact number has not been reported.

As the union membership of each organized trade was not reported, the number of reports sent to the department of industrial relations have been classified. Of the 939 reports received, 721, or 76.8 per cent, show an 8-hour day or 48 hours or less per week. The largest number of reports in any group, or 35.6 per cent, appears under the heading 44 hours per week. The next largest number, or 34 per cent, reports a 48-hour week. The summary of the weekly hours of labor reported follows:

UNION SCALE OF HOURS OF LABOR IN OHIO ON MAY 15, 1921, BY TRADES.

[Source: Ohio. Department of industrial relations. Division of Labor Statistics Report No. 1, Aug. 25, 1921.]

			Num	ber o	f repo	rts sh	owing	hour	s of la	bor I	er we	ek of-	-
Trade.	Num- ber of re- ports.	40 and un- der.	Over 40 and un- der 44.	44	Over 44 and un- der 48.	48	Over 48 and un- der 54.	54	Over 54 and under 60.	60	Over 60 and un- der 72.	72	O vei 72.
Bakery Building trades. Metal trades. Printing (book and job) Printing (newspapers). Street car employees (conductors	51 285 102 202 99	2	1 4 2	219 20 92 3	3 25 5 15 11	45 31 50 91 80	6 21	3 3 2	3	1			
and motormen) Teamsters and chauffeurs	12 188					22	4	10	30	$\frac{1}{72}$	11 43	···i	6
Total	939	2	7	334	59	319	31	18	34	74	54	1	6

The prevailing hours of labor in the organized industries and trades in Massachusetts in 1921 are shown in the twelfth annual report on the union scale of wages and hours of labor in Massachusetts.

Reports were obtained from practically all local labor organizations in the State as of July 1, 1921. The membership of the various locals was not reported so the number of reports from the different locals have been classified in the following summary. Of the 2,024 reports received, 1,734, or 85.7 per cent, show an 8-hour day or a week of 48 hours or less. Approximately 43 per cent, or 863, report 48 hours per week, and 708, or 35 per cent, show a 44-hour week. The table follows:

UNION SCALE OF HOURS OF LABOR IN MASSACHUSETTS, 1921.

[Source: Massachusetts. Bureau of labor statistics. Labor Bul. No. 137, June, 1922. Number of employees not available so the number of reports have been classified.]

		Nu	mber	of agi	eemer	nts s <u>r</u>	ecifyi	ng ho	urs of	labor	per v	week	of—
Trade.	Num- ber of re- ports.	40 and un- der.	Over 40 and un- der 44.	44	Over 44 and un- der 48.	48	Over 48 and un- der 54.	54	Over 54 and under 60.	60	Over 60 and un- der 72.	72	Over
Boots and shoes. Building trades. Clothing and garment trades. Food and beverages. Metal and machinery Paper and pulp. Printing and allied trades. Stoneworking and quarrying. Teaming and trucking. Telephone and telegraph service. Textile operatives. Woodworking. Miscellaneous trades. Municipal service.	300 372 56 180 149 83 137 58 167 39 71 40 239 133	30 4	7	2 334 46 53 46 24 12 32 8 74 77	90 1 4 4 9 4	183 8 9 120 83 65 85 24 41 	25 	40 2 29	7	7	3	1	1
Total	2,024	35	9	708	119	863	133	78	48	19	8	1	- 1

The sixth biennial report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the State of Texas, 1919-1920, contains a very comprehensive study of the prevailing hours of labor of employees in that State. The data were compiled from 1,873 representative establishments. While the survey includes only a limited part of the industries in any particular city or locality, the inquiry was always so distributed as to get statistics from all classes of establishments from the largest to the smallest, and practically every section of the State is represented. In the following summary table made by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics the males and females have not been presented separately. No females, however, were found who worked more than 9 hours per day or 54 hours per week. Approximately 42 per cent of the employees reported worked an 8-hour day and a small percentage worked less than 48 hours per week. Of the remaining 58 per cent 41.2 worked 54 hours per week and 6.9 worked 60 hours per week. Only 1 per cent of the employees worked more than 60 hours per week.

CLASSIFIED HOURS OF LABOR OF EMPLOYEES IN TEXAS MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES, 1919-20.

[Source: Texas. Bureau of labor statistics. Sixth biennial report, 1919-1920.]

		Per	cent	of em	ploye	es wh	ose fu	ıll tin	ne hou	rs pe	r wee	k wer	-e-
Industry.	Number of employ-ees.	40 and un- der.	Over 40 and un- der 44.	44	Over 44 and un- der 48.	48	Over 48 and un- der 54.	54	Over 54 and un- der 60.	60	Over 60 and un- der 72.	72	Over 72.
Automobiles	275					100.0							
Bakeries 1	195					3.6		43.4	13.8				
Box making	1, 413					1.1	3.5			67.2			
andy and confectionery	2,248			0.9	0.5	5.6	5.9	62.1		20.0	1.4		20.
Digars and tobacco	1,068							100.0					
tress	3 799	0.2		49.3	. 4	6.7	28.9	8.9		5.6			
Compress and cotton ginning	3, 722 574	0. 2		10.0	, 2	0.1	20.0	. 2		99. 8			
Department stores and mercan-	011									00.0			
tile establishments	12,830					21.0	10.9	64.3	(3)	3.6		0.1	
Foundries and machine shops	1,381	.1	0.8	2.2	.1	30.7	1.0	45.5	.1	19.6			
Furniture and cabinetmakers	230							99.6				. 4	
Hotels and restaurants	1, 229	.3			5.5					7.8		1.3	4 7.
aundries	6,037				(3)	. 6	18.4	76.9		3.9			5,
Mill and elevator	295					9.8		4.7		66. 8		18.6	
Mines	617			(9)		97.4				2.3		2.1	
Miscellaneous manufactures	2,105			(3)	2	5.9				16.8		2.1	5.
Newspaper and printing offices.	1,306	. 8		8.0	- 2	72. 1 98. 4		5. 4		1.0		3	
Packing plants	6, 590 2, 616		. 1	90 6		71. 4		. 1			1.1	. 0	
Railroad companies	3, 032			1.2		98.0			8		.1		
Telephone and telegraph	9, 641			1.2				51. 4			. 1		
rextiles	937		1.4	. 5				80. 4		3. 9		1000	1
All others	361	5.0					10.0						6 3.
Total	58, 702	. 1	.1	4.7	.2	37.0	7.7	41. 2	.9	6. 9	. 6	. 3	

¹ Reported as "Bakery and confectionery" in one city.

^{2 77} hours per week.
2 Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.
4 45 working 73 hours and 50 working 84 hours.
5 46 84 hours per week.
6 Part at 77 and part at 84 hours per week.

The twentieth biennial report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the State of California, 1921–1922, contains a study of the prevailing hours of labor of organized workers in that State in 1922. Questionnaires were sent out to all labor unions, but on account of strikes and other industrial disturbances not all reported. Altogether only 279 unions, having a membership of 59,770, furnished information. In reporting the hours of labor for each organized trade or occupation, however, the number of members affected was not shown, and in the summary presented below the number of reports received have been classified rather than individuals. Of the 829 reports received, 377, or 45.5 per cent, show a 48-hour week and 337, or 40.7 per cent, report a week of 44 hours. Ninety-one per cent show a week of 48 hours or under. Separate information for males and females has not been summarized, but a statute provides that females shall not be permitted to work more than eight hours per day.

UNION SCALE OF HOURS OF LABOR IN CALIFORNIA JANUARY, 1922.

[Source: California. Bureau of labor statistics. Twentieth biennial report, 1921–1922, pp. 102 to 131, inclusive. Number of employees not available, so the number of reports have been classified.]

		Nu	mber	of rep	orts s	howi	ng hou	ars of	labor	per '	week ()f—
Industry.	Num- ber of reports.	40 hours and un- der.	Over 40 and un- der 44.	44	Over 44 and un- der 48.	48	Over 48 and un- der 54.	54	Over 54 and un- der 60.	60	Over 60 and un- der 72.	72
Building, stone-working, etc. Transportation. Clothing and textiles. Metals, machinery, and shipbuilding. Printing, binding, etc. Woodworking and furniture. Food and liquors. Theaters and music. Tobacco. Restaurants and trades. Public employment Stationary enginemen. Miscellaneous.	178 95 104 68 158 10 51 47 5 58 35 8 12	31		147 1 44 44 44 89 5 3 1	14	28 68 60 20 55 5 35 45 2 30 11 7	12 1	15	1 12	1	7	
Total	829	28		337	15	377	14	32	16	1	8	

The Missouri Bureau of Labor Statistics has published, in the Missouri Red Book for 1922, detailed copies of actual returns as of 1921 made by 38 of the largest employers and manufacturers of the State. These reports contain in part the actual daily and weekly hours of labor prevailing for all wage earners, by occupations. The weekly hours of these wage earners have been classified for each industry represented. Approximately 55 per cent of the male employees and

85 per cent of the female employees reported worked 48 hours or less per week. The summarization follows:

PREVAILING HOURS OF LABOR PER WEEK OF EMPLOYEES IN MISSOURI MANU-FACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS, BY INDUSTRY AND SEX, 1921.

[Source: Missouri. Bureau of labor statistics. Red Book, 1922.]

		Pe	er een	t of e	mploy	rees w	hose I	iours	of lab	or pe	r week	were	2
Industry.	Num- ber of em- ploy- ees.	Un- der 40.	40 and un- der 44.	44	Over 44 and un- der 48.	48	Over 48 and un- der 54.	54	Over 54 and under 60.	60	Over 60 and un- der 72.	72	Over 72.
Males.													
Boots and shoes Car shops Car shops Clothing. Flour milling Foundry shops Hats and caps Meat packing and slaughtering Printing. Publishing	1,597 4,164 335 336 1,545 47 2,141 475 1,133	10.6	4.3	97, 9 1, 2 18, 5 4, 3	2. 1	57. 7 4. 1 36. 3 81. 5 95. 7 95. 7 100.0 47. 2	51.8	2.1	27.9	16.1	2.4	(1)	2.
Total 2	11,800	1.0	1.0	6.2	3.7	46.5	18.8	5.4	10.1	7.2	.1	.1	
Females. Boots and shoes. Clothing. Hats and caps. Meat packing and slaughtering Millinery. Printing.	946 877 84 149 254 381		14, 1	85. 3 4. 8 100.0	14. 7 95. 2	56. 9 85. 9 100.0		40.9					
Total ³	2,737		.8	33.6	8.1	42. 1	1.0	14. 4					

The fourth biennial report of the Department of Labor and Industry of Montana, 1919-1920, contains a very comprehensive report of the manufacturing industries in the State. All manufacturing in the State has been included and daily hours of labor were stated separately for male and female employees. The weekly hours are not shown and employees have been classified according to the hours per day in the following summarization. Approximately 85 per cent of the 12,346 employees reported had an 8-hour day. Only two industries, lumber and slaughtering and meat packing, reported less than 50 per cent of the employees working on that basis. Information for males and females has not been separated in this summary, although no females were found working more than 8 hours per day.

 $^{^{1}}$ Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent. 2 Including 27 males not shown separately, as they were found in an industry which employed females almost entirely. 3 Including a few females not shown separately, as they were found in industries employing males

CLASSIFIED FULL-TIME HOURS PER DAY OF ACTUAL EMPLOYEES IN THE MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES OF MONTANA, 1919-20.

[Source: Montana. Department of labor and industry. Biennial report, 1919-1920.]

	Number	Per ce	nt of er	per day	whose were—		flabor
Industry.	of employees.	Under 8.	8	9	10	11	12_
Lumber Flour and feed. Bakery products Laundering Cigar manufacturing. Creameries (butter). Cheese factories. Bottle works Smelters, concentrators, and cyanide plants. Foundries, repair and machine shops. Planing mills. Monumental works.	1,822 463 335 1,037 102 168 22 114 5,376 519 423 72	2.8 6.3 21.6 1.2 .9	43. 1 65. 4 85. 7 92. 3 78. 4 58. 3 77. 3 91. 2 100. 0 99. 8 74. 0 81. 9	27. 1 6. 0 11. 7 1. 6 26. 8 6. 1	29. 7 24. 2 2. 7 13. 7 22. 7 1. 8	0.4	1.1
Brick and clay products	308 163 1,422		89. 6 48. 5 86. 2	51. 5 3. 4	10.4	8.5	
Total	12,346	.9	84.9	6.9	6, 2	1.0	(1)

¹Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

The twenty-fourth annual report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the State of Virginia contains a summary covering all industries in the State for the year 1920. The average daily hours of labor of wage earners are classified for each industry for males and females separately. Only 45 per cent of the 99,728 male employees and 25.8 per cent of the 21,986 female employees worked 8 hours or less per day. The industries of shipbuilding and coal mining were the only ones reported which were entirely on an 8-hour basis. The classification follows:

DATLY HOURS OF LABOR OF EMPLOYEES IN VIRGINIA MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS, 1921.

[Source: Virginia. Bureau of labor and industrial statistics. Twenty-fourth annual report, 1921.]

	Nonethan	Per ce	ent of emp		whose ho	urs of Ial	bor per
Industry.	Number of em- ployees.	8 and under.	and over 8.	and over 9.	and over 10.	and over 11.	Over 12.
Males.							
Building operations. Cannery products. Cotton mill products. Fertilizer and guano Iron and machinery. Lime, cement, and limestone. Garments (clothing, shirts, etc.) Sash, doors, and blinds. Sawmill products. Shipbuilding Tobacco products. Wood products. Coal mining Miscellaneous industries	8, 265 1, 348 4, 508 2, 194 11, 383 2, 359 291 1, 885 4, 633 12, 070 5, 041 3, 700 14, 780 27, 266	34.7 46.7 2.0 2.1 54.5 3.5 87.6 9.4 3.0 100.0 1.7 6.8 100.0 26.3	65. 3 11. 6 .2 1. 3 30. 3 3. 3 10. 3 35. 1 7. 3 47. 7 4. 5	41. 7 97. 9 96. 0 13. 0 93. 1 2. 1 55. 4 87. 0 50. 5 88. 1	0. 1 2. 4 .5 4. 2	0.6 2.1 .3 .1	0.1
Total	99,728	45.0	17.3	34.8	1.3	1.6	(1)
Females.							
Cannery products. Cotton mill products Garments (clothing, shirts, etc.) Tobacco products. Miscellaneous industries	1,536 2,580 1,873 8,414 7,583	53. 7 4. 0 76. 2 1. 9 41. 6	11.1 6.1 21.1 61.4 26.3	34. 8 90. 0 2. 7 36. 7 31. 9	.4		
Total	21,986	25.8	35.9	38.3	(1)	.1	

¹ Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

[1325]

The statistics of manufactures of the State of Iowa, 1920 and 1922, include a classification of employees in factory industries by hours of labor per day, in 1919 and 1921. The reports for a few establishments could not be included in this summary because of incomplete data.

HOURS OF LABOR IN FACTORIES IN IOWA IN 1919 AND 1921.

[Source: Iowa. Bureau of labor statistics. Statistics of manufactures of Iowa, 1919 and 1921.]

:		Num- ber of	Num-	Per o	ent of	emple		vhose were—		me hou	rs pei	week
	Year.	estab-	ber of em- ployees.	8	81/2	834	9	$9\frac{1}{2}$	10	10½ and 11	12	Over 12
Total employees	1919 1921	2,747 2,877	91, 454 76, 203	37. 4 45. 1	1. 4 1. 3	0.8	24. 9 23. 3	1.8	27. 4 20. 8	0.1	5. 4 3. 4	0.8
Males	1919 1921		75, 023 63, 131	39.5 47.6	.7 1.1	.5	23.6 21.5	1.5 3.0	27. 4 21. 3	.1	6.3 3.4	2.1
Females	1919 1921		16, 431 13, 072	27.5 33.4	4.7 2.5	2. 4 2. 0	31.0 32.0	3. 0 6. 4	27. 5 18. 7	.2	1.3 3.8	2.8 1.8

The fourth biennial report of the Commissioner of Labor of the State of Nevada, 1921–1922, contains the average daily hours of labor of employees in that State, classified by industries. The total number of firms reporting was 2,540, which employed 21,011 wage earners. The number of women employed was 2,214, and with but few exceptions averaged 8 hours or less per day. Nurses, matrons, cooks, and farm workers, totaling 242 females, averaged slightly above the 8-hour day. The averages indicate the prevalence of the 8-hour day. The summary follows:

AVERAGE HOURS OF LABOR PER DAY OF EMPLOYEES IN NEVADA, 1921-22.

[Source: Nevada. Commissioner of Labor, Fourth biennial report.]

Industry.	Number of em- ployees.	Average hours per day.
Farming and stock raising Mines, mills, and quarries. Manufacturing industries. Railroads. Trades and merchandise. Public service. Professional service. Hotels, cafes, and saloons. Telegraph and telephones. Transfers and garages. Laundries, dyers, cleaners.	3,845 4,658 1,024 5,706 2,369 1,478 162 970 227 385 187	9. 3 8. 0 8. 0 8. 1 8. 1 7. 5 8. 3 7. 9 8. 4 8. 5
All industries	21,011	8, 4

Union Scale of Wages and Hours of Labor as of May 15, 1923.

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics has just completed the compilation of the union scales of wages and hours of labor of 862,621 members of organized trades in 66 of the principal cities of the United States as of May 15, 1923, which will be published later in bulletin form. The present article is a summary of this report. In all trades taken collectively the hourly union wage rate on May

15, 1923, was higher in the United States than in any preceding year, being 9 per cent higher than on the same date in 1922, 84 per cent higher than in 1917, 111 per cent higher than in 1913, 123 per cent

higher than in 1910, and 135 per cent higher than in 1907.

All hourly rates have been converted to equivalent weekly rates and all weekly rates have been reduced to equivalent hourly rates. Taken collectively, weekly rates in 1923 were 9 per cent higher than in 1922, 77 per cent higher than in 1917, 99 per cent higher than in 1913, 109 per cent higher than in 1910, and 117 per cent higher than in 1907. Because of reductions in hours of labor, weekly rates have not increased to the same extent as hourly rates. In 1923 the regular hours of labor were at the same level as in 1922, 4 per cent lower than in 1917, 6 per cent lower than in 1913, 7 per cent lower than in 1910,

and 8 per cent lower than in 1907.

In the trades the weekly rates changed during the year, May, 1922, to May, 1923, as follows: Bakers' wages increased 3 per cent; building trades changes ranged from no change for parquetry-floor layers to an increase of 18 per cent for stonemasons; chauffeurs' wages showed an increase of 4 per cent; those of teamsters and drivers an increase of 5 per cent; those of freight handlers an increase of 11 per cent; those of granite cutters an increase of 3 per cent; those of stonecutters an increase of 9 per cent; those of laundry workers a decrease of 1 per cent; and those of linemen an increase of 4 per cent. In the metal trades, the changes ranged from an increase of 2 per cent for black-smiths' helpers, boilermakers' helpers, and pattern makers, to an increase of 14 per cent for core makers.

Millwork carpenters gained 8 per cent, while glaziers and painters (hardwood finishers) in the millwork group gained 4 per cent. In book and job printing, weekly rates of platen pressmen remained unchanged, while in all other occupations in this group the increases ranged from 1 per cent for compositors, machine tenders (machinists), machinist operators, and photo-engravers to 11 per cent for press assistants and feeders. In the newspaper printing trades, the weekly rates for machine tenders (machinists) on day and night work, photo-engravers on night work, and web pressmen on night work remained unchanged, while in all other occupations the changes ranged from a decrease of 5 per cent for machinist operators on night work to an

increase of 3 per cent for stereotypers on night work.

The average money rate of wages per hour as of May 15, 1923 and 1922, for the country as a whole, is given for each trade in the table following. Averages are also given for trade groups and for all trades combined. The grand average at the end of the table shows an increase for all trades, collectively, from 87.3 cents in 1922 to 95.2

cents in 1923.

TABLE 1.—AVERAGE UNION RATE OF WAGES PER HOUR IN TRADES SPECIFIED, FOR THE UNITED STATES, AS OF MAY 15, 1922 AND 1923.

Occupation.	May 15, 1923.	May 15, 1922.	Occupation.	May 15, 1923.	May 15, 1922.
Bakers	\$0.921	\$0,891	Metal trades—Continued.		
Building trades.			Boiler makers' helpers, manu-		
		000	facturing and jobbing shops .	\$0,606	\$9, 591
Asbestos workers	1.005 1.321	. 968 1, 164	Coppersmiths	. 966	. 933
Sewer, tunnel, and caisson.		1. 432	Core makers	. 848	. 743
Building laborers	.728	.714	Machinists, manufacturing and	900	701
Carpenters	1.084	. 973 1. 061	jobbing shops	, 823	. 791
Millwrights Parquetry-floor layers	1.164	1.061	turing and jobbing shops	.650	. 613
Wharf and bridge	1, 262 , 994	1, 254 . 877	Metal polishers and buffers	. 934	. 861
Cement finishers	1, 113	1.017	Molders, iron	. 843	. 746
Cement finishers	. 805	. 781	Pattern makers	1.028	1.009
Composition roofers	. 977	. 964	Average for metal trades.	. 839	. 794
Elevator constructors	1.115	1.050	Millwork trades.		_
Elevator constructors. Elevator constructors' helpers.	. 806	. 769		02=	005
Engineers, portable and noist-			Carpenters	1,030	. 865
ing Glaziers Hod carriers	1.141	1.033	Glaziers Painters: Hardwood finishers.	1.068	1.030
Hod carriers	1.041	.983			
Inside wiremen.	1.079	1.042	Average for millwork	0.50	000
Fixture hangers	1.065	.996	trades	. 956	. 896
Lathers:	1 # #00	1.0.000	Printing and publishing: Book and job.		
Piece work	1 7.720 1, 188	16,920 1,076			
Marble setters	1.188	1.050	Bindery women	. 507	. 485
Marble setters. Marble setters' helpers. Mosaic and terrazzo workers	. 873	. 808	Bookbinders	.907	. 855
Mosaic and terrazzo workers	. 978	. 955	Compositors Electrotypers:	1.024	1.001
Painters	1.108	1.009	Battery men and builders.	.818	. 821
FrescoSign	1.125 1.330	1. 074 1. 231	Finishers and molders	1, 193	1, 121
Plasterers	1.306	1.173	Machine operators:	0 470	0 440
Plasterers' laborers	. 872	.792	Piece work	2.150 1.062	2 . 146 1. 042
Plumbers and gas fitters	1.151	1,043	Machine tenders	1,088	1.042
Plumbers and gas fitters. Plumbers' laborers Sheet-metal workers.	. 879	.841	Machine tenders	1.028	1.011
Ship carpenters	1.065	. 833	Photo-engravers Press assistants and feeders	1.043	1.033
Ship carpenters Slate and tile roofers	1. 224	1.098	Press assistants and feeders	.781	. 698
Steam fitters. Steam fitters' helpers. Stone masons.	1,052	1.004	Pressmen: Cylinder	1.052	. 975
Steam fitters' helpers	1. 297	.707	Platen	.859	. 825
	1.109	1.097 1.036			
Finishers	1,086	1.046	Average for printing and		
Finishers. Finishers' helpers Tile layers. Tile layers'	. 838-	. 831	publishing, book and job	. 926	. 892
Tile layers	1.140	1.043		. 020	.002
The tayers herpers	.798	. 780	Printing and publishing: Newspaper.		
Average for building	+ 400	000	Compositors:		
trades	1.068	. 966	Day work	1.013	1.004
Chauffeurs and teamsters and			Night work Machine operators, day work:	1.151	1. 138
Chauffeurs.	. 574	255	Piece work.	2.139	2.134
Teamsters and drivers	. 590	. 555	Time work	1.031	1, 017
	.000		Time work Machine operators, night work:		21.024
Average for chauffeurs			Fiece Work	2.160	2.151
and teamsters and	200	227	Time work	1.130	1.121
drivers	. 583	, 557	Day work	1.064	1.060
Freight handlers	.722	. 651	Day work	1.179	1.175
Granite and stone trades.			Machinist operators:		
	1,000	* 000	Day work	1.007	. 999
Granite cutters	1. 089 1. 151	1.068 1.055	Photo-engravers:	1.040	1. 104
	1.101	1,000	Day work	1,085	1,087
Average for granite and			Day work	1. 289	1, 278
stone trades	1.119	1.062	Pressmen, web presses:		
Laundry workers	. 414	417	Day work	. 871	. 861
Linemen	. 898	.417	Night work	. 987	. 976
Metal trades.	.000		Day work	. 922	. 906
			Night work	1.082	1.046
Blacksmiths, manufacturing	007	0.574	A		
and jobbing shops	. 997	.971	Average for printing and	1.047	1.036
facturing and jobbing shops.	. 853	. 838	publishing, newspaper	1.047	1. 030
	.000	1000	Grand average for all		
Boiler makers, manufacturing and jobbing shops	. 812	.775	trades herein covered	. 952	. 873

¹ Per 1,000 laths.

[1328]

² Rate per 1,000 ems.

A total of 5,011 wage quotations were tabulated for 1923, for which, in 119 instances, no comparable data were obtained for 1922, either because there was no effective union scale in 1922 or because the unions were not then organized.

Of the 4,892 wage quotations for 1923 for which there are comparable data for 1922, 2,667 had no change during the year and

2,225 had changes in rates or hours or both of these items.

A table is given summarizing the 2,225 changes as they affected each of the three phases of the scale—wages per hour, earnings per week, and hours per week. With 2,032 instances of increases in wages per hour as against only 173 decreases out of a total of 5,011 wage quotations, the increase of wage rates in 1923 becomes significant.

Table 2.—NUMBER OF UNION SCALE QUOTATIONS FOR 1923, NUMBER OF SUCH SCALES COMPARABLE WITH 1922, AND NUMBER IN WHICH CHANGES OCCURRED IN WAGE RATES PER HOUR, EARNINGS PER WEEK, AND HOURS PER WEEK.

	Union se	ale quotati	ons, 1923.	Rate	of wages pe	r hour.
Industry or occupation.	Number.	Number compar- able with 1922.	Number having changes from 1922.	Increase.	Decrease.	No change.
Bakery trades Building trades Chauffeurs and teamsters and drivers Freight handlers Granite and stone trades Laundry workers Linemen Metal trades Millwork	274 1,538 493 50 115 54 42 425 67	271 1,513 464 50 114 54 42 409 66	104 953 222 29 39 18 215 30	93 929 219 27 34 18 185 29	11 18 3 2	5
Printing and publishing: Book and job. Newspaper. Street railways ¹	845 904 204	836 890 183	272 250 93	244 217 37	28 33. 56	
Total	5,011	4, 892	2, 225	2,032	173	20
	Full time	e earnings	per week.	Ho	ours per we	ek.
	Increase.	Decrease.	No change.	Increase.	Decrease.	No change.
Bakery trades. Building trades. Chauffeurs and teamsters and drivers. Freight handlers. Granite and stone trades	92 930 214 27 37	9 22 3 2 2	3 1 5	2 14 7	3 13 15 1 2	99 926 200 28 31
Laundry workers. Linemen. Metal trades. Millwork. Printing and publishing: Book and job.	17 189 28	26 2	1	15	1 15 2	17 185 28
Book and job Newspaper Street railways ¹	215 218	37 29	20 3	6 6	38 25	228 219
Total	1,967	132	33	56	115	1,961

¹ The hours per week and earnings per week were not reported in the 93 cases where changes in the wages per hour were reported for street railways.

Owing to the many variations of hours of work and to the shifting of trips, the hours per week and rates per week of motormen and conductors are omitted from the report.

[1329]

Reduced to percentages of the total changes in scales, 91.3 per cent of the changes resulted in increases and 7.8 per cent in decreases in wages per hour; 88.4 per cent made increases and 5.9 per cent decreases in earnings per week; and 2.5 per cent made increases and 5.2 per cent decreases in hours per week.

The next table shows for each trade, and for each year for which data are available, the per cent of increase or decrease in full-time rates of wages per week in 1923 as compared with each of the last 16

preceding years in all cities covered, taken collectively.

Table 3.—PER CENT OF INCREASE IN FULL-TIME RATES OF WAGES PER WEEK IN 1923, AS COMPARED WITH EACH OF THE LAST 16 YEARS PRECEDING.

Occupation.	Per	cen	t of i	ncre	ase in	n ful		e rat			es pe	er we	eek ir	1 192	3 as o	com-
	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922
Bakery trades.																
Bakers	186	179	169	164	156	151	143	139	137	131	113	79	43	4	11	3
Building trades.																
Asbestos workers. Bricklayers. Sewer, tunnel, and caisson Building laborers. Carpenters. Millwrights. Parquetry-floor layers. Wharf and bridge. Cement finishers. Cement finishers. Composition roofers. Composition roofers' helpers. Elevator constructors' helpers. Elevator constructors' helpers. Engineers, portable and hoisting. Glaziers. Hod carriers. Inside wiremen Fixture hangers. Lathers. Marble setters' helpers. Marble setters' Mosaic and terrazzo workers. Painters:	115 120 (2) (2) (2) 98 153 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	(2) 95 (2) 114 118 (2) (2) (2) (101 151 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	(2) 94 (2) 114 116 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	(2) 94 (2) 112 111 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	(2) 95 (2) 112 109 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	(2) 92 60 109 105 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	(2) 89 60 101 102 (2) 108 84 122 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) 114 91 97 96 76 116 (2)	(2) 85 60 100 99 (2) 96 (2) 83 121 106 82 81 101 74 (2) 112 86 88 89 275 115 (2)	82 84 60 101 96 82 95 (2) 81 120 101 82 80 100 74 (2) 111 83 88 91 73 115 (2)	79 83 60 93 91 79 93 (2) 81 119 99 70 76 69 67 3 (2) 104 81 81 85 86 73 115 78	71 77 54 80 76 73 73 73 110 90 66 87 66 (2) 84 71 73 80 73 102 69	53 65 44 62 62 68 57 81 68 54 56 60 57 67 60 57 64 94 62	27 49 41 38 41 34 47 47 47 47 40 35 36 50 35 35 42 42 50 51	$\begin{array}{c} 1\ 2\\ 9\\ 5\\ 1\ 4\\ 5\\ 6\\ 6\\ 1\\ 1\ 9\\ 4\\ 1\ 1\\ 7\\ 1\ 3\\ 5\\ 4\\ 4\\ 1\ 7\\ 3\\ 6\\ 6\\ 6\\ 12\\ (^3)\\ 2\\ \end{array}$	1 3 11 4 4 4 4 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	(3)
Building Fresco Sign Plasterers, Plasterers' laborers. Plumbers and gas fitters. Plumbers' laborers Sheet-metal workers Ship carpenters Slate and tile roofers Steam fitters, Steam fitters' helpers. Stonemasons. Structural-iron workers Finishers. Finishers. File layers, File layers' helpers Chauffeurs and teamsters and drivers.	(2) (2) 97 128 101 (2) 126 (2) (2) 95 178	132 (2) (9) 99 119 99 (2) 121 (2) (2) 93 175 119 94 (2) (2) (2) (2)	131 (2) (2) 98 117 96 (2) 119 (2) (2) (2) 89 173 118 92 (2) (2) (2) (2)	124 (2) (2) 96 116 95 (2) 113 (2) (2) (2) 84 155 120 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	121 (2) 95 116 88 (2) 107 (2) (2) 78 149 119 83 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	118 94 (2) 92 114 88 (2) 105 (2) (2) (2) (2) (3) (4) 117 81 78 106 78 121	109 92 103 90 109 82 (2) 97 (2) (2) 71 136 110 76 75 103 71 117	103 84 103 89 105 80 (2) 90 (2) 109 70 132 104 71 101 70 115	102 84 103 89 104 79 (2) 88 (2) 101 66 125 102 73 71 101 69 111	86 67 99 84 101 78 (2) 85 67 96 63 123 100 71 69 101 68 104	80 65 91 80 88 73 (2) 78 54 88 57 110 92 62 61 87 61 101	64 59 75 71 63 57 71 53 25 71 45 84 75 41 44 68 56 95	40 36 46 48 44 39 42 39 14 51 29 53 58 25 28 40 44 62	7 1 8 14 1 1 8 5 4 1 1 7 1 2 6 6 1 3 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	3 (8) 5 8 13 22 4 (8) 3 6 6 3 9 10 13 15 (8) 8 13	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
Chauffeurs	(2) (2)	(2) (2)	(2) (2)	(2) (2)	(2) (2)	(2) (2)	73 102	72 98	72 97	67 91	59 79	41 58	19 28	(8)	1 1 1	
Freight handlers.														-		
Freight handlers	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	78	73	73	53	50	28	20	(3)	12	1

TABLE 3.—PER CENT OF INCREASE IN FULL-TIME RATES OF WAGES PER WEEK IN 1923, AS COMPARED WITH EACH OF THE LAST 16 YEARS PRECEDING—Concluded.

Per cent of increase in full-time rates of wages per week in 1923 as compared with—													com-		
1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922
129 103	128 103	125 103	123 102	122 102	120 101	111 96	111 89	110 87	101 86	94 78	63 68	38 41	12 8	2 5	3
(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	66	56 -	28	4	(3)	1]
(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(3)	2	13	
103 166 98 117 (2) 127 104 (2) (2) 117 119	98 144 97 117 (2) 127 101 (2) (2) 117 115	97 141 95 117 (²) 129 101 (²) (²) 117 111	91 130 87 112 (2) 118 93 (2) (2) 108 109	92 131 76 105 (2) 108 91 (2) (2) 105 106	89 129 75 92 (2) 106 91 (2) (2) 104 104	85 124 73 90 (2) 95 89 91 126 94 97	82 122 73 89 (2) 92 86 91 125 92 97	81 116 73 89 (2) 91 86 91 124 92 98	76 109 68 81 (2) 81 68 78 114 81 85	65 89 57 71 59 60 54 63 94 61 66	21 33 19 27 31 26 19 30 57 29 27	14 23 9 14 10 17 9 20 37 18	1 4 2 1 1 3 1 5 1 8 1 3 1 5 1 7 1 17	$\begin{array}{c} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 \\ 1 & 7 \\ 1 & 2 \\ (3) & 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 6 & 7 \\ 1 & 1 & 7 \end{array}$	14 4 6 6 13 2 2
(2) (2) (2)	(2) (2) (2)	(2) (2) (2)	(2) (2) (2)	(2) (2) (2)	(2)	(2)	117 (2) 121	115 (2) 113	109 125 90	99 111 88	80 96 78	55 46 47	8 12 7	1 1 7 3	8
(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	131	128	112	90	47	6	11	,
	135	134	125	119			103	103	99	95	76	44	10	(8)	
155	154	153	142	129	125	119	108	103	98	90	75	50	11	1 19	
140		104	138	97									18	11	
(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	87	84	84	83	80	78	62	32	5	1	
(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	85	70	61	38	8	2	
				1				1	135		91		8	7	1
127									93		71 82		9	(3)	(8)
												10			
100								77	76 78	72	64	37	12	3 5	
						1	10								
91	89	89	85	84	82	79	78	77	76	72	66	36	10	5	
(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	82	82	81	80	80	77	68	32	6	2	(3)
	(2)	1	1		10.5				73	71	63	29	5	2	(3
(2)	(2)	(2) (2)	(2) (2)	(2)	(2) (2)	64 57	64 57	64 57	61 57	58 53	54 46	47	33	12	1
		1			1										1
(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	84	77	65	38	24	6	(8)
109	106	103	95	93	90	86	85	84	82	78	64	36	9	1	1
90	95	94		92					100		68	34	10	1	(3)
	94 92	92 91	88	87 89	85 86	74	73	72	70	66	60	42	17 18	3	3
	1907 129 103 (2) (2) 103 166 98 117 (2) (2) (1) 117 119 (2) (2) (2) (2) 124 135 155 140 (2) (2) (2) (2) 174 127 139 100 94 101 91 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	1907 1908 129 128 103 103 (2) (2) (2) (3) 98 166 144 98 97 117 117 (2) (2) (2) (2) 117 117 (2) (2) (2) (2) 117 117 (2) (2) (2) (3) (2) (4) (2) 117 117 (5) (2) (2) (7) (2) (1) (2) (2) (1) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (3) (2) (4) (2) (2) (5) (6) (6) (7) (8) (8) (7) (8) (8) (8) (8) (8) (8) (8) (8) (8) (8	1907 1908 1909 129 128 125 103 103 103 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	1907 1908 1909 1910 129 128 125 123 103 103 102 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	1907 1908 1909 1910 1911	1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 129 128 125 123 122 120 103 103 103 102 102 101 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 129 128 125 123 122 120 111 103 103 103 102 102 101 96 103 103 103 102 102 101 96 104 104 104 101 101 93 91 92 93 97 117 117 117 117 105 92 90 90 90 90 90 90 90	1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 129 128 125 123 122 120 111 111 103 103 103 102 102 101 96 89 (2)	1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915	1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916	1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917	1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1918 103 103 103 102 102 101 96 89 87 86 78 68 88 87 86 78 68 88 8	1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1913 103 103 103 102 102 101 96 89 87 86 78 68 41 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1920	1907 1908 1909 1910 1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1920 1921

1 Lower.

2 No data.

8 No change.

71915°—23——8

[1331]

In the table of index numbers presented below are combined the data for all localities and for all occupations except street railway motormen and conductors. The data of preceding reports have been used so as to produce a series of index numbers from 1907 to 1923. In this table the year 1913 is taken as the base or 100 per cent.

TABLE 4.—INDEX NUMBERS OF UNION WAGE RATES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN THE UNITED STATES AS OF MAY EACH YEAR, 1907 TO 1923.

[1913=100.]

Year.	Rates of wages per hour.	Full-time hours per week.	Rates of wages per week, full time.
1907	90	103	92
1908	91	102	93
1909	92	102	93
1910	. 94	101	95
1911	96	101	96
1912	98	100	98
1913	100	100	100
1914	102	100	102
1915	103	99	102
1916	107	99	106
1917	114	98	112
1918	133	97	130
1919	155 199	95 94	148
1920	205	94	189 193
1922	193	94	183
1923	211	94	199

The organized trades herein covered have nearly reached the 8-hour day; 89 per cent of all the union members reported had a week of 48 hours or less. In the building trades, 97 per cent of the membership also have the Saturday half-holiday with a week of 44 hours or less; and in all trades combined 68 per cent of the membership had a week of 44 hours or less. Similar figures are given for each trade on pages 87 and 88 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Wage Scales in the Building Trades, November 1, 1923.

HE following table of wage scales in the building trades as of November 1, 1923, compiled by the National Association of Builders' Exchanges appeared in the American Contractor of November 10, 1923. Where two figures are shown, they are the minimum and maximum rates. All the rates are hourly rates, except where otherwise noted:

WAGE SCALES IN THE BUILDING TRADES, AS OF NOVEMBER 1, 1923.

City.	Car- penters.	Ce- ment finish- ers.	Electri- cians.	Hod car- riers.	Labor- ers.	Lath- ers.	Paint- ers.	Plas- terers.	Plas- terers' help- ers.
Akron, Ohio	\$0.70 .90	\$0.70	\$0.75	\$0.60	\$0.40	\$1.00	\$0.75	\$1.25	\$0.60
Atlanta, Ga	.70	.80	1.00 .50	.75	. 55	1, 25	.90	\$1.25 1 1.25	.75
Baltimore, Md		1. 25	1.00	. 45	.30	.90	.75		. 45
Boston, Mass	. 90 1. 10 . 70	1. 25 1. 10	1.00 1.10	- 87½ - 70	. 40	1.25 $1.17\frac{1}{2}$. 80 1. 10	1.50 1.25	.95
	1.00	.60	1.00	.50	. 40	1. 25	.75 .87½	1.50	(2)
Chicago, Ill. Cincinnati, Ohio Cleveland, Ohio	1. 15 1. 10 1. 25	$ \begin{array}{c c} 1.10 \\ 1.02\frac{1}{2} \\ 1.25 \end{array} $	1. 25 1. 10 1. 25	.87½ .87½	$.82\frac{1}{2}$.50 $.87\frac{1}{2}$	$ \begin{array}{c c} 1.12\frac{1}{2} \\ 1.10 \\ 1.25 \end{array} $	1, 02½ 1, 20	1. 25 1. 25 1. 25	. 88 . 87 . 87
Columbia, S. C	.40	.90	. 90 1. 00	.20	. 15	3 3. 50	.50	1.00	. 25
Columbus, Ohio	1.00	.80	.70 .80	.80	. 35 . 40 . 40	1.10	. 65 . 85	1. 25 1. 37½	.80
	1.00	1.00	1.15	. 85	. 50	1. 171	1.00	1. 371	.60
Des Moines, Iowa Detroit, Mich	1.00	1. 12½ .70 .85	1.00	.87½	.65	1. 25	1.00	1.37½ 4 1.50	.60
Dubuque, Iowa	.90	.50	1. 121	.90 .70	. 60 . 45	1. 25 . 90	.75 .85 .75	*******	1.00
Duluth, Minn	. 92½	.60	1.00	.75 .45	. 55	1.00	.90	1.37½	.75 .55
Erie, Pa	. 871	. 87½ 1. 10	.87½ .80	.60	. 45 . 45	.87½	.871	1. 121	.65
Fitchburg, Mass	.95	1. 12½	.85 1.00	. 55	.50	1, 25	.85	1. 25 1. 25	. 55
Grand Forks, N. Dak	.80	.60	1.00	45	.40	1.00	.80	1.00	.50
Grand Rapids, Mich	. 85		. 80		. 45				.65
Greensboro, N. C	1.00 .65	1.00 .80	.90	.50	. 55	1. 25	. 80 . 65	1.25	.75
Hamilton, Ohio	.70	1.00	• .75	. 50	.40	5 . 06 3 6. 00	.70	1.00 610.00	. 40
Houston, Tex.7	1,00	. 85	1.00	. 85	. 40 8. 30		1.00		. 85
Indianapolis, Ind		9.00	10.00	6.00 .72½	8.35 .35	11.00	8.00	13.00	6.00
Johnstown, Pa	. 97½ . 65	. 95 . 70	1.10	. 75	. 45	1. 02½	$.97\frac{1}{2}$ $.76\frac{1}{2}$	1.371	.75
Kansas City, Mo Lima, Ohio	$1.12\frac{1}{2}$ 1.60	$\begin{array}{c} .90 \\ 1.12\frac{1}{2} \\ .70 \end{array}$	$1.00 \\ 1.121$.75 .90	.50 .70 .35	1. 00 1. 20	. 80 1. 00 . 75	1. 25 1. 37½ . 90	. 75 . 90 . 50
Los Angeles, Calif.7	. 80 7. 00	.80	.75	. 60	. 40	.90	.80	1.00	.75
Louisville, Ky	8, 00	8.00	7, 00 8, 00	9.00	4.00	10.00	7.00	12.00	
	.90	. 60 1. 00	.75 .87½	1.00	. 35	6 7. 90	.50 .87½	1.50	1.00
Memphis, Tenn	.60	.70 1.00	. 80° . 87½	. 75 . 87½	. 25	1.00 1.25	.871	1.371	.75
Milwaukee, Wis	95	.65 .75	1.00	80	1,50	1. 121	.85	1. 25	
Minneapolis, Minn	.871	.871	.871	.713	. 45		.871		
Nashville, Tenn			.75		.55	. 87½ . 87½	. 625	1. 12½ 1. 25	
New Haven, Conn	, 65	.60		. 40	. 40 . 50	1. 00 7 8. 00	.75	1,50	. 44
New York City, N. Y	.90		. 85	. 60	.60 .87½	7 9. 00	. 80	1. 121	
Norfolk, Va	$1.12\frac{1}{2}$ $.65$	1.12½ .50	1.25 .65	1.00 .50	. 93 3 4 . 30	1, 12½	1. 12½ . 65	1.50	1.06
	.75	. 65	.75	. 60	. 35	. 75	.75	. 87½ 1. 00	.50
Oklahoma City, Okla.7 Omaha, Nebr	8.00	8,00	7.00	5.00	3.50	10.00	8,00	12,00	5.00
Philadelphia, Pa	1.00	1, 25	1.12^{1}_{2} 1.00	.75 .70	.50	$1.12\frac{1}{2}$ 1.25	1.00	1. 25 1. 25 1. 75	.70
Phoenix, Ariz.	$\frac{1.121}{7.00}$	1.00	1. 121	1,00	2.50	1. 37½	.90	1.75	1.00
Pittsburgh, Pa	8. 00 1. 20	7.00 $1.12\frac{1}{2}$	7.00 1.25	5.00 1.00	3. 00 . 70	7.00 1.62½	7.00 1.25	10.00 1.62½	6.00 7.00 1.00
Portland, Me	.90	1.00	. 90	. 65	.50	3 4. 00		1. 12½	. 80
Reading, Pa		00	+00	. 00	. 45		. 00	1.122	+00

¹ And up. ² Sliding scale. ⁸ Per M.

⁴ Plus bonus. ⁵ Per yard. ⁶ Per day.

⁷8-hour day; rate per day, ⁸ Per hour.

WAGE SCALES IN THE BUILDING TRADES, AS OF NOVEMBER 1, 1923—Continued.

City.	Car- penters.	Ce- ment finish- ers.	Electricians.	Hod car- riers	Dan		Lath ers.		Paint- ers.	Plas- terers.	Plas- terers' help- ers.
Redfield, S. Dak	\$0.65 .70	\$0.80	\$1.00	\$0.60	\$0.3	35	\$0.75		0.75	\$1.00	\$0.60
Richmond, Ind	. 85	1. 15		.70		25	1.00		.75	1. 25	.70
Richmond, Va	.80	.75	.75 .75 .87½	.45		25	.75		.60 .75	1. 00 1. 25	
Rochester, N. Y	1.00	1.25	1.08	. 65	(35	1.00		1.00	1. 25	
Saginaw, Mich	.80	.70	.80			15	.87	i	.70	1. 12½	.35
San Francisco, Calif.9	1.00	1.061	1.00	.81		561 521 522	1.00		1.00	1. 25	87
Savannah, Ga	.60	.75	1.00	.25		25	.75		.75	1.00	. 25
Sharon, Pa	1.00		1.00			35 75	1.00		1.00	1. 25	
Sioux City, Iowa				.50	1 7	15			. 90	1. 25	. 65
Shreveport, La	. 90 1. 00	. 90 1. 25	1.00 $1.12\frac{1}{2}$.50		50	1. 25 1. 25		1.00 1.00	1. 25	.75
	.75 .87½	.65	.75 .87½	.55		10	.87	1 2	.75 .87½	1.00	.60
St. Louis, Mo St. Paul, Minn	1. 25	1. 25	1. 25	1. 25		67½ 45	1. 25		1.25	1.75	1, 25
St. Petersburg, Fla	.871	6 5. 00	.87½	.71	63.	55 00	3 4. 50)	. 87½	$\begin{array}{c c} 1.12\frac{1}{2} \\ 1.12\frac{1}{2} \end{array}$.71
Tueson, Ariz.7	1.00 7.20	6 9. 00	6 8. 00 8. 00	6 4, 00	10 2.	00	3 5. 50 3 7. 00)	.90 7.00	1. 25 8. 00	(9)
Washington, D. C	9.00	8.00	9.00	5.00		35			8.00	10.00	50
	1. 12½ .75	$1.12\frac{1}{2}$ 1.00	1. 12½ .60	.75		50	1.37		$1.12\frac{1}{2}$	1. 25	.75
Webster City, Iowa Youngstown, Ohio	1.15	1.00	1.00	.80		50	1. 25		1. 121	1. 25	
City.	Brick layers.	vato con- structo	fitte	ers.	ing engi- neers.		rble ters.	Mas		mental iron workers.	Pipe coverers
Akron, Ohio	\$1. 25	\$1.00	\$0.	85 00	\$0.65 .80		.00	\$1.	95	\$0.70 .80	
Atlanta, Ga	1.00			75 90							\$0.75 .90
Baltimore, Md	1. 25	1.00	6 1.	00	1.121	1	. 25	1.	00 25	1.00 1.10	- 90
Boston, Mass. Buffalo, N. Y. Chicago, Ill.	1. 25 1. 25	1.13	5 1.	10 00	1.10	1	.10	1.	25 25	1.10 .75	1. 10 1. 00
	1. 25	1. 2		15	1.00 1.25	1	. 25			1. 25	
Cincinnati, Ohio	1. 25	1.10	0 1.	10	1.10	69	$.12\frac{1}{2}$	6 9.	12	1.10	1.02
Columbia, S. C	1.40	1.3			1. 25					$1.37\frac{1}{2}$	1. 12
Columbus, Ohio	1.00	99	0 1.	50 00	. 50	1	.00	1.	$\begin{vmatrix} 00 \\ 12\frac{1}{2} \end{vmatrix}$.	1.00	1. 25 . 93
Dayton, Ohio	1. 35	1.00		00	1.10		. 12½		.00	1.15	.75
Des Moines, Iowa Detroit, Mich	1. 25	1.0	0 1.	121	1.00	1	.00	1.	25	1,00 .75	1.12
	1.50	1. 3		00	. 95		. 12½		50	1.00	1.00
Dubuque, Iowa			1.	00	. 60		. 25		25		
Dubuque, Iowa	1. 25					1	. 10		OPI	071	. 87
Duluth, Minn	1.12	2 7	5 67	87½ 75	. 87½	1	.00	1	871	. 87½	. 75
Duluth, Minn Erie, Pa	1, 12	.79	5 5 7.	87½ 75	. 87½ 1.00	1	.00	1.	10	1.00	.75
Dubuque, Iowa Duluth, Minn. Erie, Pa. Fitchburg, Mass. Grand Forks, N. Dak	1. 12 1. 25 1. 25	7.	5 6 7.	87½ 75	1.00	1	.00	1.	00 10 25		.75
Duluth, Minn	1. 12 1. 25 1. 25 1. 25	. 7	5		1.00 .50 .60	1	.00	1. 1. 1.	00 10 25	1.00	, 80
Duluth, Minn Erie, Pa Fitchburg, Mass Grand Forks, N. Dak	1. 12 1. 25 1. 25	. 9	5	87½ 75 70	1.00	1	.00	1. 1. 1.	00 10 25	1.00	. 87 . 75 . 80

Per M.
 Per day.
 American or open-shop plan.

¹⁰ Minimum.

WAGE SCALES IN THE BUILDING TRADES. AS OF NOVEMBER 1, 1923—Continued.

City.	Brick layers.	Ele- vator con- structors.	Gas fitters.	Hoist- ing engi- neers.	Marble setters.	Masons.	Orna- mental iron workers.	Pipe coverers.
Indianapolis, Ind	\$1.35	\$1.25	\$1.221	\$1.15 1.25	\$1, 121	\$1.35	\$1.25	\$0,90
Johnstown, Pa	1. 25			. 50		. 80	.75	
Kansas City, Mo		1.00	. 85	$1.12\frac{1}{2}$	1.00	.90	. 85	.75
Lima, OhioLos Angeles, Calif. ⁷	$1.37\frac{1}{2}$ 1.25	1. 25	1. 25 . 85	1. 25 . 70 7. 00	$\frac{1.12\frac{1}{2}}{1.00}$	$1.12\frac{1}{2}$ 1.25	1, 15 1, 00	1.00 .85
	10.00 1.50	8.00	8.00 1.25	8.00	8.00	10.00	7.00	8.00 1.00
Louisville, Ky Memphis, Tenn	1.50	1.00		1.00	1. 25	1, 37½	.75 1.00	1.00
Milwaukee, Wis	1. 25	1. 124	.90	1.00	1.061	1.25		. 60
Minneapolis, Minn Nashville, Tenn	1.121	.75	. 90	. 871	1. 10	. 87½	$1.00 \\ .87\frac{1}{2}$. 85
New Haven, Conn	1.25 $1.12\frac{1}{2}$	1.00 1.00	. 50	. 65 . 90	1.25 $1.12\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{.85}{1.12\frac{1}{2}}$.75 1.061	, 60
New York City	1.50	1. 121	1. 25	1.25 1.50	1, 311	1.50	1. 121	1, 12
Norfolk, Va	1. 121	.92½ 7.00	. 57½			1. 121	. 75° . 85	
Oklahoma City, Okla.7 Omaha, Nebr	12.00 1.25	7.00 1.00	8.00 $1.12\frac{1}{2}$	$8.00 \\ 1.12\frac{1}{2}$	8.50 $1.12\frac{1}{2}$	1. 121	8.00 $1.12\frac{1}{2}$	8.00 1.00
Philadelphia, Pa	1.50	1.19	1.00	11 45.00	1.25 $1.37\frac{1}{2}$	1. 25	.90	.90
Phoenix, Ariz. ⁷	10.00 1.40	8.00 $1.16\frac{1}{8}$	5.50 $1.15\frac{5}{8}$	6.00 $1.12\frac{1}{2}$	8.00 1.12½	10.00 1.25	8.00 1.25	5.00 1.12
Portland, Me	$1.12\frac{1}{2}$ 1.25	1.00	. 75 1. 00	1.00 1.25	1.00° 1.10°	$1.12\frac{1}{2}$ 1.00	.90	1,00
Reading, Pa. Redfield, S. Dak. Richmond, Ind.	$\frac{1.12\frac{1}{2}}{1.25}$					1. 12½		
Richmond, Va	1. 40		.75	.75	. 85			
Rochester, N. Y	1. 25 1. 25	1.00	. 80 1. 05	. 90 1. 10	1.00 $1.12\frac{1}{2}$	1.25 1.25	1.00 $1.06\frac{1}{4}$. 80 1. 00
Saginaw, Mich San Francisco, Calit.9	1. 121		.90	.90		$1.12\frac{1}{2}$. 90	1,00
Savannah, Ga	1. 25 1. 00	1.00	$1.12\frac{1}{2}$ 1.00	$\frac{1.121}{1.00}$	1.00 1.00	1.06¼ 1.00	. 87½	. 87
Sharon, Pa	1. 25 1. 25				1.00	1.25	1 00	
Sioux Ćity, Iowa Shreveport, La			1.00	1.00		1. 25	1.00	.75
St. Joseph, Mo St. Louis, Mo	1. 50 1. 25	1. 12½	1. 25 1. 25	1.00	1, 25 1, 00	1.50 1.00	1. 12½	. 65
	1.75 1.12½	1. 20 1. 05	1.00 .87½	1. 37½ 1. 37½ . 87½	1.00 $1.12\frac{1}{2}$	1.50 .87½	$1.06\frac{1}{4}$ $.87\frac{1}{2}$	1, 25 . 85
St. Paul, MinnSt. Petersburg, Fla	6 9. 00 6 10. 00		1. 25					
Tucson, Ariz.7	10.00					6.50		
Washington, D. C	1.25	1. 25	1.061	1.25	1. 121	8. 50 1. 25	1. 25	.90
Webster City, Iowa Youngstown, Ohio	$1.37\frac{1}{2}$ 1.25		1.00	.75	1. 25	1. 12½ 1. 25	1. 25	1. 25
			Sheet		Steam-		Struc-	
City.	Plumb- ers.	Roofers.	metal workers.	Steam- fitters.	fitters' helpers.	Stone- cutters.	tural iron workers.	Tile setters.
Alzen Ohio	\$0.85	\$0.75	80.00	90.05				
Akron, Ohio	1.00	. 85	\$0.80	\$0.85 1.00		\$1.00	\$0. S0 1. 00	\$1.12
Atlanta, Ga	. 70 1. 00	.80	.70	. 70 1. 00	\$0.35 .40	1.00	.75	1.12
Baltimore, Md Boston, Mass	1.00 1.10	$\begin{array}{c c} 1.12\frac{1}{2} \\ 1.10 \end{array}$. 90 1. 10	1.00 1.10	.75	$1.12\frac{1}{2}$ 1.10	. 75 1. 25 1. 10	1. 12 1. 12
Buffalo, N. Y	1.00	. 40	1,00	1.00	(2)		1.00	. 85
Chicago, Ill		1.00 1.10				1.00	1. 12½	1.00
Cincinnati	1. 15	1. 15 . 85	1.15	1. 25		1, 25	1. 25	1:30
Cleveland, Ohio	1.10	1. 10 1. 10	. 95	1.10	. 66	1. 25	1, 10	1.12
,,	1.311	1, 371	1.25	1.25	. 65	1. 25	1. 371	1, 25

Sliding scale.
 Per day.
 American or open-shop plan.

¹¹ Per week.

WAGE SCALES IN THE BUILDING TRADES, AS OF NOVEMBER 1, 1923—Concluded.

City.	Plumb- ers.	Roofers.	Sheet metal workers.	Steam- fitters.	Steam- fitters helpers.	Stone- cutters.	Struc- tural iron workers.	Tile setters.
Columbia, S. C	\$1.25	\$0.80	\$0.80	\$1.25	20.50		20.00	21 00
Columbus, Ohio		1.00	1.00		\$0.50	\$1.00	\$0.90	\$1.00
Dayton, Ohio	1.00	.70	,80	1.00	.40 .40	1,10	.90	1.00
Des Moines, Iowa Detroit, Mich	1.15 1.25 1.00	.80 .85 .65	1.10 1.00	1.15 1.25 1.00	. 50 . 65 10. 60	1.00 .90	1.15 1.00 12 1.00	1.12
Dubuque, Iowa	1.25	.80	.90 .83	1. 12½	.35	$1.12\frac{1}{2}$		1.12
	1.00	. 85	.871	1.00	. 60	1.00		1.25
Duluth, Minn	. 871	. 821	.871	.871	.50 .75	.871	.871	1.10
Erie, Pa	1.00	.70° .80	.90	.80	.50	1.00° 1.10	1,00	1.12
Fitchburg, Mass Grand Forks, N. Dak Grand Rapids, Mich	1.00	1.00		.95	.55	1.00 .75		1.06
	.90	.65	.90	.90	.60	1,00	$1.12\frac{1}{2}$	1.15
Greensboro, N. C	1.00	. 90	. 95 . 75	1.00	.40	1.00	1.00	1.00
Houston, Tex.7	1.00	. 90 8. 00	9. 00	1.00			1, 25	1.00
Indianapolis, Ind	11.00	9. 00 . 45	10.00	11.00	5.00	8,00	8, 50	10.00
	1. 221	.75	. 971	1. 221	.70	1.00	1.25	1.12
Johnstown, Pa	1.00	.80	1.00	. 85 1. 00		.90	. 80 1. 00	1.00
Kansas City, Mo Lima, Ohio	1, 25 , 85	. 85	1.00	1. 25 . 85	.75	1.00 1.25	1.15 1.00	1.12
Los Angeles, Calif.7	9.00 1.25	7.00	.65 7.00 .80	. 85 8. 00 1. 06 ¹ / ₄	5.00	7.00	7.00 1.25	8.00
Lima, Ohio.' Los Angeles, Calif.7 Louisville, Ky Memphis, Tenn			. 87½				.75	
Milwaukee, Wis	1. 17½	.40	1.00 .75	1.25	.62½	1.25	1.00	1, 20
	$1.12\frac{1}{2}$ $87\frac{1}{2}$	$.87\frac{1}{2}$ $.82\frac{1}{2}$.80 .87½	1,06½ .87½	• 62½	1.061	1.00 .87½	1, 12
Minneapolis, Minn Nashville, Tenn	1.00 1.12½	.65	.75	1.00		4 00	.60	
New Haven, Conn	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.50	1.00	1.061	. 87 1. 12
New Haven, Conn New York City Norfolk, Va	1.25	$1.12\frac{1}{2}$ $.50$	1. 12½ . 75	1. 12½	. 87½	1.121	1. 25 . 75 . 85	1.12
	1.00 8.00	6.00	.75° .87½ 8.00°	1.00 9.00		1.00	. 85 8. 00	1.00 8.50
Oklahoma City, Okla. ⁷ Omaha, Nebr Philadelphia, Pa	1. 121	1.00	.90	1, 121	.75 .50	1.00	1.121	1.00
Phoenix, Ariz. ⁷ Pittsburgh, Pa	1.00 7.00	.70 7.00	.90 6.00	1.00 8.00	. 50 . 55 3. 50	$1.12\frac{1}{2}$ 10.00	$ \begin{array}{c c} 1.10 \\ 1.121 \\ 7.00 \end{array} $	1. 25 9. 00
	1.155	1.00 1.25	1.20	1. 25	.70	1, 25	1.25	1. 25
Portland, Me Reading, Pa	.90	.70	. 85 . 75	.90	.70 .55	1.00	.90	1.00
	1.00	.90	. 80	1.00	, 65	1.00	1.25	1.00
Redfield, S. Dak Richmond, Ind Richmond, Va	.90	.90	.80	.90	.60			
Richmond, Va	.75 .87½	.80	.80	.871	6 2. 00	.80	1.00 1.00	. 75 1. 00
	1.05	.90	1.00	1.05		$1.12\frac{1}{2}$	1.061	1.12
Saginaw, Mich San Francisco, Calif.9 Savannah, Ga	1.00 $1.12\frac{1}{2}$	1.00	.75 1.061	$\frac{1.00}{1.12\frac{1}{2}}$.75	1.00	.80 1.12½	1.06
Savannah, Ga	1.00 1.25 1.00	1.00 1.00	.90 1.00	1.00	.50	1.00	1.00	1.00
Shreveport, La	1. 25 1. 12½	.65	1.00	1.25 $1.12\frac{1}{2}$.65	1. 12½	1.00 1.00	. 80
	1. 25 1. 25	1.00	1.00	1. 25 1. 25	.50	1. 12½ 1. 25 1. 00	1. 121	1.37
St. Louis, Mo	1.25	.75 1.25	.90 1.25	1.25	.50 .75	1.25	1.25	1.00 1.25
St. Paul, Minn	. 87½ 1. 25	. 80	. 87½ 1. 00	1.25	. 55	1.121	. 871	1. 12 1. 25
St. Joseph, Mo. St. Louis, Mo. St. Paul, Minn St. Petersburg, Fla. Fucson, Ariz.7. Washington, D. C.	8.00	.40	7.00	8.00	(9)			
	1.25	1.15	1.061	1.061	.65	$1.12\frac{1}{2}$ 1.25	1.25	1. 12
Webster City, Iowa Youngstown, Ohio	.90 1.25	1.15	1.15	1.00	.40	1. 25 1. 25	1.00	1. 12

[1336]

Fer day.
 American or open-shop plan.
 Maximum.
 Minimum.

Wages In Porto Rico, 1921-22.

THE following wage statistics for 1921-22 are taken from the report of the commissioner of agriculture and labor of Porto Rico for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1922: a

DAILY WAGES PREVAILING ON SUGAR-CANE PLANTATIONS AND IN SUGAR MILLS OF PORTO RICO, 1921-22.1

		thern tion.		thern tion.		tern tion.		stern ion.
Occupation or process.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.	Mini- mum.	Maxi- mum.
		1		Planta	ations.			1
Lopping off Felling. Plowing. Cross plowing. Furrowing Harrowing Harrowing Harrowing Hole digging Carrying seeds. Scattering fertilizers. Weeding. Replanting Stripping of leaves Cane cutting Cane hauling Filling Water carriers Stewards. Yoke drivers Wetchwen Foremen. Herdsmen.	.60 .70 .70 .70 .35 .60 .65 .40 .50 .65 .40 .50 .65 .40 .40 .45 .45 .45 .40 .80 .80 .80 .80 .80 .80 .80 .80 .80 .8	\$0.75 .80 .80 .80 .80 .75 .88 .65 .75 1.00 1.25 .75 .60 .75 .60 .75 .60 .88 .88 .88 .88 .88 .89 .89 .89 .80 .80 .80 .80 .80 .80 .80 .80 .80 .80	\$0. 62 .62 .50 .65 (2) .50 .60 .62 .40 .75 .62 .62 (2) .35 .30 .30 .30 .30 .30 .30 .30 .30 .30 .30	\$0, 75 . 75 . 90 (2) (2) . 75 1. 25 . 87 . 50 . 65 . 65 1. 00 . 90 1. 00 1. 10 1. 15 3. 00 (2)	\$0.60 .60 .70 .70 .70 .60 .75 .60 .60 .60 .60 .60 .60 .75 .60 .60 .60 .60 .75 .60 .60 .60 .60 .60 .60 .60 .60	\$1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 .75 .80 1.00 .90 1.25 .90 1.00 .70 .80 .75 .75 .75 .75 .75 .75 .75 .100 .40 1.25 .90 .40 .40 .40 .40 .40 .40 .40 .40 .40 .4	\$0.50 .50 .50 .50 .50 .55 .55 .65 .60 .60 .50 .50 .50 .50 .50 .50 .50 .5	\$0. 7 (2) 5 55 57 99 58 (2) 7 66 58 (2) 7 69 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60 60
				Mi	lls.			
Mechanics. Electricians Stewards. Foremen. Machinists Blacksmiths Carpenters. Brick masons Stokers. Weighers. Cartmen. Switchmen Boiler tenders. Workers at boiler furnaces. Bagasse men Centrifigalers Workers at lime pits Workers at pumps Triplers. Crystallizers. Defecators. Sugar-scum workers. Workers at filters Workers at filters Workers at filters Herdsmen. Stablemen. Stablemen. Chauffeurs Workers at cranes Herdsmen. Chauffeurs Workers at molasses boilers	2.00 2.25 1.00 1.91 .75 (2) .55 .90 .90 .90 1.40 .60 .75 5.55	\$4. 80 3. 33 3. 83 1. 50 4. 50 3. 00 3. 00 3. 00 4. 16 1. 50 1. 50 1	\$1. 75 .75 .2) 3.00 (2) 1.50 3.00 .75 (2) (2) (2) .66 .75 .66 .75 1.00 .70 .88 .88 .2) (2) (2) .62	\$6. 50 3. 00 4. 16 3. 25 (2) 2. 75 3. 25 3. 25 3. 20 (2) 1. 50 (2) 1. 50 1. 35 (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2) (2)	\$2. 85 1. 00 3. 33 7. 75 1. 10 1. 75 2. 00 1. 25 2. 00 62 1. 00 62 1. 00 62 62 1. 00 62 1. 00 62 75 62 62 62 62 62 62 62 62 70 66 75 66 75	\$6. 25 2. 96 4. 16 1. 75 2. 00 3. 40 3. 30 4. 00 1. 35 3. 33 80 1. 62 2. 00 2. 00 2. 00 2. 00 2. 00 2. 00 2. 00 2. 00 1. 00 2.	\$2.50 1.25 2.63 1.37 2.00 1.10 1.00 2.00 1.10 1.00 -75 -75 (2) -75 1.50 -90 -80 -65 -75 -40 -80 -80 -80 -80 -80 -80 -80 -80 -80 -8	\$7.00 2.0 2.9 2.6 4.2 2.9 2.6 4.2 2.9 2.6 4.2 2.5 2.5 2.5 2.5 2.5 2.5 2.5 2.5 2.5 2

¹ The wages in sugar mills are "according to investigations carried out during fiscal year 1921–22."

² Not stated on the pay roll.

^a War Department, Bureau of Insular Affairs. Commissioner of Agriculture and Labor of Porto Rico.

Report [for fiscal year ending June 30, 1922]. Washington, 1923. 66 pp.

Wages in the Netherlands, 1921, 1922, and 1923, as Compared with 1914.

IN A recent issue of the Maandschrift (Sept. 29, 1923, pp. 1039, 1040), the Central Bureau of Statistics of the Netherlands publishes a table showing the weekly wage rates in various occupations, as fixed by collective agreements, in several large cities of the Netherlands, that were in force in 1920, 1921, and 1923 and compares them with the rates of 1914. The wage rates shown include cost-of-living bonuses, wherever such bonuses have been paid. The table, which is reproduced in part below, indicates that wages reached their highest level in July, 1921, when they were from two and one-half to three times as high as in January, 1914. In 1923 all trades had to submit to wage reductions. In most occupations these reductions were small with the exception of seamen and firemen in the merchant marine whose wage rates were reduced by nearly one-third.

WEEKLY WAGE RATES IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS, FIXED BY COLLECTIVE AGREE-MENTS IN FOUR LARGE CITIES OF THE NETHERLANDS, 1920, 1921, AND 1923, AS COM-PARED WITH 1914.

[1 guilder at par=40.2 cents.]

	Janua	ry, 1914.	Januar	у, 1920.	July,	1921.	July,	1923.				
Occupation.	Wage rate.	Index num- ber.	Wage rate.	Index num- ber.	Wage rate.	Index num- ber.	Wage rate.	Index num- ber.				
	Amsterdam.											
Compositor, band Compositor, machine Bookbinder Carpenter Mason Navyy. Plumber Baker, journeyman, 23 years of age. Gardener	Guilders. 15. 39 17. 67 13. 20 13. 14 13. 14 13. 00 14. 00 14. 00	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	Guilders. 38.25 42.75 38.25 17.20 16.80 17.20 31.00	249 242 290 230 230 227 225 221	Guilders. 38.25 42.75 38.25 17.52 17.52 17.52 37.00 30.00	249 242 290 240 240 237 235 264 214	Guil- ders. 36.00 40.32 36.00 17.23 16.80 17.23 36.00 22.00	234 228 273 230 230 227 226 257 157				
				Ha	arlem.			1				
Compositor, hand Compositor, machine Carpenter Mason Navvy. Baker, journeyman, 23 years of age.	14. 25 16. 53 1 2. 70 1 2. 70 1 2. 20 12. 00	100 100 100 100 100 100	36.00 40.50 17.20 17.20 16.80 31.00	253 245 267 267 309 258	36.00 40.50 17.52 17.52 17.12 37.00	253 245 279 279 279 324 308	33.60 37.92 17.23 17.23 16.80 36.00	236 229 268 268 309 300				

¹ Daily rate.

WEEKLY WAGE RATES IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS, FIXED BY COLLECTIVE AGREE-MENTS IN FOUR LARGE CITIES OF THE NETHERLANDS, 1920, 1921, AND 1923, AS COM-PARED WITH 1914—Concluded.

	Janua	ry, 1914.	Januar	y, 1920.	July,	1921.	July,	1923.
Occupation.	Wage rate.	Index num- ber.	Wage rate.	Index num- ber.	Wage rate.	Index num- ber.	Wage rate.	Index num- ber.
				Th	e Hague			
Compositor, hand Compositor, machine. Bookbinder. Carpenter Mason. Navvy. Painter Plasterer Electrician Assembler (telephone) Baker, journeyman, 23 years of age. Brewery worker.	Guilders. 14.82 17.10 13.20 12.95 13.14 12.80 12.70 12.85 18.24 20.65 13.50	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	Guil- ders. 37. 35 41. 85 37. 44 1 7. 20 1 6. 80 1 6. 80 1 7. 20 36. 00 38. 40 31. 00 31. 85	252 245 284 244 230 243 252 253 197 186 230 236	Guil- ders. 37. 35 41. 85 37. 80 1 7. 52 1 7. 12 1 7. 36 1 7. 52 42. 75 42. 75 37. 00 34. 50	252 245 286 255 240 254 273 264 234 207 274 256	Guil- ders. 35. 04 39. 36 35. 04 17. 23 17. 23 16. 80 17. 04 38. 40 40. 50 36. 00 34. 50	236 230 265 245 230 243 252 247 211 196 267 256
				Ro	tterdam			-
Compositor, hand Compositor, machine Bookbinder. Assembler (telephone). Baker, journeyman, 23 years of age Brewery worker Seaman, merchant marine. Stoker, merchant marine.	20.65	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	37. 35 41. 85 37. 44 38. 40 31. 00 31. 85 2145. 00 2150. 00	252 245 299 186 221 236 330 313	37. 35 41. 85 37. 80 42. 75 37. 00 34. 50 2 145. 00 2 150. 00		35. 04 39. 36 35. 04 40. 50 36. 00 34. 50 2100. 00 2105. 00	236 230 279 196 257 256 227 219

Daily rate. Monthly rate.

MINIMUM WAGE.

Recent Minimum-Wage Orders, British Columbia.

THE Minimum Wage Board of the Province of British Columbia has for some time had under consideration a revision of its manufacturing order. As noted in its annual report (see Monthly Labor Review, November, 1923, pp. 119, 120), the subject was one of varying aspects, requiring extensive investigation. The results of this investigation are embodied in orders No. 16 and 16A, promulgated September 20, 1923, to be effective 60 days from that date. The order that is superseded was issued September 1, 1919; and its revision followed upon a petition presented to the board by employers in the manufacturing industry to review the whole

subject.

In the present form the orders cover the work of females engaged in any process of making, repairing, altering, finishing, packing, etc., and adapting for use or sale any article or commodity excepting fish, fruit and vegetable drying, canning, preserving, or packing. The minimum rate for experienced employees is \$14 per week of 48 hours, whether on time work or at piece rates. This is the same as under the earlier order, the changes that were made affecting the schedules for learners in order 16A. Employment in excess of 8 hours per day or 48 per week is forbidden except under permission granted in accordance with the provisions of the factories act. The foregoing are provisions of Order No. 16. Order No. 16A relates to inexperienced employees, and prescribes varying periods of learning time and grades of pay in different classes of manufacturing industries. Schedule No. 1 of the order applies to work on or in connection with the preparation for sale of the following commodities: Tea, coffee, spices, essences, sauces, jelly powders, baking powders, molasses, sugar, syrups, honey, peanut butter, cream and milk products, butter, candy, confectionery, biscuits, macaroni, vermicelli, meats, soft drinks, yeast, cans, buttons, soap, paint, varnish, drug and toilet preparations, photographs, ink, seeds, brooms, whisks, pails, washboards, wooden boxes, clothespins, matches, explosives, munitions, gas mantles, and window shades. Beginners in this kind of work receive not less than \$8 per week for the first two months, not less than \$10 per week for the second two months, and not less than \$12 per week for the third two months, after which they are rated as experienced employees. This makes a training period of six months.

Schedule No. 2 embraces the manufacture, etc., of the following articles: Cotton bags, envelopes, overalls, shirts, ladies' and children's wear, gloves, hats, caps, men's neckwear, waterproof clothing, tents, awnings, regalia, carpets, furniture, bedding, pillow covers, loose covers, mattress covers, draperies, casket furnishings, factory-made

millinery, knit goods, blankets, brushes, machine-made cigars, and dipped chocolates. Rates of pay for this work are the same as in Schedule 1, but the periods are doubled, making a learning period

of one year.

Schedule No. 3 embraces the more skilled trades, the list being as follows: Bookbinding, embossing, engraving, printing, dressmaking, men's and women's tailoring, and the manufacture of ready-to-wear suits, paper boxes, jewelry, furs, leather goods, hand-made cigars, boots, shoes, and hand-made millinery. Beginners in these trades receive not less than \$7 per week for the first six months, not less than \$10 for the second six months, and not less than \$13 per week for the third six months. This gives a learning period of 18 months, but a different wage-rate distribution from that adopted for Schedules 1 and 2.

The classifications are of interest as an attempt to solve the difficult problem of learning periods adapted to a wide variety of employments calling for varying degrees of skill and experience. Regularly indentured apprentices whose indentures have been approved by the Minimum Wage Board are not affected by the foregoing schedules.

WOMAN AND CHILD LABOR.

Child Labor on Maryland Truck Farms.

THE United States Children's Bureau has recently published a study of the work of children on Maryland truck farms, based on a survey made in May, June, and July, 1921. Two districts were selected for study, Anne Arundel County near Baltimore, and Wicomico, Somerset, and Worcester Counties in the section known as the Eastern Shore. In both of these districts trucking is an important industry. The young workers may be children of a farmer employed on the place, children living in the neighborhood, or children of families brought to the farms for the special season of truck work. The study indicates that, as at present carried on, such work for children is open to three objections: It is wholly unregulated, and children may be put at work too heavy for them and required to work too long hours; it interferes with school attendance and leads to retardation; and for children of migratory or seasonal workers it may involve housing conditions detrimental alike to health and morals.

The study covered 808 children in Anne Arundel County and 840 on the Eastern Shore. In both districts children were employed on almost every kind of work involved in truck farming and in both they began work early. In Anne Arundel County 8.7 per cent of the white and 8.1 per cent of the colored children at work were under 8 years of age, while on the Eastern Shore the proportions were, respectively, 14.6 per cent and 17.3 per cent. Naturally the younger children could not do the heavy work, but there were no restrictions upon their employment at anything which the employer considered

within their power.

Most children, both white and negro, under 10 years of age work a short day at simple kinds of work and for only a few days or weeks during the year, and their work therefore presents no serious problem. Most white girls do little more work than the young children of both races and sexes, but some of the older negro girls and a large proportion of white and negro boys 12 years of age or more, especially those in farmers' families, do a great variety of work, and many work 9 or 10 hours a day. * * * Some of the simpler kinds of work, such as picking berries or hoeing, while monotonous, are likely to prove physically taxing only if kept up for long hours; but plowing, harrowing, machine cultivating, and some kinds of machine transplanting, which require skill and strength, are fatiguing even when done for only a few hours at a time. Such work in conjunction with long hours was reported by many of the boys 12 years of age and over. In order to safeguard this group of children from working beyond their strength at an early age and from the strain of excessive hours some legal regulation as to minimum age and maximum hours for the work of children on farms, at least in such occupations as these, would appear to be desirable.

The extent of the interference with school attendance varied with the age and race of the children. In Anne Arundel County 35 per cent of the white and 31 per cent of the colored children reported absence from school for farm work, the time lost varying from less than 10 to over 80 days; on the Eastern Shore the proportions were 64 and 53 per cent. The smaller percentage of colored children losing time

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is explained as partly due to the shorter session of the colored schools, which closed before strawberry-picking time began, thus setting the children free to do the work for which they were most in demand. In most of the negro schools the term was from 136 to 140 days, as compared with 175 to 181 days in the white schools. In 1922 the Maryland Legislature made several changes in the school law, among them being a provision which lengthened the term of negro schools to 160 days, so that at present the loss of time, as between the races, might be more nearly equal. The interruption to school attendance naturally caused retardation; in Anne Arundel County 50 per cent of the white and 71 per cent of the colored children were retarded, being from one to three years behind the grade considered normal for their years; on the Eastern Shore 38 per cent of the white children and 81.7 per cent of the colored children were retarded.

The children of families of seasonal workers presented a special aspect of the school-attendance problem. In Anne Arundel County a study was made of 145 white migratory families in which 262 children under 16 worked on truck farms. These families were brought down from Baltimore for the season, which is usually from six to eight weeks. The season begins from a month to six weeks before the Baltimore schools close, so the children inevitably lose

much time, whether or not they themselves are at work.

Nine-tenths of the children left school at least 20 days before the end of the term three-fourths withdrew 20 but less than 30 days before the close of school. From four to six weeks, therefore, was the usual amount of time lost for withdrawals for field work on truck farms. * * * Of the children between 8 and 16 years included in the study, 69 per cent were retarded in school. This rate of retardation is much higher than average rates for city children of various ages.

The migratory families were expected to bring their own bedding and kitchen utensils, while the farmers supplied sleeping quarters, usually grouping the workers together in what are locally called camps. Children working on farms were found living in twenty-two of the camps visited. Housing conditions in these camps were far from satisfactory.

Most of the camps contained but one building, known as a "shanty," which served as sleeping quarters for the workers. This building, usually two stories high, was erected on piles or rough stones. In most camps it was weather beaten or unpainted and the windows usually lacked either glass or shutters, or both. As a rule, there was but one room on each floor, with stairs on the outside leading to the upper room. In some a partition divided the lower floor, which was about 25 by 30 feet, into two rooms. On each side of a narrow aisle down the center of the room the floor was divided into sections or pens by boards 10 or 12 inches in height. Each pen was about 6 feet long and from 4 to 6 feet wide and covered with straw for a mattress. Each family was allotted one of these pens, the larger families sometimes securing those 6 feet in width. At night men, women, and children, partially clad, one family separated from the next by the plank 10 inches in height lay side by side.

Arrangements for sanitation of any kind were usually lacking, and the water supply generally came from springs or from wells which the families had dug, and little attention was paid to whether or not the water was safe for drinking. The survey suggests that some measure of control over these conditions is desirable.

The housing provided for migratory truck-farm workers in these localities is so unsatisfactory that it appears to call for some public supervision, such, for example, as that exercised for a number of years in California, in order that growing children may escape the physical and social effects of promiscuous and unhealthful living conditions.

Occupations of Juvenile Workers in Detroit.1

IN CONNECTION with the work of the Vocational Guidance Bureau of Detroit, a study has recently been made of the occupations of young workers, in order to get especially the beginner's attitude toward his job. The study was confined to those attending the Detroit Junior Continuation School, who were chosen as being at once the most typical and the most convenient group for the purposes of the investigation. The school is made up of boys and girls who have taken out permits to work and who are still obliged to attend school for eight hours a week. These were asked to fill out a questionnaire in which the queries were divided into three groups: Questions of fact, which dealt with the job, its duties, hours, and wages; questions of interpretation, which dealt with the time required to learn the job, its most and least agreeable features, and the advice the incumbent would give a new worker taking it up; and questions relating to the future, such as the next job in line of promotion, what job the worker might like to have and the reasons for his preference.

Data are given regarding the jobs held by 585 boys and 753 girls, but as 277 of the latter were listed as employed in housework at home, the answers covered only 476 girls who were employed in the same sense that the boys were. The boys were engaged in about 149 different occupations, and the girls in 54. The investigation was made in the early part of 1922, at which time the shortage of building trades workers was keenly felt, and there was much discussion of methods of increasing the number of those entering those trades. Yet of the 585 boys studied, only 18 could possibly be classed as in building trades, and only 3 of these were plainly apprentices. By way of contrast, the dead-end occupations seemed to be fully represented; there were 35 delivery boys, 27 errand boys, 30 office boys, and 71 messengers. About two-fifths, 39.3 per cent, of the boys were in commercial occupations, 20 per cent were in manufacturing jobs, 11.1 per cent in trades, 28.7 per cent in transportation jobs, and 0.9 per cent in agricultural jobs.

Of the 753 girls, 50 per cent were given as engaged in domestic service, a term which included housework, laundry work, restaurant occupations, and hair dressing. This percentage was unduly weighted by the inclusion of 277 girls who had left school on permit to do housework at home, of whom it was found that only 36 were actually engaged in such work. As this showed that some 240 girls had left school unnecessarily, the investigators call attention to the figures which, they say, "show that careful investigation and follow-up work should be made in the case of the home-permit girl." The conditions of home work do not seem to have been specially desirable.

The information given us by the 36 girls (who in all probability were representative of the group) showed that long hours rewarded by little or no pay was the lot of the home-permit girl. It was interesting to learn that only one of these 36 home-permit girls wished to remain in her present position, the majority (28) wishing to become clerks, office girls, or telephone operators.

¹ Michigan, University of. School of Education. Vocational education department. Occupations of junior workers in Detroit, by Alexander C. Crockett and Jennie M. Claw. Ann Arbor, 1923. 76 pp. Special studies No. 1.

Considering only the 476 girls who were employed away from home, 54 per cent were engaged in commercial jobs, 24 per cent in manu-

facturing jobs, and 22 per cent in domestic service.

Wages began at \$5 a week for the boys and \$3 for the girls, and for both groups ran up to \$20 or over. The boys averaged \$10.80 a week, the girls, \$10. Hours per day ranged from 6 or less up to 14, the average for both sexes being 9. Of the boys 6.40 per cent and of the girls 8.33 per cent had a working-day of from 11 to 14 hours. These hours included the noon hour period but no information was given concerning its length.

One of the questions asked was as to the time required for learning the job, and the answers were strongly indicative of the kind of work the children were doing. The average time given by both boys and girls was three days, the majority in both groups assigning a week as the proper period. Fifty-three of the boys and 12 of the girls thought it would require from 6 months to over a year, but on the other hand, 20 of the girls and 42 of the boys considered an hour sufficient.

The reasons given for liking or disliking their jobs reflect the character of the individual as well as the nature of the jobs. The most agreeable features, as given by boys, vary from a "chance for advancement," "learning the business," and "getting experience," to "pay day" and "the noon hour," while among the girls they range from "responsibility" and "contact with people" to the "music and congenial fellow workers" enjoyed by seven ushers. Among both boys and girls there are some who like everything about their work and some who like nothing, but in general they seem to adjudge their jobs much as adults do. Not infrequently the feature which one cites as the most disagreeable is given by another as an advantage; in other words, the personal element counts for much.

The investigators consider that a study of the likes and dislikes of the children, which are given at length, should be helpful to parents, vocational counselors, and employers in helping to fit the young worker into his proper place. They also consider that apart from the work to be done the character of the employer plays an important part and should be carefully studied by placement agents.

The extent to which training may be considered good or bad depends entirely upon the firm where the worker is employed. The number of jobs which provide good, mediocre, or bad training can not be determined by this study except in a very general way. * * * A study of the firms employing workers rather than the employees working for the firms is needed to answer the question as to training. We know that approximately three-fourths of the juniors appear from their statements to be receiving no outlined training. The need for the young person seeing the value of entering a good concern, in order that he may receive desirable training, is very evident.

Entrance of Women Into Railway Clerical Work in Australia.

ACCORDING to the Railways Union Gazette (Melbourne) for September 20, 1923, the increasing utilization of women in clerical work by the railways is giving some concern to the unions. Women have always been employed by the railroads as caretakers, seamstresses, laundresses, and the like, but of late they have appeared in clerical work which has hitherto been reserved

exclusively for men. Protests by the men were met with an assurance that there was no intention of employing women extensively, but, according to the Gazette, they are still being taken on a few at a time. The low wages at which they can be secured seem to constitute the principal reason for the innovation.

Cheap labor and efficient service are two things that must undoubtedly sway the administration to an extension of the policy. * * * The maximum salary of a seventh-class clerk is £252 [\$1,226, par], yet his sister is paid a maximum rate by outside wages board determination of only £143 [\$696, par] per annum, thus the department waxes fat to the extent of £109 [\$530, par], per year for each typist employed.

Under the circumstances, the Gazette considers that it is hopeless to oppose the employment of women, and it calls on the unions, accordingly, to organize the newcomers as rapidly as possible, and to adopt as a cardinal principle equality of pay for the sexes. "Equal pay for equal work, or equal class of work, is the platform on which the sexes should unite."

LABOR AGREEMENTS, AWARDS, AND DECISIONS.

Decisions of the Railroad Labor Board.

Supervisory Forces.

EPTEMBER 28, 1923, the Railroad Labor Board handed down a decision (No. 1979) in regard to representation of maintenance of way foremen in agreement negotiations.

The case had been before the board before (Decision No. 1644) and the facts, opinion, and decision therein were printed in the Monthly Labor Review for June, 1923, pages 160-164, thus render-

ing a detailed repetition of the case unnecessary.

In that case the board decided that its settlement of a dispute between the Brotherhood of Maintenance of Way Employees and Railway Shop Laborers and their employers should become effective, though occurring after a satisfactory agreement had been made between the supervisory forces of the same brotherhood and the same employers, inasmuch as the latter agreement had not been properly brought to the attention of the board.

Following this decision, the general manager of the railroad placed in effect the order of the Labor Board and notified the general chairman of the brotherhood of the intention of the carrier, June 1, 1923, to cancel the agreement thus placed in force and to conclude an agreement with the supervisory forces independent of the other members

of the brotherhood.

June 2, the carrier caused an election to be held, as a result of which 173 foremen indicated their desire to be represented by the Supervisors' Association of Maintenance of Way Foremen, while 20

indicated their desire to be represented by the brotherhood.

The representatives of the employees took the position that the balloting of these employees separately from the entire group was improper, protested against the entire procedure, requested that the carrier hold the election in abeyance until the Railroad Labor Board had passed on the propriety of taking such a ballot and refused to

assist in the balloting.

The carrier insisted that the election was conducted in conformity with the rules laid down by the board and that the results should determine the association with whom it should conduct negotiations relative to rules and working conditions for foremen and assistant foremen in the maintenance of way department. Because of the protest, however, the carrier did not enter into such negotiations and awaited the approval of the election by the board.

The opinion and decision of the board were briefly expressed as

follows:

Opinion.—The Railroad Labor Board feels that the carrier has complied with the meaning and intent of Decision No. 1644 referred to herein, and that the election referred to has been conducted in a fair and impartial manner. The majority of the board has clearly outlined its position relative to the right of foremen to negotiate an

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agreement governing rules and working conditions providing the provisions of the transportation act, 1920, are complied with. This opinion will be found in Decision No. 1269, covering a dispute between the United Brotherhood of Maintenance of Way Employees and Railway Shop Laborers and the Delaware, Lackawanna & Western Railroad Co. The board wishes to reiterate the expressions contained therein.

Decision.—The Railroad Labor Board decides upon the evidence submitted that the carrier has complied with the provisions of Decision No. 1644, as well as the

Decision.—The Railroad Labor Board decides upon the evidence submitted that the carrier has complied with the provisions of Decision No. 1644, as well as the provisions of the transportaion act, 1920, in the conduct of the election referred to in this dispute, and the result thereof shall determine with whom the carrier shall negotiate rules and working conditions governing foremen and assistant foremen employed in the maintenance of way department.

One of the labor members of the board filed a lengthy and vigorous dissent from the above decision—

Because it is obvious that the rights of the organization presenting the dispute have been wholly disregarded and ignored;

That the members of the board voting for this Decision No. 1979 willfully and premeditatedly disregarded the rights of the employees, and also ignored practically all of its previous decisions and rulings governing procedure:

all of its previous decisions and rulings governing procedure;

That this carrier and the members of the board who voted for this Decision No. 1979 have knowingly perverted the true purpose of the labor provisions of the transportation act, 1920.

In this case the employees declined to permit the carrier to dictate who should or should not represent certain employees. They also declined to participate in the carrier's program of destroying their own organization, at least until after they had submitted the facts to the Railroad Labor Board for hearing and decision. The carrier declined to join the employees in submitting the dispute to the board. On the contrary the carrier advised the representatives of the United Brotherhood of Maintenance of Way Employees and Railway Shop Laborers that the election would proceed without their participation or action by the board. This program was carried out.

A supporting opinion by the majority was also filed from which the following quotations are made:

1. The Railroad Labor Board long ago held that maintenance of way foremen were entitled to maintain an organization separate from that of the employees they supervised, if they so desired. The board furthermore expressed the view that such an arrangement was conducive to the efficient operation of the railways and to the best interest of both the employees and their foremen. It may also be added that in other classes of railway employees it is not the practice for foremen to belong to an organization with their subordinates and to be placed in a position where they may be controlled or influenced by those under their supervision. The same principle is recognized in the railway service by not permitting unskilled labor to represent and dominate skilled employees. In both the shop crafts and the clerical organizations this principle has been continually recognized by the board, including the writer of the dissenting opinion herein.

2. The board did not, however, hold that the foremen could not affiliate with the unskilled employees in the maintenance of way brotherhood and select that organization to represent them, if they so desired. It merely held that the foremen should have the right to choose between said brotherhood and a separate organization of foremen, and that the unskilled employees of the brotherhood could not vote in the decision of this question.

This policy did not deny liberty of choice to anybody, but it preserved that liberty for the foremen.

On the other hand, it necessarily meant that the very distinct rights and interests of the unskilled should not be under the control of their foremen.

3. The Railroad Labor Board having established the principles above outlined, the foremen on this railroad had a right to negotiate an agreement with the carrier. This right they and the carrier attempted to exercise, but, in Decision No. 1644, the board held that inasmuch as the maintenance of way brotherhood then held an agreement covering the foremen and containing a provision requiring notice to that organization of the carrier's desire to modify or annul the agreement, which notice had not been given, the procedure of the carrier and foremen was invalid.

Thereupon, the carrier gave the necessary notice to the brotherhood of maintenance of way employees and, in the subsequent conference, proposed to hold a proper election to permit the foremen to decide whether they would be represented by the brother-

hood or by an association of their own. The brotherhood declined to participate in such election, unless the unskilled group of employees belonging to the organization were permitted to vote. The carrier, relying upon the previous decisions of the board, declined. The election was then held and the evidence shows that by a secret ballot conforming to the board's decisions a large majority of the foremen voted for a separate organization.

The carrier has very properly awaited the action of the board on this dispute before

proceeding to negotiate with the foremen's association.

Subordinate Officials.

A DECISION relative to "subordinate officials" has been recently handed down by the Railroad Labor Board (No. 1985, October 17, 1923), concerning the Interstate Commerce Commission definition of this class of employees.

The commission issued a regulation (Ex parte No. 72, November

24, 1920) containing the following statement:

The above definitions include all of the classes of employees whose claims to recognition as "subordinate officials" were presented at the hearings, except supervisory station agents. The supervisory station agents are those who have supervision of the work of other station employees. They cover the range from the station where one employee other than the agent is employed to the agents at the largest and most important points. They are the official and responsible representatives of the company in its relationships with the public and frequently in a legal sense. Their compensation naturally varies with the responsibilities of their positions. It is not believed that this class can be consistently included within the term "subordinate officials," as that term is used in Title III of the transportation act, 1920.

Acting under this regulation the Philadelphia & Reading Railway Co., in the agreement it was negotiating with a committee elected by the employees in the telegraph department, sought to exclude as being supervisory agents station agents who supervised one or more employees, holding that they—

Are not subject to the jurisdiction of the employees' committee and do not come under the provisions of the proposed agreement; furthermore, since the agents which the carrier proposes to exclude as supervisory agents do not perform any of the duties specified in the scope of the agreement which is being negotiated between the carrier and the committee elected to represent employees in the telegraph department, the carrier holds that these positions should not be subject to the jurisdiction of this committee nor to the provisions of the proposed agreement covering rules, working conditions, and rates of pay.

The employees contend that all agents should be included in the schedule agreement which have been incorporated in the previous schedule agreement for the

following reasons:

1. Many of such employees have accepted such positions believing they would be continued under the agreement.

2. They perform routine office work, which we believe should be the determining factor in whether or not agencies should be included.

3. The majority of these employees are members of the same organization as the balance of employees we have agreed to incorporate, and perform service which is analogous.

4. The balance of the employees in station, tower, and telegraph service have an inherent right to their inclusion, as inclusion of agents' positions places them where the regular line of promotion will fill them.

The essential parts of the opinion and decision follow:

Opinion.—The authority under which the Interstate Commerce Commission promulgated its decision on this question, as quoted in the joint submission of this dispute, is conveyed in paragraph 5, section 300, Title III of the transportation act, 1920, reading as follows:

"The term 'subordinate official' includes officials of carriers of such class or rank as the commission shall designate by regulation formulated and issued after such

notice and hearing as the commission may prescribe, to the carriers, and employees

and subordinate officials of carriers, and organizations thereof, directly to be affected by such regulations."

The Interstate Commerce Commission was empowered to say what men in the railway service were "subordinate officials." This was not for the purpose of drawing a dividing line between "employees" and "subordinate officials." That was a matter of no concern to Congress, because both classes were placed under the applied matter of no concern to Congress, because both classes were placed under the applica-tion of the transportation act, 1920, and the jurisdiction of the Railroad Labor Board. The purpose of Congress evidently was to have a dividing line drawn between "officials" and "subordinate officials," in order that officials might fall without and subordinate officials within the jurisdiction of the board.

It was not primarily the duty or purpose of the Interstate Commerce Commission to designate and classify officials or employees, but in its action on this matter it did say that all agents who supervise as many as one are not subordinate officials, because inferentially they are officials. The agent who supervises one employee was classed by the Interstate Commerce Commission with the agent who supervises 100 employees, and both were declared not to be "subordinate officials" because of their supervisory authority, and because of the further fact that "they are the official and responsible representatives of the company in its relationship with the public and frequently in

a legal sense.

It was the plain and intentional meaning of the language used by the Interstate Commerce Commission that all agents who supervised as many as one employee were officials, and that therefore they were not subordinate officials. In the language of the Interstate Commerce Commission the same supervisory authority that excluded the agent with 100 subordinates from the class of "subordinate officials" also excluded the agent with one supervised employee. In other words, the Interstate Commerce Commission held that all such supervisory agents were not subordinate officials, be-

cause they were officials.

This action of the Interstate Commerce Commission left another plain inference namely, that such agents as those who supervised nobody were employees within the meaning of the transportation act, 1920. It did not, however, formally designate them as employees, because it was not authorized by the act to declare who were em-

ployees any more than it was to declare who were officials.

All that it had been asked to do and all it had the legal authority to do was to designate as subordinate officials such agents as it deemed proper. It did not declare that any of them were subordinate officials. It is therefore an unescapable conclusion that inasmuch as no station agents are subordinate officials, they must all fall either under the head of officials or that of employees. Such of them as are officials are not within the jurisdiction of the board; such of them as are employees are within the board's jurisdiction.

Under the law, the board can not declare that these supervisory agents are subordinate officials. The Interstate Commerce Commission has settled that question. On the other hand, the board would create a very awkward situation if it declared any part of the supervisory agents to be employees in the face of the Interstate Commerce Commission's virtual finding that they are officials. It would place the board's action in conflict with that of the Interstate Commerce Commission.

The practices that may have existed prior to Federal control or the agreements that may have since been made by certain carriers can not affect the jurisdiction conferred upon the board by the transportation act, 1920. The carrier may make such contracts as it may see fit with its officials, and the board could never be concerned thereby unless it should be made to appear in a case properly submitted that such agreements with those not under the jurisdiction of the board conflicted with the rights of those

who are under its jurisdiction.

The question as to whether the two factors upon which the Interstate Commerce Commission based its action in Ex parte No. 72-namely, the supervisory capacity of the agents and their official relationship to the public—drew the proper dividing line between officials and subordinate officials, is not one upon which the Railroad Labor Board can properly pass. It will be a question for the consideration of the Interstate Commerce Commission when the matter is reopened and reheard before the commission as the board is informed it will be. The board is not therefore expressing any opinion herein as to the merits of the contentions of the employees as to what agents should rightfully be included in their agreements, but is recognizing the fact that it is bound by Ex parte No. 72 unless and until same is revised by the commission.

Decision.—In view of the premises, the Railroad Labor Board decides that it has no jurisdiction over those classified as supervisory agents by the Interstate Commerce

Commission.

Longshoremen and Lighter Captains—Port of New York.

AN AGREEMENT between Lighter Captains' Union, Local 996, of the International Longshoremen's Association, and the members of the Lighterage Association of the Port of New York became effective October 1, 1923, for one year. The scale affects about 2,200 men carrying freight between the various railroad and steamship piers, about one-half working for the railroad companies and onehalf for owners of privately operated barges. By this agreement the men working on the privately owned barges receive 40 cents per week more than war-time wages and those working for the railroads \$15 per month less than war-time wages.

The more important sections in the agreement are shown in the

following extracts:

CAPTAINS.

1. Minimum wage on covered barges, \$28 per week; minimum wage on hand winch boats, \$28 per week; minimum wage on steam and gasoline hoisting lighters, \$29 per

week.

2. The working hours of the day to be from 7 a. m. to 6 p. m., or 10 hours per day. Six (6) days to constitute a week's work. Regular working time of the week shall begin 7 a. m. Monday morning and end 6 p. m. Saturday. Sunday work to be time and a half.

3. When captains of lighters are ordered to work after 6 p. m. they shall receive time and a half for actual time worked and an additional allowance of one dollar and fifty cents (\$1.50) for watching, provided, however, that when captains receive six (6) hours or more overtime, no additional allowance shall be paid for watching the balance of

NIGHT WATCHING AND NIGHT TOWING.

4. Compensation for night watching to be one dollar and fifty cents (\$1.50) per night.

4. Compensation for high watering to be detailed and inty cents (\$1.50) per highs. Additional allowance for towing at night fifty cents (50c.).

5. When captains are ordered to be on their boats on Sunday for the purpose of watching or towing, they shall receive one full day's pay.

6. All car fare in excess of ten cents (10c.) to be paid by the employer to men living within the Metropolitan district. All car fare to be paid by the employers when the

men are on the company's calls.

8. All disputes arising under this agreement, or questions arising regarding interpretation of clauses contained therein, shall be referred to a committee of two for settlement. Said committee to be composed of one representative of each party to this agreement. If this committee is unable to agree, they shall choose a third disinterested man whose decision shall be final and binding on both parties.

9. No discrimination of any kind shall be made against union men.

Printing Industry (Web Pressmen)—New York City.

URING the progress of negotiations looking to the making of a new agreement, 2,200 web pressmen, members of the New York Web Printing Pressmen's Union No. 25, went on strike without authorization. The signing of the new agreement, dated September 21, 1923, between the Publishers' Association of New York City and the International Printing Pressmen and Assistants' Union of North America, practically broke the strike, though the strikers did not all return to work until October 1. Union No. 25 was dissolved and its charter revoked by the international union.

The new agreement, which was in a sense national in making though local in operation, secured to the men an increase of \$3 per week and a reduction in hours from 48 to 41 for night work and from 48 to 45 Under its provisions the international union underfor day work. takes to furnish men to operate the presses of the publishers' association "in accordance with definite stipulations that will guarantee full production, peace, and the highest possible efficiency in the pressrooms."

The points of settlement were as follows:

(1) Night work shall consist of forty-one (41) hours per week, to be performed in the following manner: Two nights at eight hours each to be designated by the office, to be changed only upon one week's notice; all other nights during the week to be of six and one-half hours each. It is specifically understood that on the two designated eighthour night shifts, that half of one hour for luncheon shall be allowed on office time, and as nearly as practicable in each office at the same time each working day or night.

It is further understood and agreed that no press crew shall be sent to lunch before the third hour after starting work, or be kept from lunch more than five hours after starting work, except on the six-and-one-half hour night shift provided for in the next

paragraph.

(2) It is agreed that on the six-and-a-half hour nights the office shall have continuous operation and no lunch period is required to be given at the expense of the office, provided, however, that no press crew shall work longer than six and one-half hours without receiving a lunch period.

(3) Night work shall be between 8 p. m. and 6 a. m. except Saturday night, when

the hours shall be between 5 p. m. and 5 a. m. (4) Day work shall consist of eight consecutive hours per day, between 7 a. m. and

7 p. m., including half an hour for luncheon on office time.

(5) Color presses and rotagravure presses shall be operated, when required, in three shifts, a day shift of eight hours, a night shift of seven hours, and a third shift, part day and part night, of seven hours, which last named two shifts shall be paid for at night rates, provided men working on either of the two 7-hour shifts on rotagravure and color presses shall receive a wage scale in excess of that established for black presses in an amount equal to one hour each week at time and a half. A luncheon period of one-half hour shall be allowed on office time on the 8-hour day shift; on either of the two 7-hour shifts men may be sent to lunch in turn without shutting down the press or presses.

OVERTIME.

(6) Employees may be called in before their regular working hours whenever in the judgment of the office it is necessary, but all such work shall be paid for at time and one-half. When overtime extends beyond or before the day hours or beyond or before the night hours, the night overtime rates shall be paid.

(7) All time required and actually worked before or continued after the regular day or night work shall be counted as overtime and shall be paid for at the rate of time and one-half for any part of the first four hours of work and double time thereafter.

EARLY CALLS AND CALL BACK.

(8) When men are called back for work, after getting "good day" or "good night," they shall receive two (\$2) dollars for the call and double time for all time actually worked after reporting at their positions.

Day men called before 7 a. m. shall be paid one (\$1) dollar in addition to the regular

day wage.

COMPENSATION.

(9) It is agreed that the compensation rates shall be as follows:

For men in charge on day work, they shall receive fifty-four (\$54) dollars per week; journeymen on day work shall receive forty-eight (\$48) dollars per week; juniors shall receive thirty-two (\$32) dollars per week.

For men in charge on night work, they shall receive fifty-seven (\$57) dollars per week; journeymen on night work shall receive fifty-one (\$51) dollars per week; juniors shall receive thirty-five (\$35) dollars per week.

It is provided that the foregoing scale is agreed to by the parties to this contract with the following reservations:

(a) That the difference in the total compensation rates as proposed by the party of the first part in their proposed contract of August 6, 1923, and the rates proposed by

[1352]

the party of the second part, in its proposed contract of May 4, 1923, shall be considered

in the following manner:

That immediately the parties hereto agree to set up a conciliation board of three (3) members each, who shall proceed forthwith in an endeavor to reach an agreement upon the differences as between the compensation rates referred to in order to deter-

mine a permanent compensation rate.

In the event of the conciliation board failing to agree, that then and in such event the board thus named shall proceed to select three (3) disinterested persons within fifteen (15) days, who shall act as a board of arbitration to determine definitely such differences and all other differences not settled by conciliation as herein provided, it being understood that the voting power of such board of arbitration shall be confined to three (3) votes, to-wit, one vote representing the party of the first part, one vote to represent the party of the second part, and one vote to represent the three (3) disinterested members of such board of arbitration.

If in ten days the conciliation board is unable to agree on the three disinterested persons, then the Governor of the State of New York, who was heretofore agreed on as a nominator by all parties now or previously interested, shall be called on to designate the three disinterested men or any number of the three on whom agreement was not

arrived at.

It is agreed that in the interim the compensation rates operative as of section 9 shall continue in full force and operation until a permanent compensation rate has been determined in accordance with the foregoing; provided, however, until such permanent rate of compensation is so determined, the extra payments now made in certain offices shall be so readjusted that no employee shall receive (including the three dollars per week increase in regular wages and the higher overtime rates herein provided) less compensation per week than such employee would have received for a corresponding number of hours' work prior to September 17, 1923.

It is provided that such permanent compensation rates agreed to in accordance with

the foregoing shall be made retroactive to the date of this contract.

It is further agreed that the conciliation board heretofore provided shall aid the parties hereto in preparing all the provisions necessary for a complete working contract for one year from September 1, 1923, between the parties hereto; that the two proposed contracts submitted respectively by the president of the international union to the New York newspaper owners on May 4, 1923, and the proposed contract submitted by the Publishers' Association of New York City to the New York City union on August 6, 1923, shall be used as the basis of discussion by the parties hereto in preparing such working contract for one year, and that any point or points on which the parties

hereto can not agree shall be decided finally by the said conciliation board, enlarged as provided and acting as an arbitration board, by a majority or unanimous vote.

It is agreed that any contract arrived at pursuant to this agreement shall contain a clause providing for its renewal or replacement at expiration by arbitration in the event of failure to arrive at a complete agreement by conciliation or negotiation and

that such arbitration shall be in accordance with the plan herein provided.

Taxicabs—Rochester, N. Y.

AN AGREEMENT between the Rochester Taxicab Co. and the A Yellow Cab Co., both operated under the same management, and Teamsters' Local 543, was signed April 14, 1923, terminating a strike begun two weeks before on the refusal of the companies to sign a closed-shop agreement prepared by the union. The agreement is to remain in force for five years.

The following extracts from this agreement are of interest:

ARTICLE I. Parties of the first part shall have the right and privilege of conducting its business upon what is known as the "open-shop" plan, but will give preference to members of the union known as local No. 543, or to such persons as express to the first parties their willingness to join such local after they have been in the employ of the first parties for a period of fifteen days.

ART. II. The employees of the first parties shall have the right to join local 543 and continue their membership therein and will not be discriminated against for so

doing.

ART. III. There shall be a steward chosen by the employees of the first parties whose duty shall be to receive the complaints of the employees of the first parties, and who in turn shall present such complaints to the first parties. In the event that such steward and first parties shall not agree, such disputes shall be submitted in writing by memorandum signed by said parties and the steward to a person to be selected by the president of the Rochester Chamber of Commerce, and the decision of such person shall be final and binding upon all parties. No strike or lockout shall take place pending the decision of said person.

ART. V. The question of wages of all drivers and working hours shall be submitted by

the first [parties] hereto to an arbitration committee, consisting of three members to be appointed by the president of the Rochester Chamber of Commerce, and pending the decision of said arbitration committee all drivers shall receive a commission of 25 per cent of all bookings each week, excepting funeral drivers, who shall receive \$30 per week; and also, pending said decision of said arbitration committee, drivers shall not be required to work more than ten hours each day, or more than six days each week. Upon receipt of a copy of the written decision of said arbitration committee the same shall be binding upon the parties hereto, and thereupon and thereafter the first parties shall pay, and the drivers shall receive during the life of this agreement, the compensation fixed by said arbitration committee.

After hearings the decision of the arbitrators appointed under Article V above was rendered May 26. It was limited to fixing wages and working hours, and was accepted by all garages and brokerage houses in the city. Extracts from the award follow:

The board found the general practice in Rochester and generally throughout the country to pay taxicab drivers on a commission basis and felt that no other method was practicable, and after the board's deliberation, extending over a period of several

weeks, the board's decision was reached.

The board decided on the following scale of weekly commission for drivers unless the various firms feel that the flat wage scale of \$22.50 per week of ten (10) hours per day and six (6) days per week and 25 per cent on all bookings over \$75 in any one week [is preferable]. This also will be acceptable to members of Chauffeurs' Local Union, No. 543, and to take effect from the time of the expiration of the old agreement and to be in full force until April 1st, 1924. All funeral drivers shall receive \$30 per week.

		Per	cent.
On receipts up to \$60, inclusive	 		26
On receipts up to \$60 to \$70, inclusive	 		27
On receipts up to \$70 to \$80, inclusive			
On receipts up to \$80 to \$90, inclusive			
On receipts up to \$90 and upward	 		30

The board urges the companies to devise immediately a system which will protect the drivers from responsibility for uncollected charge accounts and also assume the burden of minor damages which is inevitable in such a hazardous industry.

The percentages granted were those asked for by the union. Several companies accepted the alternative plan of paying drivers \$22.50 per week and 25 per cent commission on all bookings over \$75.

Italian Decree Regulating Collective Agreements.¹

N RECENT months the Italian Confederation of Labor, the Catholic Federation of Labor, and the National Facisti Corporations have each requested the Italian Government to regulate collective labor agreements. In accordance with these requests the prime minister, on September 2, submitted to the cabinet a decree making collective agreements legally binding and providing arbitration boards for all disputes arising from the application of such agree-

¹ The data on which this article is based are from Battaglie Sindacali, Milan, Sept. 6, 1923.

ments. The cabinet approved the decree. The provisions of the decree are as follows:

ARTICLE 1. A collective labor agreement concluded by one or several labor organizations and one or several employers' organizations, even if these exist only de facto, as well as one concluded by one or several labor organizations and individual employers, shall be binding upon all the members of the organization or organizations and upon the individual employers who have concluded the agreement. The agreement shall within 30 days of its conclusion be deposited with the prefect of the Province within the limits of which it is to be applicable. The agreement shall be entered on a special register kept by the prefect. The deposit of the agreement shall be considered legally valid even if it has been effected by only one of the contracting parties.

ART. 2. Whenever the contracting parties have agreed upon the deposit of a sum as bond for the observance of the agreement, this sum shall be deposited with a credit institute. The receipt for the deposit must be presented to the prefect together with

the agreement.

ART. 3. At the time when the agreement is deposited or within two weeks thereafter the contracting parties shall name their representatives on the arbitration board dealt

with in article 4

ART. 4. In each provincial capital there shall be established at the prefecture an arbitration board (commissione arbitrale) to which shall be submitted all disputes arising from the interpretation, application, and enforcement of collective labor agreements deposited with the prefect. The board shall also decide all disputes relating to the nullity of the agreement owing to the absence of consent.

The board shall be presided over by the president of the provincial court or by a president of a branch of the court, or in their absence by a judge designated by the president, and shall be composed of two representatives of workers' organizations and two representatives of employers' organizations or of individual employers named

by the interested parties in accordance with article 3.

Of the representatives of each class one shall be a regular member of the board and the other shall act as alternate. If the contracting parties of one collective agreement are, respectively, constituted of several workers' organizations, or of several employers' organizations, or of several individual employers, and if at the time of depositing the agreement with the prefect the parties can not agree on a choice of their respective representatives, representatives shall be appointed by the president of the provincial court from a list furnished him by the parties.

If one of the parties does not appoint its representatives, or if these refuse to take part in a decision, the president of the provincial court shall complete the board by appointing in their place a judge of the court or a pretor of the district. A clerk of the court chosen by the president of the provincial court shall act as secretary of the arbi-

tration board.

ART. 5. In rendering awards the board shall have the powers of a friendly arbitrator in accordance with the provisions of the law on prudhommes of June 15, 1893 (No. 295), and with the administrative regulations relating to this law, in so far as they are applicable. When the board finds that the collective agreement has been violated it may, in addition to making the provisions required by the case, also order that the sum deposited by the party who has violated the agreement shall be forfeited to the other party or that the latter shall receive a part of this sum as damages, according to whether the agreement provides for a penalty or compensation of damages. An appeal from the decision of the board is permissible only on the ground of incompetence or excess of authority.

ART. 6. If the collective agreement covers several Provinces the locality in which the cash deposit has been made shall determine what arbitration board shall be compe-

tent to settle disputes.

ART. 7. The present decree shall come into force on the date of its publication in the Official Gazette, and shall be submitted to parliament for conversion into a law.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT.

Employment in Selected Industries in October, 1923.

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics received reports concerning the volume of employment in October, 1923, from 7,233 representative establishments in 51 manufacturing industries, covering 2,428,247 employees, whose total earnings during one week in October were \$65,731,632. The same establishments in September reported 2,433,120 employees and total pay rolls of \$63,694,596. Therefore in October, as shown from these unweighted figures for 51 industries combined, there was a decrease as compared with September of 0.2 per cent in the number of employees, an increase of 3.2 per cent in the total amount paid in wages, and an increase of 3.4 per cent in average weekly earnings.

The bureau's questionnaire does not make inquiry concerning labor turnover, but as this is the season of the year when men are looking for regular work and an assured income it is probable that this slight decrease in employment, coupled with a substantial gain in average weekly earnings, is due to greater regularity of work and less floating labor than during the summer months. The likelihood of this explanation being true is further confirmed by the few increases in rates of

wages reported.

Comparing data from identical establishments for September and October, increases in employment are shown in 26 of the 51 industries

and increases in the amount paid in wages in 36 industries.

The greatest increase in employment was 8 per cent in the confectionery and ice-cream industry. The increases in the dyeing and finishing textiles, paper boxes, chewing tobacco, shirts and collars, and glass industries ranged from 4.7 per cent down to 2.2 per cent, and the increases in 21 other industries were all less than 2 per cent.

The carriage and wagon industry was the only one showing a large decrease in employment, 8 per cent, all the remaining (24) decreases

being 3 per cent or less.

Two industries show very large increases in pay-roll totals; these increases were 14.6 per cent in women's clothing and 11.4 per cent in automobiles. Two other industries, chewing tobacco and shirts and collars, show increases of over 8 per cent.

The cotton goods industry shows the greatest decrease in pay-roll totals, 7.3 per cent, followed by the carriage and wagon industry,

6 per cent.

Considering the industries by groups, increases in employment are shown in the total of all establishments in the food industries and in the paper and printing, tobacco, and vehicles groups. These increases were small except in the food industries, which as a whole increased 2.3 per cent. Small decreases in employment appear in the remaining 8 groups.

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Forty-two of the 51 industries show increased per capita earnings in October as compared with 39 in September, 25 in August, and only

10 in July.

For convenient reference the latest figures available relating to all employees, excluding executives and officials, on Class I railroads, drawn from Interstate Commerce Commission reports, are given at the foot of the first and second tables.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS DURING ONE WEEK IN SEPTEMBER AND OCTOBER, 1923.

	Estab-	Number o	on pay roll.	Per	Amount o	Per	
Industry.	lish- ments.	September, 1923.	October, 1923.	cent of change.	September, 1923.	October, 1923.	cent of change.
Food and kindred products:					-		4
Slaughtering and meat packing	84	91,913	93, 290	+1.5	\$2, 262, 816	\$2, 285, 096	+1.0
Confectionery and ice cream	137	18,640	20,148	+8.1	370,740	397, 694 422, 243 921, 970	+7.3
Flour	269	15,810	15,985	+1.1	404, 468	422, 243	+4.4
Baking. Sugar refining, not including beet	253	35,007	35,674	+1.9	938, 590	921,970	-1.8
sugar	12	9,136	9,304	+1.8	278,078	292, 444	+5.2
Textiles and their products:					A-0.75 TO 10.75		
Cotton goods	253	156, 933	152, 266	-3.0	2,767,228	2,564,368	-7.3
Silk goods	238 221	71,384 55,205 59,781	72, 190 54, 924	$+1.1 \\ -0.5$	1,135,427	1,188,787	+4.7 +1.2
Silk goods	159	59, 781	59,930	+0.2	1,150,525 1,393,060	1,164,050 1,426,087	+2.4
('arnets.	99	20,626	20, 762	+0.7	569, 514	586, 764	+3.0
Dyeing and finishing textiles	65	24, 593	25,754 57,286	+4.7	558, 221	600,404	1 +7.6
Clothing, men's	210	59,049	57, 286	-3.0	1,452,397 347,980	1,430,286	-1.5
Clothing woman's	90 154	23,457	24,091	+2.7	347, 980	376,172	+8.1
Clothing, men's. Shirts and collars. Clothing, women's. Millinery and lace goods.	76	15, 420 12, 327	15,109 11,928	-2.0 -3.2	369, 463 269, 080	423, 522 254, 788	+14.6 -5.3
Iron and steel and their products:		12,024	11,020	0.2	200,000	204, 100	-0.0
Iron and steel	186	242,946	242, 171	-0.3	7,044,685	7,394,512	+5.0
Structural-iron work	134	18,093	17,826	-1.5	485, 750	501,855	+3.3
Foundry and machine-shop	536	101 507	150 100	0.4	4 705 110	4 220 004	0 -
products Hardware	33	161,537 21,111	156, 492 21, 052	$-3.1 \\ -0.3$	4, 785, 440 519, 481	4,759,801 539,159	$-0.5 \\ +3.8$
Machine tools	139	18,147	18,054	-0.5	502, 438	501, 602	-0.2
Steam fitting and steam hot-							
water heating apparatus	106	32,364	31,944	-1.3	938,318	957, 564	+2.1
Stoves	83	16, 290	16, 504	+1.3	445, 274	465, 179	+4.5
Lumber and its remanufactures:	235	72,664	71,727	_1 3	1,506,681	1 510 955	+0.2
Lumber, sawmills	180	25, 138	24, 964	-1.3 -0.7	611,856	1,510,255 625,267	+2.2
Furniture	254	25, 138 37, 661	38, 192	+1.4	860,691	902, 899	+4.9
Leather and its finished products:	400		OH 000				
Leather	129	27, 453	27,366	-0.3	682,774	701,799	+2.8
Boots and shoes, not including	163	81,150	80,431	-0.9	1,812,533	1,780,364	-1.8
rubber Paper and printing:	200	01,100		0.0		1,100,001	2.0
raper and pulp	175	49,410	49,007	-0.8	1, 272, 621 318, 073	1,266,071	-0.5
Paper boxes.	143	15,678	16, 244	+3.6	318,073	332,710	+4.6
Printing, book and job	216 199	26, 203 43, 569	26,356 44,360	$+0.6 \\ +1.8$	866, 143 1, 598, 608	893, 844 1, 659, 496	+3.2 +3.8
Chemicals and allied products:	100	20,000	11,000	11.0	1,000,000	1,000, 100	10.0
Chemicals	87	15,994	16,077	+0.5	411,793	437,088	+6.1
Fertilizers	112	8,571	8,613	+0.5	170,047	162,975	-4.2
Petroleum refining.	63	47,045	45, 564	-3.1	1,500,683	1,469,296	-2.1
Stone, clay, and glass products: Cement	76	23,898	23,733	-0.7	706, 964	709, 594	+0.4
Brick and tile	315	26, 440	25, 661	-2.9	678, 364	675, 552	-0.4
Brick and tile	50	11,991	12,068	+0.6	309,059	323,701	+4.7
Glass. Metal products, other than iron	129	32,346	33,060	+2.2	795, 132	847, 429	+6.6
Metal products, other than iron							
and steel: Stamped and enameled ware	37	15,024	14,919	-0.7	331,936	330, 802	-0.3
Tobacco manufactures:	01	10,021	11,010	0.1	001,000	000,002	-0.0
Tobacco, chewing and smoking	30	3,656	3,775	+3.3	55, 590	60, 199	+8.3
Tobacco, cigars and cigarettes	168	31,322	31,611	+0.9	553, 282	592, 914	+7.2
Vehicles for land transportation:	170	970 40*	974 549	11 -	0 797 015	0 705 040	1111
Automobiles	172 38	270, 495 2, 567	274, 542 2, 356	$+1.5 \\ -8.2$	8,737,915 56,648	9, 735, 249 53, 273	$+11.4 \\ -6.0$
Car building and repairing, elec-	99	2,007	2,000	-0.2	50,048	00,215	-0.0
tric-railroad	183	18,049	17,888	-0.9	510, 511	525, 805	+3.0
Car building and repairing,							
steam-railroad	285	171, 143	171,744	+0.4	4,931,147	5, 176, 701	+5.0

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS DURING ONE WEEK IN SEPTEMBER AND OCTOBER, 1923—Concluded.

Industry.	Estab- lish- ments.	Number o	n pay roll.	Per cent of change.	Amount	Per	
		September, 1923.	October, 1923.		September, 1923.	October, 1923.	cent of change
Miscellaneous industries: Agricultural implements. Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies. Pianos and organs. Rubber boots and shoes. Automobile tires. Shipbuilding, steel	75 119 28 8 67 37	20, 014 92, 805 7, 742 12, 833 34, 544 27, 946	19, 369 92, 910 7, 710 12, 941 33, 942 28, 433	$ \begin{array}{c} -3.2 \\ +.1 \\4 \\ +.8 \\ -1.7 \\ +1.7 \end{array} $	\$517,530 2,551,696 220,635 331,836 1,001,484 804,391	\$517, 647 2, 634, 434 236, 369 339, 234 983, 171 785, 147	+3.2 +7.1 +2.2 -1.8 -2.4
Railroads, class I (August 15, 1923 September 15, 1923			7, 055 9, 493	-1.4	² \$263, 145, 797 ² \$248, 173, 732		5.

¹ Increase of less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

Reports are available from 3,185 establishments for a comparison

of data between October, 1923, and October, 1922.

These reports from identical establishments in the two years show an increase in the 12 months of 9.2 per cent in the number of employees, an increase of 21.5 per cent in total pay rolls; and an increase of 11.3 per cent in average weekly earnings.

Thirty-one of the 43 separate industries show increased employ-

ment, while 40 show increased pay rolls.

The greatest increase in employees in the year was 51 per cent in the pottery industry, reflecting the strike of 1922, followed by over

23 per cent in the automobile industry.

The greatest increases in pay-roll totals were 69 per cent in the pottery industry, 41 per cent in the foundry and machine-shop products industry, and nearly 39 per cent in the electrical machinery industry.

The greatest decreases in both employees and earnings during the 12 months were in the automobile tire and carriage and wagon

industries.

Considering the industries by groups, all but stamped ware and the tobacco industries show increases in the number of employees. These increases range from 21 per cent in the vehicles group and 16 per cent in the iron and steel group, to 1 per cent in the leather group. In pay roll totals every group except stamped ware shows an increase in the 12-month period. These increases range from 35 per cent each in the iron and steel and vehicles groups, 25 per cent in the stone, clay, and glass products group, 20 per cent in the food products group, and 18 per cent in the lumber group, to 5 per cent in the leather group.

² Amount of pay roll for one month.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS DURING ONE WEEK IN OCTOBER, 1922, AND OCTOBER, 1923.

	Estab-	Number o	n pay roll	Per	Amount	Per	
Industry.	lish- ments.	October, 1922.	October, 1923.	of change.	October, 1922.	October, 1923.	of change
Food and kindred products:							
Slaughtering and meat packing	77 38	82,535 5,342	91,115 5,557	$+10.4 \\ +4.0$	\$1,833,121 147,246 398,700	\$2,227,237 152,705 467,894	+21. +3.
Flour. Baking Textiles and their products:	123	14,411	15,995	+11.0		467,894	+17.
	135	97,637 46,088 35,172 45,231 18,533 16,070 42,739 20,231 9,250 3,064	99,981 45,581 36,900 48,781 19,816 15,757 43,245 20,164	+2.4	1,548,986 783,238 691,322 991,710 499,707 338,233 1,081,838 286,587 290,993	1,700,244	+9.
Hosiery and knit goods. Silk goods. Woolen goods. Carpets. Dyeing and finishing textiles.	132	46,088	45,581	+2.4 -1.1	783,238	1,700,244 821,414 803,543 1,192,073 562,648 367,117 1,142,501 322,233 299,262 68,038	+9. +4.
Woolen goods	113 98	35,172 45 931	48 781	+4.9 +7.8	691,322	1 102 073	+16. +20.
Carpets	21	18,533	19,816	+6.9	499,707	562,648	+12.
Dyeing and finishing textiles	27	16,070	15,757	-1.9	338,233	367,117	+8. +5.
		20 231	20 164	$+1.2 \\ -0.3$	1,081,838	1,142,501	+12.
Clothing, women's	73	9,250	9,373 2,949	+1.3	290,993	299,262	+2.
Shirts and collars. Clothing, women's Millinery and lace goods. Iron and steel and their products:	18	3,064	2,949	-3.8	66,202	68,038	+2.
Iron and steel and their products: Iron and steel	126	169,037	195,396	+15.6	4,436,780	5,922,733	+33.
ucts	160	77,905	93,432	+19.9	2,102,476	2,965,840	+41.
Hardware	20	77,905 15,390	17,181	+11.6	331,080	449,537	+35.
Stoves Lumber and its remanufactures:	22	6,579	6,172	-6.2	183,057	187,477	+2.
Lumber, sawmills	175	54,126	58,137	+7.4	980,258	1,210,310	+23.
Lumber, sawmillsLumber, millwork	101	14,698	15,113	$+2.8 \\ +3.2$	355,554	391,493	+10.
Furniture Leather and its finished products:	93	18,612	19,203	+3.2	439,470	495,723	+12
Leather. Boots and shoes, not including	120	26,578	25,910	-2.5	617,770	667,463	+8.
rubber	115	66,510	68,224	+2.6	1,483,954	1,543,093	+4.
Paper and printing: Paper and pulp Paper boxes. Printing, book and job Printing, newspapers Chemicals and allied products:	97	32,245	32,857	+1.9	786,014	858,049	+9.
Paper boxes	56	9,861	10.408	+5.5	208,511	224,230	+7.
Printing, book and job	80	14,938	15,692	+5.0	513,275 937,648	553,124	+7.
Chemicals and allied products:	96	25,937	28,158	+8.6	937,648	1,061,688	+13
Chemicals	OT	9,424	9,022	-4.3	224,249	254,268	+13
Fertilizers. Petroleum refining	22 29	2,336	2,340 37,175	+0.2	40,385	45,912	+13
Stone, clay, and glass products:	29	34,673	01,110	+7.2	1,159,318	1,200,424	+3
Stone, clay, and glass products: Brick and tile Pottery	140	12,619 3,779 24,248	13,783	+9.2	296,822	379,324	+27
	18 86	3,779	5,727 24,743	+51.5 +2.0	94,795 565,858	160,346 652,004	$+69 \\ +15$
Metal products, other than iron and steel:	30	24,240	27,170	72.0	000,000	002,002	710
and steel: Stamped and enameled ware	12	5,645	5,397	-4.4	131,828	127,544	-3
Tobacco manufactures:	0						
Tobacco, chewing and smoking Tobacco, cigars and cigarettes	105	1,474 24,936	1,560 23,452	+5.8 -6.0	24,213 440,024	27,361 443,335	+13
Vehicles for land transportation:							
Automobiles	109	164,825	203,906	+23.7	5,345,619	7,204,516	+34
Carriages and wagons Car building and repairing, steam-	15	1,576	1,308	-17.0	37,193	31,871	-14
railroad	101	65,228	75,841	+16.3	1,709,229	2,305,384	+34
Agricultural implements Electrical machinery, apparatus,	55	17,456	18,173	+4.1	409,548	488,382	+19
and supplies	78	63,869	77,144	+20.8	1,573,549	2,183,390	+38
Pianos and organs	12	4,421 33,206	5,026	+13.7	126,524	161,311	+27
Pianos and organs Automobile tires Shipbuilding, steel	58 18	33,206 18,167	5,026 27,112 17,384	$-18.4 \\ -4.3$	921,482 444,443	780,640 504,061	-15 + 13
(Cant 15 1000		1 000	770		1 \$220 1	10 050	
Railroads, Class I Sept. 15, 1922 Sept. 15, 1923		1,692,779 1,929,493		1 \$232,140,858 1 +14.0 \$248,173,732		79 729	1+6

¹ Amount of pay roll for one month.

Per capita earnings increased in October as compared with September in 42 of the 51 industries considered; women's clothing and automobiles leading with 17 per cent and 9.8 per cent, respectively. The largest decreases were 4.5 per cent in the cotton-goods industry and 4.6 per cent in the fertilizer industry.

Comparing per capita earnings in October, 1923, with those in October, 1922, increases are shown in all of the 43 industries for which data are available except in the flour and petroleum industries. The greatest increases were 21.6 per cent in the hardware industry, 18.6 per cent in steel shipbuilding, 18.5 per cent in chemicals, 17.6 per cent in foundry and machine-shop products, and 17 per cent in the brick and tile industry.

COMPARISON OF PER CAPITA EARNINGS—OCTOBER, 1923, WITH SEPTEMBER, 1923, AND OCTOBER, 1923, WITH OCTOBER, 1922.

Industry.	in Oc 1923, a	t change etober, as com- with—	Industry.	Per cent change in October, 1923, as com- pared with—		
	Septem- ber, 1923.	Octo- ber, 1922.	Industry.	September, 1923.	Octo- ber, 1922.	
Clothing, women's. Automobiles. Pianos and organs Tobacco: Cigars and cigarettes. Chemicals. Iron and steel. Shirts and collars. Tobacco: Chewing and smoking Structural ironwork. Car building and repairing, steam- railroad. Glass. Hardware Pottery. Car building and repairing, elec- tric-railroad. Hosiery and knit goods. Furniture. Agricultural implements. Steam fittings and steam and hot- water heating apparatus. Sugar refining, not including beet sugar. Flour. Electrical machinery, apparatus,	+9.8 +7.62 +5.66 +5.3 +4.9 +4.8 +4.1 +4.1 +3.5 +3.5 +3.4 +3.3 +3.2	+1.5 +8.9 +12.2 +7.1 +18.5 +15.5 +12.8 +6.8 +11.6 -6.1 +9.3 +14.5	Dyeing and finishing textiles. Foundry and machine-shop products Brick and tile Printing, book and job Carpets. Carriages and wagons. Woolen goods. Printing, newspaper. Silk goods. Lumber, sawmills. Clothing, men's Boots and shoes, rubber Cement. Petroleum refining. Paper boxes. Stamped and enameled ware. Machine tools Paper and pulp. Automobile tires. Slaughtering and meat packing. Confectionery and ice cream. Boots and shoes, not including rubber. Millinery and lace goods.	+2.4 +2.1 +2.0 +1.7 +1.6 +1.5 +1.1 +1.1 +1.1 +0.9 +0.4 +0.3 -0.1 -0.5 -0.9 -2.2	-3.4 +1.8 +1.2 +7.1 +3.7 +10.0	
and supplies. Leather. Stoves. Lumber, millwork.	+3.1 +3.1 +3.1 +2.9	+14.9 +10.8 +9.2 +7.1	Baking Shipbuilding, steel. Cotton goods Fertilizers	-4.5	+5.7 +18.6 +7.3 +13.5	

Reports as to operating time in October were received from 6,070 establishments. A total of these reports from 51 industries shows that 80 per cent of the establishments reporting were on a full-time schedule, 19 per cent on a part-time schedule, and 1 per cent were not in operation.

Nearly one-half of the 80 per cent of the 6,070 establishments working full time also reported full-capacity operation, about one-third reported part-capacity operation, and the remainder failed to report

as to capacity operation.

The following table expands the full-time reports in a few industries. Establishments in the silk goods, men's clothing, foundry and machine-shop products, machine tools, leather, and electrical machinery industries show more part-capacity than full-capacity operation, although as stated in the September report it is probable that a majority of the establishments failing to report as to capacity were operating at full capacity.

- A-

		blishn ing ful				Establishments report- ing full time—				
Industry.	And full capacity.	And part ca- pac- ity.	But not ca- pac- ity.	Total.	Industry.	And full capacity.	And part ca-pac-ity.	But not ca- pae- ity.	Total	
Flour	63 124 72 50 62 33 26 52 149 20 131	34 26 44 63 40 39 16 45	19 42 23 6 10 33 36 16 82 14 31	116 192 139 119 112 105 78 113 419 105 175	Boots and shoes. Paper and pulp. Paper boxes. Book and job printing. Cement Brick and tile. Pottery. Glass. Automobiles Steam-railroad car building and repairing.	41 51 50 58 41 132 20 45 55	34 8 30 54 10 33 10 29 44	22 23 27 58 10 43 10 14 30	97 82 107 170 61 208 40 88 129	
Furniture	111 26	28 46	50 16	189 88	paratus and supplies	27	30	29	86	

FULL AND PART-TIME OPERATION IN MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS IN OCTOBER, 1923.

Industry.	I	Establi: repo	shmen rting.	ts		Establishments reporting.				
	Total.	ating full	Per cent operating part time.	Per cent idle.	Industry.	Total.	Per cent operating full time.	oper- ating part	Per cent idle.	
Food and kindred					Paper and printing:	-				
products:					Paper and pulp	138	59	38	2	
Slaughtering and meat	170	02	77		Paper boxes	117	91	9 12		
Confectionery and ice	76	93	7		Printing, book and job. Printing, newspapers	193 135	88	12		
cream	104	89	11		Chemicals and allied	100	100			
Flour	237	49	50	(1)	products:					
Baking	202	90	10	(-)	Chemicals	55	80	18	2	
Sugar refining, not in-	202	00	20		Fertilizers	98	47	51	1 6	
cluding beet sugar	8	75	25		Petroleum refining	38	100			
Textiles and their					Stone, clay, and glass				1	
products:					products:					
Cotton goods	241	80	20		Cement	64	95	3	1 2	
Hosiery and knit goods.	192	72	28		Brick and tile	274	76	18		
Silk goods	176	68	32	(1)	Pottery	48	83	17		
	151	74 82	26 18		Metal products other	120	73	9	18	
Dyeing and finishing	11	82	18		than iron and steel:					
textiles	66	52	48		Stamped and enam-					
Clothing, men's	160	66	34	(1)	eled ware	32	84	16	1	
Shirts and collars	76	64	36		Tobacco manufactures:	02	0.	20		
Clothing, women's	104	75	25		Tobacco, chewing and					
Millinery and lace					smoking	27	67	33		
goods	55	78	22		Tobacco, cigars and	300				
Iron and steel and their					cigarettes	124	81	18	1	
products:	100	200	04	8	Vehicles for land trans-					
Iron and steel Structural ironwork	166 117	68 92	24 8	8	portation: Automobiles	154	84	16	1	
Foundry and machine-	771	02	0		Carriages and wagons	34	71	29	1	
shop products	491	85	14	(1)	Car building and re-	01		20		
Hardware	34	88	12		pairing, electric-rail-					
Machine tools	124	85	14	1	road	132	98	2		
Steam fittings and					Car building and re-		1			
steam and hot-water					pairing, steam-rail-			4.4		
heating apparatus	99	88	12		road	262	83	16	-1	
Stoves	79	76	24		Miscellaneous indus-					
Lumber and its reman-					tries:				1	
ufactures: Lumber, sawmills	206	85	14	1	Agricultural imple-	58	84	14	2	
Lumber, millwork	143	93	6	1	ments Electrical machinery,	90	0.1	1.2	1	
Furniture	209	90	10	1	apparatus, and sup-					
Leather and its finished	200	00	. 20		plies	94	91	9		
products:					Pianos and organs	25	96	4		
Leather	96	92	5	3	Rubber boots and					
Boots and shoes, not		0.31			shoes	6	100			
including rubber	128	76	23	1	Automobile tires	54	57	35	7	
					Shipbuilding, steel	31	94	6		

¹ Less than one-half of 1 per cent.

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No general increase in wages movement appeared in any one industry during the month ending October 15, although some increases were reported by establishments scattered through 37 of the 51 industries here considered. However, with the exception of three industries, iron and steel, steam-railroad car building and repairing, and boots and shoes, these increases affected comparatively few employees and were for the most part in the relatively smaller establishments.

The increases, ranging from 2.5 per cent to 28.6 per cent were reported by a total of 147 establishments. The weighted average increase for the 37 industries combined was 9.6 per cent and affected 22,514 employees, being 48 per cent of the total employees in the establishments concerned, and 1 per cent of the entire number of employees in all establishments in the 51 industries covered by this report.

One establishment each in six industries reported decreases in rates of wages during the month. These decreases are shown in footnotes to the table following.

WAGE ADJUSTMENTS OCCURRING BETWEEN SEPTEMBER 15 AND OCTOBER 15, 1923

	Establis	shments.	Amount of increases.		Employees affected.			
Industry.	Total number report- ing.	Num- ber re- porting in- creases.	Range.	Average.	Total number.	In estab- lish- ments report- ing in- creases.	In all establishments reporting.	
Food and kindred products:			Per ct.	Per ct.		Per ct.	Per ct.	
Slaughtering and meat packing	84	1	6	6.0	161	8.9	0.2	
Confectionery and ice cream	137	7	5-17	6.2	406	30.1	2.0	
Flour	269	5	7-10	7.6	171	32.9	1.1	
Roking	253	3	5-20	13.7	75	21.7	.2	
Sugar refining, not including beet sugar Textiles and their products:	12	1	14.3	14.3	60	6.0	+6	
Cotton goods	253	3	8-10	8.6	272	100.0	. 2	
Hosiery and knit goods	238	2	10-18	11. 9	15	5.4	(1)	
Cills goods	221	2	5	5.0	357	78.8	.6	
Silk goods Woolen goods	159	1	5	5.0	125	100.0	.2	
W 001en goods	22	(2)	0	0.0	120	100.0	**	
Carpets	65	1	5.8	5.8	17	21.3		
Dyeing and finishing textiles	210	(2)	0.0	0.0	11	21.0		
Clothing, men's		2	10	10.0	40	17.9		
Shirts and collars	154	1	7.5	7.5	5	11.4	(1)	
Clothing, women's		2	10	10.0	318	48. 0	2.3	
Millinery and lace goods	76	2	10	10.0	910	40.0	4.	
Trop and steel	186	9	3-25	12.8	9,683	76.7	4.0	
Iron and steel. Structuralironwork.	134		2.5-12.5		25	16.3		
Foundry and machine-shop products	536	3 12	2.9-22	4.8	692	22.9		
Hardware	33	(4)	2.0 22					
Machine tools	139	4	6.5-10	8.3	17	8.8		
Steam fittings and steam and hot-water	100	5 4	5-21	15.7	115	27.4		
heating apparatus	106	3	10-19. 2	16.6	67	10.0		
Stoves	83	9	10-19. 2	10.0	08	20.0		
Lumber and its remanufactures:	235	1	10	10.0	150	59.0		
Lumber, sawmills Lumber, millwork	230	5	5-10	7.9	111	16. 0	1	
Lumber, millwork	180	9	3-10	6.1	98	11.3	1	
Furniture	254	9	3-10	0.1	98	11.0		
Leather and its finished products:	100	100					1	
Leather	129	(2)	20 10 7	0.0	0 159		2.	
Boots and shoes, not including rubber	163	1 5	4.2-10.4	9.8	2,103	55.0	2.	

Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.
No wage change reported.
Also 1 establishment reduced the rates of 75 of its 167 employees 10 per cent.
One establishment reduced the rates of 100 of its 196 employees from 5 to 10 per cent.
Also 1 establishment reduced the rates of 200 of its 592 employees 6.5 per cent.

WAGE ADJUSTMENTS OCCURRING BETWEEN SEPTEMBER 15 AND OCTOBER 15, 1923—Concluded.

	Establis	hments.	Amou	int of ases.	Employees affected.			
Industry.	Total number reporting.	Num- ber re- porting in- creases.	Range.	Average.	Total number.	In establishments reporting increases.	In all estab- lish- ments report- ing.	
Paper and printing:			Per ct.	Per ct.		Per ct.	Per ct.	
Faper and pulp. Paper boxes. Printing, book and job. Printing, newspapers. Chemicals and allied products:	175 143 216 199	(2) 8 11 8	5-10 5-15 2.5-22	9. 4 6. 5 12. 4	177 678 696	18. 0 36. 7 16. 2	1.1 2.6 1.6	
Chemicals. Fertilizers. Petroleum refining. Stone, clay, and glass products:	87 112		5-12 10-20 4. 5	5. 5 17. 3 4. 5	622 83 500	45. 0 85. 6 65. 0		
Cement. Brick and tile. Pottery. Glass.	76 315	(2) (2) (2)	8-16.7	9.6	144	94.1		
Metal products, other than iron and steel: Stamped and enameled ware		1	10-28.6	26.0	29	12.8	. :	
Tobacco, chewing and smoking Tobacco, cigars and cigarettes Vehicles for land transportation:	30 168	(2) (6)						
Automobiles Carriages and wagons Car building and repairing, electric-railroad.	38	(7)	18	18.0	100	66.7	4.5	
Car building and repairing, steam-railroad Miscellaneousindustries:	285	(2) 8	4-8	4.1	4,223	73.3	2.5	
Agriculturalimplements. Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies.	75	(2)	5-14					
Pianos and organs	. 8	(2) 8 1	5	5. 0	50			
Automobile fires		1	6. 7	6. 7	7	11. 8	(1) (1)	

1 Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.
2 No wage change reported.
6 One establishment reduced the rates of 100 of its 450 employees 8 per cent.
7 One establishment reduced the rates of its 728 employees 7 per cent.
8 Also 1 establishment reduced the rates of 110 of its 345 employees 13.5 per cent.

Employment and Earnings of Railroad Employees, September, 1922, and August and September, 1923.

HE following table shows the number of employees and the earnings in various occupations among railroad employees in September, 1923, in comparison with employment and earnings in August, 1923, and September, 1922.

The figures are for Class I roads—that is, all roads having operating

revenues of \$1,000,000 a year and over.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT AND EARNINGS OF RAILROAD EMPLOYEES IN SEPTEMBER, 1923, WITH SEPTEMBER, 1922, AND AUGUST, 1923.

[From monthly reports of Interstate Commerce Commission. As data for only the more important occupations are shown separately, the group totals are not the sum of the items under the respective groups.]

	Profession	al, clerical,	and general.	Maintena	nce of way a tures.	and struc-					
Month and year.	Clerks.	Stenog- raphers and typists.	Total for group.	Laborers (extra gang and work train).	Track and roadway section laborers.	Total for group.					
		Number	of employees	at middle o	f month.						
September, 1922. August, 1923. September, 1923.	163,344 175,054 174,964	24,100 25,486 25,571	308, 190 291, 264 290, 416	53,065 80,518 74,385	238, 460 247, 176 233, 818	420,669 471,185 450,013					
	Total earnings.										
September, 1922 August, 1923 September, 1923	\$20,041,252 22,422,615 21,629,854	\$2,776,007 3,066,260 2,986,370	\$40,616,761 39,091,319 37,950,677	\$3,756,601 7,035,978 5,980,632	\$15,887,473 19,674,396 17,029,412	\$35,253,262 45,571,541 40,772,647					
	Maintenance of equipment and stores.										
	Carmen.	Machinists.	Skilled trade helpers.	Laborers (shops, engine houses, power plants, and stores).	Common laborers (shops, engine houses, power plants, and stores).	Total for group.					
		Number	of employees	s at middle o	of month.	1					
September, 1922. August, 1923. September, 1923.	95,021 142,393 141,001	38, 555 69, 323 68, 392	94,697 138,217 135,009	42,698 50,036 49,553	49,012 68,231 65,829	410, 278 605, 120 595, 327					
		1	Total e	arnings.							
September, 1922. August, 1923. September, 1923.	\$17,941,527 21,296,296 19,458,019	\$8,869,383 11,388,894 10,526,313	\$13,962,976 15,590,360 14,203,125	\$4,399,167 4,954,528 4,716,493	\$4,277,833 5,834,966 5,268,170	\$66,811,268 80,756,009 74,759,081					
	Transportation other than train and yard, Transportation										
	Station agents.	Telegra- phers, telephones, and towermen.	Truckers (stations, warehouses, and platforms).	Crossing and bridge flagmen and gatemen.	Total for group.	(yard- masters, switch tenders, and hostlers).					
		Number	of employees	s at middle o	of month.						
September, 1922. August, 1923. September, 1923.	31,685 31,749 31,707	27, 044 27, 618 27, 764	38,646 42,100 42,922	22,205 23,256 23,244	217, 828 218, 823 219, 866	24, 513 26, 498 26, 473					
			Total ea	rnings.							
September, 1922	\$4,692,814 4,824,023 4,618,540	\$3,879,189 4,055,428 3,922,366	\$3,389,683 4,000,596 3,845,102	\$1,506,132 1,753,175 1,737,391	\$25, 214, 402 26, 468, 984 25, 509, 245	\$4,363,942 4,763,257 4,615,496					

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COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT AND EARNINGS OF RAILROAD EMPLOYEES IN SEPTEMBER, 1923, WITH SEPTEMBER, 1922, AND AUGUST, 1923—Concluded.

		Transportation, train and engine.											
Month and year.	Road conductors.	Road brakemen and flagmen.	Yard brakemen and yardmen.	Road engineers and motormen.	Road firemen and helpers.	Total for group.							
		Number	of employee	s at middle o	f month.								
September, 1922. August, 1923. September, 1923.	35,647 39,106 39,510	74,212 80,619 81,681	48,349 55,574 55,289	43,645 47,135 47,901	45,545 49,380 50,135	311,301 344,165 347,398							
			Total e	arnings.									
September, 1922	\$8,407,861 9,095,933 8,850,029	\$12,781,044 13,722,328 13,341,784	\$7,660,704 9,089,103 8,803,820	\$11,353,499 12,357,997 11,994,790	\$8,445,683 9,123,610 8,858,100	\$59,881,223 66,494,687 64,566,592							

Extent of Operation of Bituminous Coal Mines, September 22 to October 13, 1923.

CONTINUING a series of tables which have appeared in previous numbers of the Monthly Labor Review, the accompanying table shows for a large number of coal mines in the bituminous fields the number of mines closed the entire week and the number working certain classified hours per week from September 22 to October 13, 1923. The number of mines reporting varied each week, and the figures are not given as being a complete presentation of all mines but are believed fairly to represent the conditions as to regularity of work in the bituminous mines of the country. The mines included in this report ordinarily represent from 55 to 60 per cent of the total output of bituminous coal. The figures are based on data furnished the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the United States Geological Survey.

WORKING TIME IN THE BITUMINOUS COAL MINES IN THE UNITED STATES, BY WEEKS, SEPTEMBER 22 TO OCTOBER 13, 1923,

[The mines included ordinarily represent from 55 to 60 per cent of the total output. Prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from data furnishd by the United States Geological Survey.]

									Min	es.							
Week ending—	WA	sed tire eek.	less	king than ours.	8 a less	rking and than ours.	16 : less	rking and than ours.	24 less	king and than ours.	32 : less	king and than ours.	40 : less	king and than ours.	full of 48	rking time hours nore.	
		No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.
1923. Sept. 22. Sept. 29. Oct. 6 Oct. 13.	2, 266 2, 319 2, 307 2, 317	563 594 620 640	24. 8 25. 6 26. 9 27. 6	45 53 50 52	2.0 2.3 2.2 2.2	170 200 187 207	7.5 8.6 8.1 8.9	357 356 358 363	15. 8 15. 4 15. 5 15. 7	414 388 407 386	18. 2 16. 7 17. 6 16. 7	312	13.6 13.5 13.7 12.5	246 263 227 223	10, 9 11, 3 9, 8 9, 6	162 153 143 157	7.1 6.6 6.2 6.8

Recent Employment Statistics.

Iowa.1

THE percentage fluctuations in the numbers on the pay rolls in the principal industry groups in Iowa from August, 1922, to August, 1923, and from September, 1922, to September, 1923, are shown in the following table:

PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE IN EMPLOYMENT IN SPECIFIED INDUSTRY GROUPS IN IOWA, AUGUST AND SEPTEMBER, 1923, AS COMPARED WITH AUGUST AND SEPTEMBER, 1922.

	Per cent ofin	crease from—
Industry group.	August, 1922, to August, 1923.	September, 1922, to September, 1923.
Food and kindred products Textiles Iron and steel work Lumber products. Leather products. Paper products, printing and publishing Patent medicines, chemicals and compounds Stone and clay products. Tobacco and cigars. Various industries	14. 9 25. 8 7. 8 9. 0	5.1 19.8 23.8 21.7 9.4 5.4 3.6 22.7 a 15.6 a 39.3
Total	16. 4 90. 0	3. 74.

a Decrease.

Massachusetts.2

STATISTICS of employment and earnings in 796 manufacturing establishments in Massachusetts for a specified week in August and September, 1923, are given below:

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES AND AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS IN MASSACHUSETTS MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS, WEEK INCLUDING OR ENDING NEAREST TO THE 15TH OF AUGUST AND SEPTEMBER, 1923.

	Num- ber of		f employees ly roll.	Average weekly earnings.		
Industries.	estab- lish- ments.	August, 1923.	September,	August, 1923.	September, 1923.	
Automobiles, including bodies and parts. Boot and shoe cut stock and findings. Boots and shoes. Boxes, paper. Boxes, wooden packing. Bread and other bakery products. Cars and general shop construction and repairs, steam	52 82 25	2,730 2,221 30,971 2,279 1,012 1,666	2,676 2,244 30,762 2,366 1,006 1,669	\$30, 75 22, 53 24, 73 19, 82 21, 89 29, 49	\$33. 73 23. 88 24. 87 20. 48 23. 92 28.80	
Cars and generalishop construction and repairs, steam railroad companies. Clothing, men's. Clothing, women's. Confect ionery. Cotton goods. Cutlery and tools. Dyeing and finishing, textiles.	28 24 14 43 25	3,319 2,820 846 3,533 38,926 4,954 5,980	3,379 2,698 889 3,929 37,553 5,029 6,175	27. 42 23. 52 17. 67 18. 27 20. 51 23. 70 19. 39	31. 83 23. 32 16. 90 18. 72 21. 29 23. 83 22, 21	

¹ Iowa. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Iowa Employment Survey, Des Moines, September, 1923. ² Mimeographed material from the Department of Labor and Industries of Massachusetts.

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES AND AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS IN MASSACHUSETTS MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS, WEEK INCLUDING OR ENDING NEAREST TO THE 15TH OF AUGUST AND SEPTEMBER, 1923—Concluded.

	Num- ber of	Number of on pa	employees y roll.	Average weekly earnings.		
Industries.	estab- lish- ments.	August, 1923.	September,	August, 1923.	Sep- tember 1923.	
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	12	11,661	11,490	\$27.98	\$27.30	
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies Foundry and machine shop products	61	7, 823	7, 894	29. 34	30, 01	
Furniture	17	7 944	1,937	22. 81	25. 80	
Furniture. Hosiery and knit goods.	10	4, 034 1, 409 4, 810	7, 894 1, 937 3, 838	17.92	17.77	
lewelry. Leather, tanned, curried, and finished	22	1,409	1,492	23.68	23.38	
Leather, tanned, curried, and finished	27	4,810	4,661	25. 62	26.04	
Machiné tools	14	1,429 742	1,396 742	26. 41	25. 36	
Musical instruments	5	742	742	25. 30	26.72	
Paper and wood pulp. Printing and publishing, book and job	21	5,776	5,651	25. 91 30. 25	25. 81 31. 27	
Printing and publishing, book and Job	36 11	5,029	2, 986 2, 526 3, 321	36. 58	36. 89	
Printing and publishing, newspaper	10	2,400	2, 320	23. 42	25. 66	
Fills goods		3, 029 2, 488 3, 225 2, 903 1, 431	2,783	20. 95	20. 3	
Silk goods. Slaughtering and meat packing	4	1, 431	1,410	27. 44	25. 82	
Stationery goods	9	1,282	1,336	18. 59	19. 24	
ratus.	6	1.628	1,695	25, 27	27.32	
Pextile machinery and parts.	15	1,628 7,854	7,961	28. 07	28, 5	
Pobacco.	7	441	1,321	20. 59	26.6	
Woolen and worsted goods		19,979	20, 277	22.19	22.4	
All other industries	93	42, 069	41,004	24. 97	27.16	
Total	796	227, 214	226, 096	24.06	24. 9	

Reports from the above tabulated establishments show 1,118, or 0.5 per cent, fewer persons on the pay roll in September than in August, 1923, an advance of \$171,943, or 3.1 per cent, in the total pay roll, and an increase of 88 cents, or 3.7 per cent, in the average weekly

earnings per employee.

The labor market in the districts in which the Boston (two offices), Springfield, and Worcester public employment offices operate improved slightly in September, 1923, as shown by the reports of the number of persons asked for by employers and the number of individuals placed. Usually there is some reduction in the demand for workers in July and August, but the seasonal decline was rather more marked in 1923 than in 1922. The renewed activity in September, 1923, was a very hopeful sign, and it seems probable that the demand for employees through the State employment offices will soon be as great as in the corresponding months of the preceding year. The number of persons called for at State employment offices by employers in September, 1923, was 3,946 persons—21 per cent below the number demanded in September, 1922. The total number of persons placed in September, 1923, was 3,170—9.5 per cent less than last year's record for that month.

In the first nine months of 1923 the number of persons called for through the four offices by employers was 40,618 and the number of persons placed 31,882, an increase of 9.3 per cent in the number of persons called for and of 12.7 per cent in the number of persons

placed as compared to the first nine months of 1922.

Minnesota.

N OCTOBER, 1923, approximately normal employment conditions throughout Minnesota were reported by the industrial commission of that State. The number of persons referred to positions from the free employment offices of the State in St. Paul, Minneapolis, and Duluth was 8,377, of whom 679 were farm hands sent to farmers in various sections of Minnesota. This was an increase of 503 in the number of persons referred and an increase of 121 in the number of farm hands furnished farmers in the corresponding month of 1922.

According to the commissioner in charge of the Minnesota public employment service, there should be, if the weather is seasonable, a steady demand extending well into the winter for labor in building construction and road work.

As an evidence of normal business conditions for mid autumn, the commissioner calls attention to the clerical and professional placements made by the State employment offices in October, 1923.

Conference of International Association on Unemployment.1

HE International Association on Unemployment, which was organized in 1910 as a sister society to the International Association for Labor Legislation, was compelled to suspend its activities for nearly 10 years on account of the war. Its work was resumed recently at a general meeting which was held at Luxemburg September 9 to 11, 1923. The meeting was attended by about 150 delegates, representing 18 countries. Mr. Herbert Hoover, Secretary of the United States Department of Commerce, had sent Dr. John B. Andrews to attend the meeting in the capacity of semiofficial observer. The International Labor Office was represented by its director, Mr. Albert Thomas.

After an introductory address by Mr. Thomas, in which he pointed out the intensity of the unemployment crisis of 1921-22, which still continues in certain countries, the meeting appointed a committee consisting of Dr. John B. Andrews (United States), J. L. Cohen (Great Britain), Max Lazard (France), and Leon Troclet (Belgium), and charged with submitting to the meeting a draft resolution embodying a general program of action. The draft resolution submitted by this committee was adopted by the meeting in the following form:

The International Association on Unemployment, in conference assembled on 11

September, 1923, at Luxemburg, Having considered the state of the labor market throughout the world and the alarming number of workers involuntarily unemployed, urges on all countries a very careful reconsideration of the whole menacing problem of unemployment;

Considering that the economic disorganization provoked by the war is aggravated

by the failure to adopt an economic policy of international cooperation, Invites its national sections to examine the following suggestions: (1) To substitute as soon as possible for the policy of exaggerated protection, which is a relic of war economy incompatible with a state of peace, a policy of greater freedom

for the circulation of goods, effected where possible by customs unions between countries;
(2) To improve the financial situation and, above all, to prevent further monetary catastrophes, with the assistance of the principal countries concerned in the reestablishment of normal international financial relations;

¹ International Labor Office. Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, Sept. 21, 1923, pp. 20-25.

(3) To establish in each country, and as far as possible according to a uniform system, complete statistics of production and of economic resources and needs, so as to encourage the cooperation of the managers of industry in providing a good distribution of work and of the factors of production throughout the world;

(4) To facilitate a desirable distribution of population;
(5) To develop an adequate and permanent system of public employment exchanges,

with cooperation between the systems of different countries;

(6) To make unemployment insurance general and to consider the suggestions of experts and the result of practical experience with a view to bringing about greater regularity of employment;

(7) To promote the long-range planning of public works so as to increase their execu-

tion during periods of industrial depression;

(8) To increase educational facilities and to develop machinery for vocational guidance with a view to directing labor into the most desirable and efficient channels.

It is increasingly apparent that only through a policy of international solidarity

can the material and moral patrimony of each nation be conserved.

The International Association on Unemployment therefore recommends, in view of the alarming nature of the present situation and the threatening consequences which are to be feared, that prompt action should be undertaken on the above-mentioned program.

Unemployment in Germany, October, 1923.

T THE beginning of the present year unemployment in Germany had decreased to a negligible amount, there having been even less unemployment than in normal pre-war times. The total collapse of the mark has, however, been accompanied by such a turn for the worse in the employment situation that Germany to-day has to deal with a more serious unemployment problem than any other country in the world. A cable from the American commercial attaché at Berlin dated October 18, 1923 (Commerce Reports, Oct. 29, 1923, p. 271), says:

Figures obtained from a reliable source connected with the Government reflect the seriousness of the employment situation in Germany. It is estimated that on October 16 there were 1,500,000 workers totally unemployed in the unoccupied sections of the country. In addition to these there were between 4,000,000 and 5,000,000

workers on part time, including 2,000,000 working only half time or less.

The unemployment doles paid by the Government and the individual municipalities are totally inadequate to cover the cost of necessities. The maximum allowance to a married man with wife and two children for the week ending October 16 was 1,800,000,000 marks a week, whereas a loaf of bread weighing 1,200 grams cost 480,-000,000 marks, a pound of potatoes 50,000,000, and a pound of margarine 900,000,000 at that time. The minimum allowance for a married man was 1,400,000,000 marks, for an unmarried man 810,000,000, and for an unmarried woman 600,000,000. It is estimated that the dole received by a worker covers about one-third of the wages he would have received if working. For example, a married man with wife and two children received in Berlin for a week of half-time work 3,100,000,000 marks in wages and a dole of 1,500,000,000 marks.

Effect on the English Worker of Unemployment and Unemployment

IN THE summer of 1922 a group of Englishmen ¹ decided to make a study of the unemployment situation in England in order to supplement the information given in official reports and to gain a fuller realization of what the prevailing depression actually meant to the life of the country. Nine local investigations were under-

¹The persons composing this group were: J. J. Astor, A. J. Bowley, Henry Clay, Robert Grant, W. T. Layton, P. J. Pybus, B. Seebohm Rowntree, George Schuster, and F. D. Stuart.

taken during August and September, and the reports of this work seemed of such interest that it was agreed to print the most important findings "as a contribution to an understanding of the present emergency." These local reports were much condensed and a general survey of the situation was prefixed, the whole being published under the title, "The Third Winter of Unemployment." One important part of the book is the study made of the effect upon the workers themselves of unemployment and of the measures taken to relieve it.

As to physical effects, the situation is rather complex. There was general agreement that as yet the degree of destitution witnessed in former trade depressions had not appeared. Actual starvation had been prevented, and even where the adults were showing signs of undernutrition, the children were not yet affected. In general, health was good. In Birmingham, according to the health authorities, it was even better than usual. "The health of the city has never been quite so good as at present, despite overcrowding."

The reason everywhere given is the same. Health is better than in pre-war depressions because the pre-war starvation is prevented. The unemployment insurance benefit, especially since it was proportioned to need by the allowances for dependents, has relieved many who would have endured months of privation before resort to the poor law; while the greater resort to the poor law, and the more generous scale of relief awarded, have assured a regular supply of good food in many homes that were not too well fed when trade was good.

The strain has been much more severe, it was found, among the skilled artisans and small tradesmen than among the unskilled, who are at the best of times poorly paid and irregularly employed. latter were almost at once obliged to take advantage of relief measures; the maintenance thus gained was not far below their customary standard of living, and the report suggests that in some cases the change in the real position of their families was for the better. But with the workman normally employed at wages insuring a fair living, the position was very different. The depression followed a period of abnormal activity during which the workers had grown used to a better scale of living, which they hoped and believed would be perma-The change in their manner of living, due to unemployment, was much greater than in the case of the unskilled workers, and to the change was added the nervous strain of watching the exhaustion of their savings, the wearing out of their clothes, furniture, and other acquisitions of the boom periods, and the worry of enforced idleness. "There is abundant evidence of mental strain and suffering in this class."

Apart from destitution, both employers and workers are aware of an unfortunate physical effect of prolonged unemployment—the loss of skill through lack of opportunity to exercise it, or an actual impairment of ability to do fine work as a result of working at the rough and heavy jobs which are usually offered as relief work. Thus from Burnley, the investigators report that the authorities prefer excavation for relief work, because it requires neither skill nor expensive materials, but that this is most unsuitable for weavers—Burnley is a textile town—"for it hardens their hands and obviously lessens their efficiency in their regular occupation, in which the rapid handling of delicate threads of cotton yarn plays a great part." In Stoke-on-Trent, a pottery town, there was no complaint of the

kind of relief work furnished, but the loss of skill through unemployment was stressed.

An official of the Pottery Operatives' Union took a very grave view of this question, as did the assistant manager of one of the employment exchanges. The latter definitely stated that employers were not registering their vacancies at the exchanges because they did not want men who had been long out of work.

Similar reports came from other places, and there was pretty general agreement that the danger of this kind of deterioration is progressive.

Clearly, the value of the worker if reemployed to-day would be less than it was in 1920. The fall in value is, so far, only temporary, and the period needed for the recovery of skill and confidence would not be long; yet the fact indicates a real danger.

Turning to the morale of the unemployed worker, the investigators find that this question, too, has several sides. There is little or no evidence of the loss of self-dependence which maintenance without work is often supposed to produce. The men are not growing fond of idleness and manifesting a disposition to depend on public relief rather than to seek work. Rather they appear to be, as at Burnley, "heartily sick of doing nothing, and want work for its own sake in many cases." Their anxiety to get back to work was testified to by employers, employment exchange officials, and trade-union secretaries, as well as by individual workmen interviewed. Two conclusions were reached on this point.

The demoralization that, according to pre-war theories, would have been expected to result from the provision of maintenance without work has not yet shown itself. * * * *

The longer a man is out of work the greater the danger that he may lose the habit of self-dependence; but up to the present the greater provision of relief has acted rather as a support to self-respect and a safeguard against demoralization. Maintenance without employment may be demoralizing, but unemployment without maintenance is much more certain in its demoralizing effect.

In some other respects it is agreed that morale has suffered. One of the most serious effects was said to be the discouragement to thrift and foresight. The workers who lived carefully and tried to provide for the future find that the utmost result of their efforts is that they are enabled to put off dependence on the uninsurance payments or the final resort to the poor law for a few months longer than their thriftless neighbors, and inevitably they question whether their self-denial has justified itself. Discouragement and resentment affect them profoundly.

The case of the small tradesmen in Blaina who have had to close their shops and sell their houses, and the case of many a careful artisan who has had to part with the savings that he had accumulated for the education of his children, leave a bitterness of spirit that may not issue in any revolutionary activity—since the saving man is not usually a revolutionary—but does change a man's outlook on society.

From all their conclusions the investigators except one class—the young men who spent in the army the years which would normally have been devoted to apprenticeship or to industrial training. They have not been habituated to industrial work and most of them possess no special skill. They can not be held responsible for their condition, but the fact remains that they constitute a serious problem.

Many of these are regarded to-day as almost useless. They have nothing to offer which is of any great value in the labor market. They have been at a disadvantage

because work has been given first to married men. They have been out of work for long periods, just at the time when their mental and moral faculties are most sensitive, and the result is that they now form a section which employers and public officials are very much inclined to label "demoralized."

Among this class, the investigators feel, there is grave danger that maintenance without employment may lead to a permanent loss of self-dependence, and it is suggested more than once that for them maintenance should be made contingent upon taking some

form of industrial training.

It must be remembered that the conclusions here discussed were reached more than a year ago, at the beginning of the third winter of unemployment. The investigators themselves expressed doubts as to what the conditions might be should the depression continue for another year or even longer.

Report of the British Unemployment Grants Committee.1

THIS is the second (interim) report covering the proceedings from March 3, 1922, to June 28, 1923, but an appendix gives the first (interim) report, recounting proceedings from December, 1920, to March 2, 1922, so that the whole of the committee's work is covered. In view of the depression prevailing in the autumn of 1920, the Government decided to give financial aid to local authorities who would undertake approved schemes of useful work for the sake of providing employment, and this committee was appointed to pass upon the schemes and to administer the funds provided. A sum of £3,000,000 (\$14,599,500 par) was at first voted for this purpose, but this has been materially increased from time to time. Two different plans for giving help have been used. Under the first the committee pays 60 per cent of the wage bill, and under the second it undertakes to pay from 50 to 65 per cent of interest and sinking fund charges for from 5 to 15 years, according to the character of the work under consideration. The committee summarizes its work as follows:

The committee have, from the commencement of their operations in December, 1920, up to June 28, 1923, dealt with 9,444 schemes of work which have been 1920, up to June 28, 1923, dealt with 9,444 schemes of work which have been submitted to them by many hundreds of local authorities; 2,592, of an estimated value of over £12,000,000 [\$58,398,000, par] have been approved for direct grants, amounting to £3,320,000 [\$16,156,780, par], on the basis of 60 per cent of the wages cost; and 3,601 schemes involving a total expenditure to be defrayed from loan of £28,837,696 [\$140,338,648, par] have been approved for grant in respect of interest and sinking fund charges. Commitments and provisional approvals affect schemes of a further value of £475,000 [\$2,311,588, par].

The total volume of direct employment provided as a result of the various schemes is estimated to amount approximately to 1,500,000 man-months.

The committee discusses at some length a wage provision which has roused bitter opposition from the workers. If a State-aided scheme is carried out directly by the local authorities, they are required to pay unskilled labor a lower rate than their usual standard, the reduction generally, at that time, being 25 per cent. This the committee justifies on the ground that the wage fund can thus be made to cover a greater number of men; that the employees, being

¹Great Britain. [Treasury.] Unemployment Grants Committee. Second (interim) report of proceedings from March 3, 1922, to June 28, 1923. London, 1923. 16, 21 pp.

recruited from all classes and unused to such work, can not give the standard output; that it is undesirable to compete in any way with ordinary employment; and that these are really emergency works designed primarily to relieve distress. The committee admits, however, that this wage policy brings about some awkward situations.

The rate of wages being paid on most relief works is now less than formerly, and indeed in some cases, particularly in rural districts, 75 per cent of the local authority's rate has worked out at a figure so low as to compare unfavorably with the amount obtainable by unemployed men by way of poor relief, where the men were married men with families. * * * In other cases it would appear that it is almost as advantageous financially for a married man with a family to do nothing and to draw out relief as to be employed on State-aided works.

Unemployment Insurance by Industry in Great Britain.

HEN the English unemployment insurance act of 1920 was passed it contained a section permitting any industry which wished to take entire responsibility for its own unemployment to contract out of the general scheme, under certain carefully detailed conditions. The abnormal unemployment which has prevailed since the passage of the act threw such a strain upon the finances of the general scheme that by the summer of 1921 it was felt necessary to withdraw this permission until more normal conditions should obtain, but interest in the idea was not given up, and the Ministry of Labor has recently published a report on the subject, giving the conditions under which special schemes were permitted by the act of 1920, discussing difficulties in the way of establishing satisfactory plans and giving details concerning the one scheme which was brought into effect before permission was revoked.

Under the act of 1920 a special scheme can be established only for the whole of an industry within a given area, and it must cover all the work people employed in that industry, regardless of their occupations. Power is given to exclude specific classes of workers, if the Minister of Labor approves, but this power is closely restricted. Persons who are not eligible for benefits under the general unemployment insurance

scheme can not be included in a special scheme.

In general, a special scheme must be devised by the joint industrial council for the industry concerned, or, if no such body exists, by an association of representatives of employers and employees so constituted as to represent a substantial majority of the employees in the industry. It must give a definite right to unemployment benefits, and these may not be less than those provided under the general scheme. Subject to this proviso, the amount and duration of benefits may be laid down by the scheme itself. The Government will make an annual contribution to its fund, though on a less liberal basis than to the general scheme, the ruling in this respect being as follows:

An annual grant to special schemes is made out of State funds * * * The grant is limited to one or other of the following amounts, whichever is the less, viz:

(i) One-fourth of the contributions paid by employers and employees under the provisions of the special scheme; or

¹Great Britain. Ministry of Labor. Employment and insurance department. Report on the administration of section 18 of the unemployment insurance act, 1920. London, 1923. 44 pp. Cmd. 1913.

(ii) A sum not exceeding 30 per cent of the Exchequer contributions which would have been paid under the general scheme, at the original rates of contributions in respect of the persons to whom the special scheme applies, if the special scheme had not been in operation.

Other provisions deal with machinery for collecting contributions, receiving claims, and paying benefits, safeguarding the funds, verifying the statements as to unemployment or underemployment of the

claimants, and similar practical details.

Demarcation seems to be one of the principal difficulties in the way of establishing special schemes. Industries are not separated from one another by hard and fast lines. They overlap and interlace, and even an establishment clearly belonging to one industry may have one or more departments carrying on work claimed by another. Employees are even harder to keep within the limits of a strict classification. A ship joiner may on occasion work in the building trades; a machinist may be employed by any one of a number of industries; an unskilled laborer may pass from one industry to another half a dozen times within a single year, and these interchanges create serious difficulties for those trying to establish special schemes.

Moreover, this aspect of special schemes is probably responsible to some extent for the objection raised to the whole principle of insurance by industries on the ground that any such system is unfair to certain workers and particularly to the large interchangeable fringe of unskilled laborers.

Again, it requires a considerable degree of tact, initiative, and driving power to put through a special scheme, since its establishment requires the cooperation of a large number of employers and employees, whose views and interests may differ widely. It is easier to remain quiescent and accept the terms of the general scheme. And always there is the doubt as to whether it will prove financially advantageous for an industry to accept full responsibility for its own unemployment.

Even in an industry with a low record of unemployment the advantage of the reduced contributions under a special scheme is not large, particularly to employers, in comparison with other expenses, and is made less owing to the reduced Exchequer grant payable to a special scheme. On the other side is to be set the liability of a special scheme to meet its own charges without assistance from the wider area of the general scheme. Should bad times come, this liability might be a serious burden on the limited resources of a single industry, and it would fall at a moment when the industry was least able to bear it. It seems probable that considerations of this kind may have had a good deal of weight with those who were estimating the relative advantages of a special scheme with the alternative of remaining under the general scheme.

The special scheme adopted by the insurance industry came into effect on July 4,1921. It covers approximately 85,000 workers, 57,000 males and 28,000 females. It is administered by a joint board consisting of five employers and five employees, who hold office for two years, half of them retiring each year. The employer pays the same weekly contribution for each adult worker in his employ that is required from the employer under the general scheme, but the employee, at least for an experimental period, pays nothing.

Normally, no contribution is paid by the employee. * * * In the event of a deficiency being disclosed after the scheme has been in operation for seven years a contribution limited to one-half the current rate of contribution payable by employed persons under the general scheme may be imposed on the employees.

Benefits are on a slightly more liberal scale than under the general scheme. The periods for which they are to be paid correspond closely to those of the general scheme, but the waiting time is three days, instead of six. For the first year the receipts under the special scheme amounted to £236,382 (\$1,150,353, par), benefits paid out to the unemployed were £31,651 (\$154,030, par), and expenses of administration were £17,672 (\$86,001, par), showing a balance on hand at the end of the year of £187,059 (\$910,323, par). During the year 4,300 claims for benefit were made.

HOUSING.

Housing Situation in New York City.1

URING the week beginning October 15, 1923, the New York State Housing Commission held a series of hearings in New York City to secure evidence bearing on the question of whether or not an attempt should be made to obtain an extension of the rent laws beyond February, 1924, the date now set for their termination. The hearings were crowded, and interest in the problem seemed as intense as at any earlier date. Tenants, landfords, real estate owners, social workers, building contractors, students of social problems, and public officials were all heard, and the evidence showed a wide divergence of opinion as to the actual situation, some contending that the emergency to meet which the rent laws were enacted, if it had ever existed, had now passed, while others held that it was as acute as ever. The varying and sometimes contradictory testimony seemed, however, to point to two conclusions: First, that there is now sufficient accommodation in New York for those who can afford to pay from \$20 to \$25 or over per room per month; and second, that for those who can not pay such rents, the situation is as bad as it was in 1920, when the rent laws were first passed. Some witnesses considered it worse.

Tenement House Commissioner Mann, testifying on October 16, gave data as to the actual vacancies in tenement apartments, as

found by his department at different dates:

Out of 956,000 apartments in 1916 there were a total of 5.61 per cent of vacancies or 51 [sic] for every thousand. In March, 1917, out of 972,910 apartments, 3.66 per cent, or approximately 37 per thousand, were vacant. In 1919, when the housing shortage was beginning to be felt more acutely there were 2.18 per cent vacancies, or 21 vacancies per thousand out of a total of 982,926 apartments. In April, 1920, there were 982,408 apartments, four vacancies to every thousand. In 1921, out of 932,930 apartments, the vacancies were only 0.15 per cent, or one and a half apartments per thousand. In March, 1923, out of 1,001,457 apartments, 0.37 per cent or four in a thousand were vacant. He pointed out that at the present time the percentage of vacancies was the same as that of 1920, despite the increased number of apartments that have been built.

As a result of this situation, he testified, people were living in old and insanitary houses which would ordinarily have become obsolete. Moreover, it was impossible to enforce the tenement house laws.

If the tenement house department prosecuted every owner of a converted house on which violations have been placed by the department, between 25,000 and 30,000 persons would be camping in the parks and streets.

There was pretty general testimony that there had been much building in the last three years, but that it was not of a kind to meet the needs of the average wage earner. The superintendent of buildings in the Borough of the Bronx said that not a building to rent for

[1376]

¹Except where otherwise noted, the data on which this article is based are taken from the reports of the hearings given in the New York Evening Post and the New York Times for Oct. 15 to Oct. 20, 1923, inclusive.

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as low as \$10 a room had been put up in the Bronx for six years past. Apartments now under construction rented on the average, for about \$20 per room. The head of the Tenants' Associations of Greater New York testified that with the exception of one house put up by a semiphilanthropic association, not one tenement to rent for \$10 a room had been built for three years. On the other hand there was some testimony that the city was already overbuilt with apartments

renting at \$20 a room or over.

Professor Lindsay, of Columbia University, presented an elaborate statistical study of the whole situation, indicating that there had never been any positive evidence of real physical shortage of housing in New York City; that during the last three years and a half the increase in the number of apartments provided had outstripped the increase in the population; that rents had risen less proportionately than wages or general cost of living; and that while it is highly desirable to encourage the construction of cheap dwellings, "all possible freedom from unnecessary restrictions upon the operation of economic forces of free competition for all building construction" must be guaranteed. "Only with such encouragement to builders and investors will a sufficient surplus of housing of all classes exist to make consumers secure."

The apparent discrepancy between this testimony and that of earlier witnesses disappeared when Professor Lindsay was ques-

tioned as to the exact meaning of his data.

Professor Lindsay admitted that none of the additional construction was of any benefit to the average wage earner who could pay up to \$10 or \$12 a room. * * * On cross-examination Mr. Lindsay admitted that an emergency existed in 1920 and further that, as it applies to the average wage earner, practically the same emergency exists to-day. He said that there were old law tenements admittedly undesirable which could be had until the economic condition improved. In this case he held it was rather a part of the poverty problem and not the rent problem and was of the opinion that State interference to the extent of housing for the poor might be justified. On cross-examination again the witness admitted that the number of old law apartments was practically nil.

There was a good deal of testimony to show that rents had risen beyond the capacity of the ordinary wage earner to pay, and that consequently there was much overcrowding, even in tenements unfit for normal occupancy. Rentals on the East Side, it was testified, had jumped from \$6 and \$9 to \$16 and \$20, and even more was charged if there were a change of tenants. The head of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor gave the results of a survey covering 550 families under the care of his association, having an average income of \$75 a month. According to his testimony, "the average rent paid by this class of people in 1914 * * * was \$9.53 a month, as against \$16.13 in 1920, and \$19.13 this year. The number of persons occupying a room at this time is 1.7, or about five to three rooms."

The scarcity of cheap apartments and the increases in rents seems to have told with special severity against the negro population. It was testified that in some of the Harlem districts landlords met objections to rent increases by threatening to let the apartments to negroes. If the whites remained obdurate, the threat was carried

²Lindsay, Samuel McCune: Some Economic Aspects of the Recent Emergency Housing Legislation in New York. New York, 1923, p. VIII.

out, the newcomers being charged materially higher rents than their predecessors. Cases were cited in which colored tenants were charged \$106 a month for apartments for which whites had paid about \$35. Colored tenents were frequently charged twice or three times as much as the whites who had occupied the apartments before their coming. In order to meet these charges, they were

forced to resort to almost unbelievable overcrowding.

There was diversity of opinion as to what ought to be done about the condition of affairs. Tenants and social workers argued emphatically that the rent laws should be continued; the real estate interests, in general, thought that they should be allowed to lapse, or that, at most, their operation should be confined to apartments renting for less than \$20 a room. Some urged that it should be made compulsory upon the State and municipalities to invest part of their sinking funds in land bank bonds, so that more money might be available for building. Senator Copeland, formerly health commissioner of New York, advised the formation of a housing commission with power to determine the kind of buildings which should be erected; he also urged the adoption of zoning and the development of a system of town planning, so that provision might be made for housing workers near the industry in which they are employed. Mr. Norman, of the Building Trades Employers' Association, suggested a rather elaborate scheme of control, to make sure that housing should not be passed over for the sake of industrial or business building.

Mr. Norman suggests that some competent body, perhaps the new State Housing Commission itself, make a survey of the labor and materials which will be available for a year's construction of all kinds in the metropolis. After calculating the number of new structures which can be provided within that period, Mr. Norman would have these facts taken up by the heads of the various money lending institutions. "If," he says, "with so many men and so much material, so many structures can be erected, the money lending officials could determine the ratio of housing to schools and commercial structures. Arriving at such a conclusion, and with the ratio of new building to be put up in the course of the year established, the conference could then agree to refuse loans on buildings beyond the percentage arrived at as a result of the survey." (New York Record and Guide, October 27, 1923, p. 518.)

The commission adjourned at the end of the week, but it is intimated that further hearings may be held in other boroughs of Greater New York.

Housing for Employees in Finland.

Social Ministry of Finland, gives accounts of welfare work, including housing, undertaken for their employees by employers in Finland, information as to which was gathered by the woman factory inspectors in the course of their regular duties. The data gathered covered the following matters: Workmen's houses; measures to better the employees' economic condition; health measures; old-age pensions and homes; education, and welfare measures for children and young people; libraries and reading rooms; gymnastics, sports, etc.

¹ For an account of employers' welfare work, see p. 191 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

HOUSING. 155

The investigation covered 150 large industrial enterprises operating 222 factories. Of the 150 industries investigated, 133 had built houses for their employees. Of a total of 57,171 workers, 18,645, or 32.6 per cent, lived in houses furnished by the employer. This figure is twice that for all industry generally, showing that the large industrial undertakings have been more active than the rest of industry in meeting their employees housing needs. Of these 150 industrial establishments, 17 had provided no dwellings for their workers, 115 had built dwellings ranging in number from 2 to 100, and 12 had provided from 100 to 200; the remaining 6 owned more than 200 dwellings each.

The inspectors reported 38 per cent of the houses as good, 42 per cent as satisfactory, 15 per cent as fair, and 5 per cent as poor.

The most common type of dwelling is the so-called "workers' barracks." The original type of barracks, which is now gradually disappearing, is a two-story building having a corridor running through, with separate rooms on each side, one room being assigned to each family. In addition to being unattractive they are dangerous in case of fire and contagious diseases, and have other hygienic disadvantages. The newer type is a one-story building having two, four, or six apartments of one room and kitchen, closet, and outbuildings. Apartments with two rooms and kitchen are also now fairly common.

Besides homes for married workers a number of establishments have built homes for their unmarried workers. These rooms, however, are not, in the majority of cases, fitted for light housekeeping, which is very inconvenient, especially for the woman workers.

One firm has built two other types of houses—two-story row houses painted white with red tile roofs, and detached two-family houses painted red with white tin roofs. The row dwellings consist of a cellar, one room (with fireplace) on the first floor, and two rooms on the second floor. In addition to the kitchen garden each tenant has the right to a plat of potato land at some distance from the dwelling. Work in the gardens is done under the supervision of a garden instructor employed by the factory management so that the place resembles the so-called garden cities.

In the two and four family houses built by another firm, each dwelling consists of one or two rooms and kitchen, with private entrance, cellar, woodshed, and other outbuildings, and a garden fenced by hedges so that in time this settlement will also take on

the appearance of a garden city.

In most cases electric lights and a certain quantity of wood are furnished free. Formerly the houses also were free or were supplied as part of the wage payment, but this system is gradually being abolished in favor of the cash wage and the charging of rent, on the ground that the workers appreciate the houses more when they pay rent. Rents vary greatly, sometimes being merely a nominal sum or one sufficient to pay for the upkeep of the buildings; in other cases rates current in the community are charged. Time for giving notice is usually 14 days, or 1 month for factory workers.

²Of the total number of industrial workers employed in 1920-21 only 15.7 per cent lived in dwellings provided by the employers.

In building workmen's homes the importance of garden land is stressed both because of economic advantages as well as the effect on the workers' physical well-being. Many establishments are fixing their attention on this matter, some employing garden instructors whose duty it is, in addition to giving instruction, to arrange for lectures, exhibits, premiums, etc., to promote interest in gardens. It is stated that colony gardens are found in other countries but not to any extent in Finland, but that they are to be recommended

especially for factories in the large cities.

In an investigation begun by Socialstyrelsen covering all industries it was found that at the beginning of 1921 there were 13,715 dwellings provided by Finnish employers for their employees. Of these 51 per cent were one-room dwellings, as a rule a kitchen or room with a fireplace, but in a number of industrial enterprises the dwelling consists of one room and a share in a common kitchen. About 42 per cent of the dwellings have two rooms, usually one room and a kitchen; occasionally dwellings of two rooms and a common kitchen or two rooms without kitchen are found. Only 5 per cent of the dwellings have three rooms. Very few have four or more rooms; these are seldom occupied by workers, being usually reserved for foremen or superintendents.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS AND HYGIENE.

Electrical Code of Wisconsin.1

SINCE September 13, 1922, there has been in force in the State of Wisconsin an electrical code formulated under the auspices of the industrial commission and the railroad commission of the State. The code was prepared by a representative advisory committee, assisted by a number of technical experts. Work on the code was begun in December, 1919, and continued until May, 1922.

The introduction states that the code is based on the two national codes, viz, the national electrical code of the National Board of Fire Underwriters and the national electrical safety code of the United States Bureau of Standards. Its scope is indicated by this statement found on the first page: "Requirements for all electrical and signal equipment of places of employment, public buildings, private buildings, and overhead and underground electrical supply and signal lines, now or hereafter installed."

The code consists of an introduction and the following special parts: Part 1, dealing with supply stations, substations, and equipment; part 2, with supply and signal lines; part 3, with utilization equipment; and part 4, with safety measures to be observed in operation of equipment and lines. Parts 1, 2, and 4 are enforced by the railroad commission and part 3 by the industrial commission.

It is not possible here to comment on any of the details of the code, but attention is called to the fact that the State of Wisconsin has deemed it desirable to consolidate into a single document the provisions of the two national codes on which its code is founded.

It may be confidently stated that any State or municipality wishing to have a workable manual for the control of its electrical installations will be obliged to make a similar consolidation. Why do not the proponents of the national codes formulate such a combined code? If other jurisdictions follow the example of Wisconsin, there will be the inevitable confusion attendant on the local preparation of such codes.

Industrial Placement of Heart Patients.

A N ARTICLE on "Placing cardiac pacients in regular industries," by Mrs. John S. Sheppard, is published in the Journal of Industrial Hygiene, October, 1923 (pp. 189-204). The work of the Employment Bureau for the Handicapped in New York City especially in reference to the placement of heart patients, is reviewed in this article and a list is given of industries and occupations in which heart patients have been successfully placed. This list is

¹Wisconsin. Industrial Commission and Railroad Commission. Wisconsin State electrical code. Madison, 1922. 283 pp. First edition.

classified according to the degree of heart impairment which will

permit a person to engage in any particular occupation.

As a result of the recognition in recent years by physicians of the value not only of the work but of participation by heart patients in a gainful occupation in regular industry, much constructive work for such patients has been accomplished. In 1912 a report made by a committee appointed by the New York conference on hospital social service made the following suggestion: "That, inasmuch as cardiac cases need a protracted convalescence upon discharge from the hospital, this convalescent period of several months would provide an ideal opportunity for a study of the patient's capacity and adaptability, both physical and mental, and for the selection and teaching of a trade suitable both to his intelligence and to his physical As a result of this suggestion a convalescent home for handicap." heart patients was established in 1913 where industrial training for those with heart impairment was instituted. The men were trained in making flower pots, sun dials, fountains, and all kinds of garden furniture from cement. Later this enterprise was incorporated as the Trade School for Cardiac Convalescents.

In January, 1913, a workshop was established in New York City in which men who had been trained in this school were employed under ideal conditions. The men were carefully supervised, being given a weekly medical examination, and in practically every case the work was said to have had a beneficial effect upon the patient. This school was forced to close in 1916 as a result of the unsettled social and economic conditions resulting from the war, but the experience was sufficient to establish certain conclusions. Marked contrast was shown between the progress of those patients in the convalescent home before training was established and those later ones who had the benefit of work as an occupation. In the first annual report of the institution it was said, "The patient gets a motive, a reason for forgetting himself, a future to look forward to, and a ground for self respect."

The experience of the trade school appeared to show that in many cases the patients do not need a long period of convalescence, but can begin work suited to their capabilities either after a short convalescence or immediately upon leaving the hospital. It was shown, too, that in occupations which do not overtax the strength of the patients, they can work under the piecework system without danger to their health, proving that heart patients have a greater work

tolerance than was formerly considered to be the case.

Although this experiment was not of sufficiently long duration to show whether or not such a workshop could be self supporting, it hardly seems probable that it could, the writer says, because special workshops and factories cost too much for the small number of heart patients who can not work in occupations in regular industries which are suited to their condition. The number of patients who can not be so placed is becoming smaller as the selection of industries improves and as patients are more carefully classified in regard to work tolerance by the physician who sends them to the placement worker.

The Hospital Social Service Association took up the problem of employment for heart patients in 1918 in connection with the general problem of employment for all physically handicapped persons and their placement was undertaken by the Employment Bureau for the Handicapped, which was opened in April, 1918. In this connection the writer calls attention to the fact that a large general employment bureau for the handicapped can do more for special groups than can bureaus organized only to deal with such groups. "The larger the number and the more diversified the group of applicants for work, the more chance the employer has of finding the person that he wants for the job and consequently the more frequently he will apply to that employment bureau for workers. Also, the larger the number and the more diversified the industries with which the placement worker is in touch, the more kinds of work she can try out and the more new openings she finds for work which may be well adapted to special types of handicaps. The work becomes better known to employers in general, and the enlarged field of industries

makes better placements possible."

The Employment Bureau for the Handicapped placed 5,304 persons from the time it was established up to November 1, 1922, of whom 1,039 were heart patients. The value of this work to the individuals and to the community is shown by the fact that in one month the wages amounted to approximately \$11,660, while in the same month it cost less than \$500 to run the bureau. An employment bureau for the handicapped can not be run on the same lines as a commercial bureau, as the majority of the applicants would not come there if a fee were charged. Most of these persons have lost the desire to work and one of the most important duties of those managing such a bureau is to persuade them to try. Employers, too, can not be expected to pay for being supplied with men who are physically handicapped and about whose usefulness there is some question—a usefulness which must frequently be demonstrated to the employer. Placement of handicapped persons, therefore, requires expert knowledge on the part of the placement officer and takes so much time that it would not pay as a commercial enterprise, so that it is evident that such work must be supported by people who realize its value or it must be maintained by the State.

The average cost of placements made by the bureau in 1922 was \$3.31 for each case, showing that such a service will not become a great burden on the community and that its cost compared with that of establishing and carrying on special industries for the handi-

capped is inconsiderable.

A survey of the industries considered suitable for handicapped persons generally was made after the establishment of the bureau and a list was drawn up after consultation with the industrial experts of some of the life insurance companies. The factories to which the patients were to be sent were examined and the cooperation of the employers secured. Special attention was paid to finding suitable work for heart patients, since the result of overstrain is so easily disastrous to them.

It is estimated, the article states, that there are more than 2,000,000 persons in the United States who have heart disease. Rejections on this account by draft boards during the war amounted to 42.3 men out of every thousand, and these men were in the age group from which the greatest work output is expected, so that their mability to take their places in industry is a great economic loss.

The proper placement of handicapped persons of any type is difficult, but owing to the marked functional disturbance in heart disease which causes a highly nervous condition, heart cases are especially difficult to handle and these patients who come to the bureau for placement have frequently had a long illness and have lost the habit of work.

The assistance of the hospital social service worker who refers the patient to the bureau can be made effective by sending a dependable classification as to work tolerance and instructing the patient in regard to the importance of accepting work suited to his handicap, even if it involves taking lower wages than he has been receiving, while the importance of reporting for work when he has promised to commence work at a definite time can also be stressed by the social worker. Although the situation has improved, a dependable classification as to work tolerance is essential, and at the present time there is great difference in the tests by which patients are classified. The classification used is that of the Association for the Prevention and Relief of Heart Disease, which divides heart patients into five classes according to the degree of disability. Class I consists of patients with organic heart disease who are able to carry on habitual physical activity but who should return for examination every three months. Class II is divided into two grades, in the first of which there is slightly diminished activity necessitating their return to the clinic every month so that the effect of the work can be watched, and in the second of which there is greatly diminished physical activity. The patients in the latter grade furnish the greatest problem since they need very carefully selected industries and should report to the clinic frequently for observation. Class III includes patients who are unequal to any physical activity. These patients are sometimes able to work, but should not be placed without warning being given to the employer of the danger of sudden death. The records of the bureau, however, show only two cases of sudden deaths of patients while at work, and one of these was an elderly man doing clerical work. Classes IV and V are possible and potential cases of heart disease. Class IV covers cases in which there are doubtful murmurs which can not, however, be clearly diagnosed as organic heart disease, while patients in Class V have some predisposing history. Neither of these classes presents a real problem although they should be carefully placed.

The occupations of heart patients should never require the maximum exertion they are able to give and as far as possible should follow the lines of the former employment in order to minimize the discouragement incidental to giving up a former occupation. Noise and dust are no worse for heart patients than for any nervous persons. Patients in the first group of Class II can work eight hours standing, but those in the second group should not have to climb stairs nor do any stooping or lifting, and their work should be near home, as a long trip to and from work adds too much strain. This class is the most difficult for which to find suitable work, although the writer states that every year of experience in the bureau shows that the lives of very few patients in this class are shortened by work if

it is carefully supervised.

In general, employers are said to have cooperated well with the bureau in its work. During the first three years of the existance of the bureau the shortage of labor made it easy to find work for handicapped persons, but during the subsequent period of unemployment, when it was difficult for normal persons to find work, it was particularly difficult for the handicapped. However, in spite of this fact, in 1921 the bureau placed 1,128 out of 8,398 applicants and in

1922, 1,717 out of 4,789 applicants.

In order to secure the full measure of usefulness of such a service the writer emphasizes the importance of not asking the employer to take patients as a charity, but of selecting occupations in which the heart patients can give full labor for a full wage. Some employers have not wished to employ heart patients because of the added risk of a serious outcome in the case of accident to a person having heart disease. This, however, has not proved a formidable obstacle, and the bureau has had no complaints from employers about trouble under the workmen's compensation act with patients placed by it.

The effect of regular work on heart patients has, in general, been found to be excellent. In 1920 a study of the effects of the employment on 123 heart patients showed that in six months the condition of 90 had improved, 30 had remained stationary, 2 had been lost sight of, and only 1 had grown worse. Another study covering 69 men, some of whom had not worked for months or years, showed 64 placed in new positions and 1 in his former job. At the end of the year 59 were still at work. Ten of these patients had been back in hospitals for short periods with heart attacks, 14 others had heart treatments, and the 1 elderly man mentioned before died suddenly while at clerical work.

In conclusion, the writer says that if the report seems to err on the side of being too optimistic, it can be stated that the results in the placing of heart patients have more than justified the efforts made for them, and that a much greater work tolerance has been shown by them than was believed possible at the outset. The success which has already been achieved may also be expected to make the work easier, since much of the trouble with heart patients is due to their bad mental attitude and neurasthenia, and that as an increasing number is shown to be capable of taking places in regular industries the attitude of both the patients and the public may be expected to change to a more hopeful and helpful point of view.

Industrial Accidents in the Rubber Industry, First Half of 1923.

THE National Safety News for November, 1923, contains (p. 40) the industrial accident record for the first half of the year 1923 of certain firms in the rubber industry reporting their experience to the National Safety Council. The number of firms so reporting was 15, having 65,080, 1,000-hour exposure. The number of accidents occurring in these establishments during the six months' period was 2,332, of which 7 resulted in death, 1 in permanent total disability, 52 in permanent partial disability, 547 in temporary disability of over two weeks, 417 in temporary disability of over one to two

weeks, and 1,308 in temporary disability of one week and under. The frequency rate for these establishments was 35.83 per 1,000,000 hours worked, while the severity rate per 1,000 hours worked was 1.50. The frequency rate for the two and one-half years' experience ending June 30, 1923, was 33.02, while the severity rate for the same period was 1.04.

Estimated Annual Number and Cost of Industrial Accidents in the United States—A Correction.

IN THE article on the "Estimated annual number and cost of industrial accidents in the United States," published in the November, 1923, issue of the Monthly Labor Review, the figures shown in the sixth line on page 9 should read 227,169,970 and \$1,022,264,866, instead of 227,356,541 and \$1,023,104,435.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION AND SOCIAL INSURANCE.

Recommendations of American Federation of Labor.

HE 1922 convention of the American Federation of Labor held at Cincinnati, Ohio, authorized the appointment of a committee to inquire into the present status of workmen's compensation and employers' liability laws. Acting in conformity with the authority thus conferred upon him, President Samuel Gompers, with the approval of the executive council, appointed William Green, Frank Duffy, and Matthew Woll to serve in this capacity. The following report of this special committee was submitted to the federation at its 1923 convention held in Portland, Oreg.¹

Complying with instructions given by the executive council of the American Federation of Labor, predicated on the authorization delegated to it by the Cincinnati convention of the American Federation of Labor, your committee so selected was especially charged to inquire into the following subjects:

(a) The activities of insurance companies in preventing the establishment of State

insurance funds to carry the risks arising out of industrial employment.

(b) Differences arising out of conflicting interpretations and constructions of laws of State and Federal Governments.

(c) Activities of employers in adopting and enforcing limits of age and standards of physical employment to lessen risks arising out of industrial employment and using workmen's compensation laws as a pretext to do this.

(d) The wide difference in the administrative features, scheduled benefits, and

other allowances and provisions contained in the various State laws.

We have endeavored to perform the work assigned us by making diligent inquiry, through all means available, into the very important subject matter referred to us for inquiry and investigation. We respectfully submit the following report:

(a) The activities of insurance companies in preventing the establishment of State insurance funds to carry the risks arising out of industrial employment.

Workmen's compensation legislation is based upon the fixed principle that employers must be required to furnish adequate security guaranteeing the payment of compensation, as provided in the statutes, to injured workmen and the dependents of killed employees. Exclusive State insurance, mutual companies, private stock companies, and self-insurance are the commonly accepted forms of insurance employed as security in the payment of workmen's compensation schedules of benefits. All but three States (Alabama, Arizona, and Kansas) require the employer to secure his compensation payments either by insuring his risks in an authorized private insurance carrier or in a State fund where such fund is provided or, in the case of selfinsurers, to deposit bonds or other collateral security and to furnish a financial statement showing assets and liabilities. Thirty-two States permit insurance in private carriers. Seven States have an exclusive State insurance fund in which the fund becomes the sole insurance carrier, no private company being allowed to operate. Nine States have a competitive State insurance fund in which the fund operates in competition with other forms of insurance. Of the 42 compensation States, 12 are compulsory and 30 are elective. Many of the States enacted elective laws to overcome constitutional difficulties.

Unquestionably private insurance companies are opposed to the establishment of State insurance funds. This is particularly true where the statutes creating State in-

¹ American Federation of Labor. Executive Council. Report to the forty-third annual convention, pp. 63-66. 163 [1387]

surance funds are supplemented by the enactment of legislation which excludes private insurance companies from participation in the sale of workmen's compensation insurance. The private companies are active in their opposition to workmen's compensation State insurance fund legislation. They are powerfully organized and naturally seek to retain for themselves the business of selling workmen's compensation

insurance. It is a question of business and profit to the liability insurance companies.

As evidence of the power and influence of private insurance companies in the enactment of workmen's compensation legislation, only in 7 States have exclusive State insurance funds been created by law, no private companies being allowed to

operate, while in 32 States employers are permitted to insure with private carriers. Summarizing the situation which our inquiry disclosed, the private insurance companies are engaged in the work of preventing the enactment of exclusive State insurance workmen's compensation legislation. Their agents work both openly and secretly, as circumstances may require. They attempt to deceive the unwary and unthinking representatives of labor by misrepresentation and through insidious propaganda. Stories attacking the solvency of exclusive State insurance funds are sur-reptitiously circulated and criticism of the schedules provided in the laws are made by agents of the private companies. In some instances they succeed in preventing the passage of exclusive State insurance workmen's compensation legislation by encouraging labor representatives to oppose the enactment of such legislation because the legislation proposed does not carry with it the ideals and full demands of labor. They create opposition to this form of legislation, among labor representatives, not because of the exclusive State insurance fund feature but because, in some inconsequential minor way the bill proposed does not measure up to the demands of labor. By this policy the agents of private companies have succeeded in preventing the passage of exclusive State insurance workmen's compensation legislation in some

The United States Department of Labor made an investigation into the subject of workmen's compensation insurance. It reported and commented upon the relative

types of insurance as follows:

'There has been much discussion as to the relative merits of different types of insurance. The Department of Labor recently completed an investigation upon the subject. The result of this investigation showed that the State funds could operate cheaper than either the mutual or stock companies. In fact, the average exclusive State funds can do business about 25 to 30 per cent cheaper than the average private stock company. There is considerable variation in the quality of service furnished by the several States funds. However, comparing the State funds as a whole with the private companies as a whole it was found that the State fund furnished slightly better service than the private companies. As regards security State funds are on a par in this respect with private carriers. Thus far no injured workman has lost his compensation because of the insolvency of State funds nor has any large mutual company become insolvent. On the other hand there have been several disastrous failures of private stock companies during the last three or four years. These failures have resulted in hundreds of thousands of dollars in unpaid claims."

(b) Differences arising out of conflicting interpretations and constructions of laws of State and Federal Governments.

It does not appear, from such information as we were able to secure, that any serious differences have arisen out of conflicting interpretations and constructions of law defining State from Federal Governments. No controversies of any serious consequence have arisen with regard to persons employed upon railroads and pipe lines, but some differences have arisen affecting those employed in maritime work. This prevails in California, Oregon, and some other Pacific and Atlantic Coast States where persons are employed in maritime labor connected with the ocean-going and coastwise

State workmen's compensation laws can be made to apply only to employers and employees engaged in private industry and interstate commerce. Legislation of this character can not be made to apply to persons employed on railroads and transportation lines engaged in interstate commerce. The higher courts have held, in decisions made sustaining the constitutionality of workmen's compensation legislation, that the States have a legal right to enact workmen's compensation legislation, and that the States may make such legislation compulsory in its application to private industries located in and coming within the jurisdiction of the respective States. However, the courts have held, in construing the interstate commerce section of the constitution of the United States, that persons employed by common carriers, engaged in transporting interstate commerce can not come within the scope of or become subject to the operation of the State workmen's compensation laws.

Obviously, the remedy for this State of affairs is the enactment of a Federal workmen's compensation law applicable to those persons engaged in interstate commerce

and who come wholly within the Federal jurisdiction.

We believe such legislation should define clearly the class of employers and employees who are subject thereto and should be similar to the Ohio workmen's compensation law which the American Federation of Labor has officially accepted as the standard act in this character and kind of legislation.

(c) Activities of employers in adopting and enforcing limits of age and standards of physical employment to lessen risks arising out of industrial employment and using workmen's compensation laws as a pretext to do this.

Our investigation discloses the fact that employers in some industries establish age limits and require physical examination on the part of persons seeking employment. This practice, however, is not generally followed by employers of labor. Age limits and physical examination are required of those seeking employment upon railroads and in some rubber factories, electrical manufacturing plants and in other miscellaneous trades and callings. While these requirements may be set up in order to reduce risks arising out of industrial employment and using workmen's compensation laws as a pretext to do it, there is no evidence which we could find in support

of it.

The practice itself seems to be followed as a matter of policy rather than to accomplish a purpose. It was put into effect in some industries before the enactment of workmen's compensation legislation. It would no doubt be carried on if there were

no workmen's compensation legislation in effect.

In our opinion the only effective safeguard upon which the worker may rely as protection against injustice and discrimination growing out of age limit and physical examination, as followed by some employers is thorough and effective organization. Imposition of wrong and injustice by selfish employers can be successfully resisted in industries, factories and establishments where the workers are thoroughly organized.

(d) The wide difference in the administrative features, scheduled benefits, and other allowances and provisions contained in the various State laws.

Our investigations into the principal provisions of existing State compensation laws has disclosed the fact that there is a wide variation in these essential provisions of compensation legislation. The principal provisions requiring attention may be said to include:

1. The scope or coverage of existing laws.

2. Injuries embraced.

Waiting period involved. 4. Medical service provided.

5. Percentage rate of compensation fixed.

6. Weekly maximum and minimum compensation requirements.

7. Compensation periods embraced.

8. Second injuries included.

9. Administrations.

10. Accident prevention. 11. Suits for damages.

12. Compulsory or elective compensation. 13. Insurance and other like features.

It must be self-evident that a thorough inquiry into all these provisions and the formulation of concrete proposals suitable to all States and uniform in character involves a large task, requiring the utmost care and most intelligent consideration

Your committee has made substantial progress in this work. However, the work done has not been advanced sufficiently to enable us to present a complete and comprehensive report at this time. Instead, it is recommended that the investigation made, compilation undertaken, and formulation of a standard model workmen's compensation law at present under consideration, be continued by this or a like committee, with the understanding that the committee's final report be submitted to the executive council of the American Federation of Labor, and that the executive council be authorized to pass final judgment upon this report and publish and distribute it in pamphlet form and in such other manner as may be deemed most helpful, desirable, and advisable by the executive council.

[1389]

Pending the final report of this committee and the conclusions reached by the executive council, it is recommended that the Ohio workmen's compensation law continue as the model law on this subject.

The executive council recommended favorable action upon the several conclusions contained in the committee's report including authorization to complete the work undertaken in the manner indicated and recommended by the committee.

The recommendations of this special committee, as presented in the report of the executive council, were considerably modified by the committee on the executive council's report. The report of this latter committee was presented to the convention and was approved by both the executive council and the federation. The committee's report in so far as it relates to workmen's compensation is as follows:²

In the executive council's report, pages 63 to 66, inclusive, under the caption "Workmen's compensation law," is presented a partial report of the committee appointed in conformity with the authority given by the Cincinnati convention to the executive council to make inquiry into the present status of workmen's compensation and employers' liability laws.

* This committee has made a very careful inquiry covering a broad area of the subject, whose scope is such that it can not be completely treated in a single report.

The committee emphasizes a point which is apparent to all who have studied the subject, that is, that private insurance companies have interfered with and seriously retarded progress in the field of workmen's compensation and employers' liability laws. The opposition to State insurance funds, on the part of private insurance, is easily understood because wherever a State insurance fund is well established profits that are enjoyed by the private insurance companies are cut off from them and remain in the possession of the State, and thereby tend to reduce to that extent at least the cost to the employers of the maintenance of the fund required to take care of the victims of industrial mishaps.

The solution for this serious phase of the general question, that readily suggests itself, is the rigid exclusion from the field of the private insurance company. Before this remedy can be effectively applied there must be a more general dissemination of information concerning the exact nature of the work that is undertaken by the State in the establishment of the insurance fund.

Experience has shown that the workmen as well as the employers are not willing to entirely forego certain of their natural rights even though it be made plain that by doing so and accepting the conditions of a properly safeguarded compensation law, with the accompanying State insurance fund, they really are accepting an advantage to themselves. The impersonal character of the State insurance is a guaranty to both employer and employed of justice rather than the unavoidable suspicion that attaches to transactions controlled by a privately managed concern that frankly exists solely for the profits that arise from the business it transacts.

When those who are most vitally interested in this tremendously important feature of our modern industrial life come to realize that their interests are identical, and to trust one another in this as they do in other matters pertaining to their relations, and will accept the operations of an agency that is within their own control, because it is set up by a law which they have helped to make, and not allow themselves to be pulled apart by ambulance-chasing lawyers and profit-seeking insurance agents, the true benefits of the workmen's compensation law will become apparent to all. The mutual distrust which has been created by interested persons or agencies for selfish purposes must be dispelled and for it must be substituted a confidence resting on the mutual understanding of the parties most directly concerned.

on the mutual understanding of the parties most directly concerned.

Your committee listened carefully and with interest to statements made before it by delegates and others who are interested in the general subject dealt with in the report. We feel that this is one of the most important subjects now being dealt with by organized labor bodies, by welfare groups, State boards, legislatures, and the courts. The literature on the subject is increasing rapidly as experience determines the need for modification or extension, or the abandonment and substitution of new for existing practices.

 $^{^2}$ Report of proceedings of forty-third annual convention of the American Federation of Labor, pp. 309-310.

While the committee reporting to the executive council in its concluding paragraph

says:
"Pending the final report of this committee and the conclusions reached by the rendring the mia report of this committee and the contained by the executive council, it is recommended that the Ohio workmen's compensation law continue as the model law on this subject," we do not understand that the committee, so reporting, intends to convey the impression that the Ohio law is a perfect law, but it is so referred to because of the very many valuable features which it contains and which features have stood the test of the courts and have proven their worth, that the law as a whole is suggested to those groups who have not as yet formulated a measure to cover the points.

Your committee would recommend that, in addition to the suggestion contained in the Ohio law, the following eight points be given full weight in the preparation of

any compensation law or amendments to same:

- 1. Employees in all occupations to be protected.
 2. Work accidents and occupational injuries and diseases to be compensated.
 3. Benefits to be provided only by State insurance funds.
 4. Such surgical care, hospital service, orthopedic appliances, and artificial limbs as may be necessary to as complete physical restoration as is possible.
 - 5. Compensation for widows for life or until remarriage.6. Compensation for life for permanent and total disability.

No waiting period.

7. No waiting period.
8. Vocational rehabilitation. The executive council in presenting the report of its special committee concludes: "Having given careful attention to the foregoing report, the executive council recommends favorable action on the several conclusions contained therein, including authorization to complete the work undertaken, and in the manner undertaken, and recommended in the committee's report."

We recommend concurrence in and approval of the report and the recommendations. The recommendation of the committee was adopted.

Report of Industrial Board of Indiana.

HE report of the Industrial Board of Indiana for the year ending September 30, 1922, reviews the experience under the compensation law. There were reported to the board during the year 38,604 accidents, which is an increase of 4,235 over the number reported the previous year. Of these accidents 198 were fatal and 609 resulted in the loss of some member of the body. The number of agreements approved was 18,416 and the number of awards was 1,405. The amount of compensation paid in closed cases amounted to \$2,356,056.

Results of Damage Suits Under Ohio Workmen's Compensation Law.

PROVISION of the Ohio workmen's compensation act allows the injured employee to sue for damages in lieu of accepting the compensation benefits if the injury arises from the failure of the employer to comply with any lawful requirement for the protection of the lives, health, and safety of employees. There has been considerable criticism of this section of the law but it has been impossible to eliminate this provision without a constitutional amend-

A recent study of the results of damage suits brought by employees under this provision of the compensation act has been made by Mr. Emile E. Watson, consulting actuary and former actuary of the Ohio Industrial Commission. The following tabular statement shows what the claimants have received as damages and what they would have received had they accepted the compensation benefits.

RESULTS OF DAMAGE SUITS BROUGHT UNDER OHIO WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION LAW.

Item.	Total.	Average.
Number of cases	58	
Amount for which suits were brought. Amount of final settlement. Amount of claimants' attorney fees and court costs. Not amount received by claimants. Amount receivable had claimants accepted compensation benefits. Amount of employers' attorney fees and court costs. Cost to employers of settlements plus attorney and court costs.	\$1,710,630 174,480 61,068 113,412 163,563 41,875 216,355	\$29, 494 3, 008 1, 053 1, 955 2, 820 722 3, 730

The average delay in receiving settlements through the courts was

two years and five months.

It will be noted that the claimants who sued for damages actually received, on the average, over 30 per cent less than they would have received as compensation, while it cost the employers 32 per cent more. A constitutional amendment providing for the elimination of this provision of the constitution was submitted to the people of the State November 6, 1923, and was adopted by a vote of 581,907 for and 514.120 against the amendment.

Invalidity Insurance in Denmark.1

THE Invalidity Insurance Fund of Denmark receives and examines requests for invalidity pensions, pays the pensions, and attends to other administrative matters. It can not, however, decide as to whether or not invalidity exists; this is a function of the Invalidity Insurance Court, which court, to a certain extent, also acts as a court of appeals on decisions made by the fund. This court was established by Act No. 253 of May 6, 1921,² and consists of a president and five other members. The act became effective October 1, 1921, but according to its provisions the court could be appointed and function before that time and this was done when the Ministry of Interior issued its instructions of August 22, 1921.

When the invalidity fund has examined a request for pensions and decides that requirements have been met with respect to membership in a sick fund, paid-up premiums, citizenship and other matters, the request is forwarded to the Invalidity Insurance Court for a decision as to whether invalidity exists as understood by the law, i. e., earning capacity reduced to one-third or less, and whether it is temporary or permanent. The first report of the court states that according to the law it is the earning ability and not the actual earnings which is the determining factor but that it does not necessarily follow that actual earnings are not considered. The law stresses not special occupational earning ability but the general ability to work. Only such

¹ Data are from: Denmark, Invalideforsikringsretten, 1° Aarsberetning, 1. Oktober, 1921 to 31. December, 1922, Copenhagen, 1923; and Social Forsorg No. 5, Copenhagen, 1923.

² See Monthly Labor Review, January, 1922, pp. 198, 199.

sickness as seems to involve a lasting reduction of earning ability to one-third or less is considered invalidity as understood in the law of May 6, 1921.

Decisions of the court are final and may be changed, even by the court itself, only in certain instances and by permission of the Ministry of Letvice.

Persons with invalidity insurance at the end of the year numbered 1,298,100, of whom 1,128,300 paid annually the lowest premium, 5.40 kroner (\$1.45, par), 26,200 paid increased premium, and 143,600 were exempt from paying premiums. The income of the invalidity insurance fund for the fiscal year was 7,785,400 kroner (\$2,086,487, par), of which 7,402,400 kroner (\$1,983,843, par) represents premiums from persons insured and 179,100 kroner (\$47,999, par) contributions from the employers. This last amount is small because the insurance companies settle accounts with the invalidity funds at the end of the fiscal year so that the contributions paid to the companies during 1922 will not be turned over to the fund until 1923. The fund's expenditures amounted to 3,803,300 kroner (\$1,019,284, par), of which invalidity pensions amounted to 3,345,300 kroner (\$896,540, The fund's cash balance on December 31, 1922, was 3,982,100 kroner (\$1,056,203, par) of which the fund had 237,700 kroner (\$63,704, par) while the authorized sick funds have 3,555,500 kroner (\$952,874, par).

From October 1, 1921, to December 31, 1922, the fund received 14,270 requests for invalidity pensions. Taking the country as a whole, 109 out of every 10,000 insured against invalidity sent in a request for pension. Of the applicants, 6,405 were men and 7,865 were women. Of the requests, 150 were rejected by the fund either because the applicant was over 62 years of age, or was not a Danish citizen, or had not been a member of a sick fund for one year, or because he was not entitled to membership in a sick fund

because he was not entitled to membership in a sick fund.

In the period from October 1, 1921, to December 31, 1922, the Invalidity Insurance Fund forwarded to the Invalidity Insurance Court 11,010 claims, 5,093 of which were finished by the court by the end of 1922, while 5,917 were still under consideration; 11 terminated before a decision was reached. In the same period the Invalidity Insurance Court held 87 meetings; in the 5,236 cases brought before it for a decision, 154 decisions were postponed pending further information or for similar reasons, and a decision was rendered in 5,082 cases. In this same period of the cases in which a decision was reached, 789 (15.5 per cent) were disallowed, 675 (13.3 per cent) were adjudged temporary invalidity, and 3,618 (71.2 per cent) permanent invalidity.

Tuberculosis caused 754, or 15 per cent, of the 5,082 cases; diseases of the brain, spine, and nerves caused 707, or 14 per cent; chronic poisoning and infection 682, or 13 per cent; insanity, etc., 419, or 8 per cent; blindness, etc., 403, or 8 per cent; and old age, etc., 406, or 8 per cent.

Extension of French Workmen's Compensation Law to Domestic Service.1

FRENCH law of August 2, 1923, extends the provisions of the workmen's compensation act of April 9, 1898, articles, 2, 3, and 6 of the law of April 12, 1906, and the law of December 30, 1922, to cover domestic servants, chauffeurs, governesses, porters (concierges), and all persons connected with household service.

The law provides that compensation payments shall be based solely on the wages and payments in kind directly paid by the employer in execution of the contract and shall exclude all other money received by the employee. At the same time all incidental and usual payments uniting to form the real remuneration, such as gifts on New Year's Day or other special days, should be added to the basic wage for the calculation of the compensation in case of permanent incapacity or death.

The law is to become effective six months from the date of publication and it is applicable to Algeria subject to the modifications upon metropolitan legislation relating to labor accidents of the law of September 25, 1919.

According to the provisions of the original act ² the compensation payments amount to 66² per cent of the annual wages for total disability and 50 per cent of the daily wages, beginning with the fifth day, for temporary disability, while in the case of death funeral expenses, not to exceed a certain sum, and annuities of varying amounts are payable to the dependent heirs. Costs of medical and urgical treatment are also payable by the employer.

¹ France. Bulletin du Ministère du Travail, July-Aug.-Sept., 1923, p. 73*.

² See U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bul. No. 203: Workmen's compensation laws of vas. United States and foreign countries, p. 315.

LABOR LAWS AND COURT DECISIONS.

Amendment of the German Home Work Law.1

HE German home work law of 1911 has been amended in a very important respect by a law enacted on June 27, 1923. The text of the law as amended was promulgated on June 30, 1923 (Reichsgesetzblatt I, p. 472). The amending law introduces in Germany for the first time a system whereby minimum wage rates may be fixed for home industries. The law of 1911 contained provisions of various kinds for the protection of home workers, dealing, for instance, with hygiene, child labor, and the posting of the rates for particular kinds of home work. The law also authorized the establishment by the Federal Council² or certain State authorities of trade committees (Fachausschüsse) for particular home industries, consisting of an equal number of representatives of home workers and their employers, with three independent members, one of these being the chairman. An attempt was made, when the law of 1911 was under consideration, to give these committees power to fix minimum wage rates in their trades, but this proposal was defeated and the committees were left merely with power to investigate the conditions of home work, to advise the authorities on matters concerning home work, to cooperate in any measures for improving the conditions of home work, and to encourage the voluntary conclusion of collective agreements fixing rates of pay for home workers.

The amendment now gives the committees power to fix minimum rates (art. 20) and brings German legislation into line with the home work laws of Austria, Czechoslovakia, and Norway. The new law still seems to regard the conclusion of collective agreements between groups of home workers and their employers as the ideal. When a trade committee comes to the conclusion that the wages of home workers are "obviously insufficient," it must first attempt to bring about a voluntary agreement for an improvement in the rates. this fails the committee may resolve that any existing collective agreement, even if such agreement covers only a small part of the workers, shall be generally binding (art. 31), or, in the absence of any suitable agreement it may proceed to fix minimum wage rates on its own initiative (art. 32). As the committees are normally appointed for specified districts only, provision is made for the convocation of joint committees (Gesamtfachausschüsse), as occasion arises, to act for several districts together, in order to prevent any tendency of home workers to migrate from one district to another owing to lack of uniformity in the operation of the law (art. 27).

 $^{^1}$ Germany. Reichsarbeitsverwaltung. Reichsarbeitsblatt, Berlin, July 16, 1923, pp. 451–456. 2 Later replaced for this purpose by the Minister of Labor.

Rates of pay are to be held insufficient if they do not enable home workers working a normal number of hours to earn either the wages customary in the locality or the wages earned by persons doing the same work in other districts with similar economic conditions or the wages earned by workers doing similar work in factories and workshops in the same district (art. 20).

Whenever possible, the rates to be fixed for home work shall be piece rates. If, however, piece rates are not practicable, time rates shall be agreed upon or fixed, which shall be based on the piece rates current in the trade. Special rates shall be fixed for middlemen (*Zwischenmeister*), so as to enable them, in their turn, to pay to the home workers the minimum rates fixed for the latter (art. 29).

Decisions adopted by the votes of two-thirds of the workers' and employers' representatives on the committee and approved by the chairman and one of the independent members (Beisitzer) are final; in other cases the confirmation of the decision by the authorities establishing the committee is needed (art. 34). The committees may assess fines for failure to pay the minimum rates (art. 37). The committees act also as boards of conciliation and arbitration for the settlement of disputes between home workers and their employers (arts. 20 and 41).

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS AND CONVENTIONS.

Forty-third Annual Meeting of American Federation of Labor.1

THE forty-third annual convention of the American Federation of Labor was held in Portland, Oreg., October 1 to 12, 1923. There were 380 delegates in attendance, including the fraternal delegates representing the British Trades-Union Congress, the Canadian Trades and Labor Congress, and the National Women's Trade-Union League.

According to the American Federationist of November, 1923, the three matters standing out most prominently in the work of the con-

vention were:

(1) The declaration of a philosophy and policy which would best advance the interests of industry and a democratic development within industry.

(2) The strong determination that the efforts toward the organi-

zation of nonunion workers should be everywhere redoubled.

(3) The decision to eliminate from the trade-union movement "the

last remnants of destructive and revolutionary effort."

The report of the executive council to the convention declares: "Henceforth the organization of workers into trade-unions must mean the conscious organization of one of the most vital functional elements for enlightened participation in a democracy of industry," among the purposes of which are "the rescue of industry from chaos, profiteering, and purely individual whim, including individual incapacity, and the rescue of industry also from the domination of incompetent political bodies."

Industry must organize for service, for constructive effort, for orderly continuity, for justice to all who participate. It must bring itself to a realization of its mission and to that end it must organize and come together in deliberative bodies where the full wisdom and experience of all may contribute to final decisions. * * * Industry must realize that it exists to give service to a nation and not to a single master or to a syndicate of stockholders.

The convention showed its interest in increasing the membership of the Federation by ordering a campaign for the organization of casual and migratory labor, by indorsing a nation-wide movement for the unionization of "white-collar employees," and by directing that a national conference be held to launch a campaign for gathering woman workers into trades-unions.

The meeting directed continued efforts to promote friendship and understanding between wage earners and farmers. A continuance of steps to effect an affiliation with the International Federation of

¹Report of Proceedings of the 43d Annual Convention of the American Federation of Labor, Washington, 1923 (advance copy); Report of the Executive Council of the American Federation of Labor to the 43d Annual Convention, 1923; muneographed statement from Information and Publicity Service of American Federation of Labor; and American Federationist, November, 1923.

Trade-Unions on terms satisfactory to American labor and insuring

national autonomy was also directed.

A resolution in behalf of the so-called amalgamation plan and also resolutions calling for compulsory instead of voluntary action relative to the affiliation of local unions with central bodies and State federations were defeated.

The convention placed itself on record as favoring prohibition; against the granting of injunctions "in cases where no injunction would lie if no industrial dispute were in evidence;" and emphasized its position in regard to the "sanctity of contract in relations with employers." A continuation of activities "to prevent prison labor from coming into competition with free labor" was directed.

The congress recommended the assignment of one or more members of the legislative committee (when Congress is not in session) to explain and promote the cooperative movement and to furnish standard literature on the Rochdale system at cost, and that the Federation urge the establishment of cooperative bureaus for the study of the Rochdale movement. The possibilities of large financial savings to the workers through the establishment of a cooperative insurance company were pointed out and the convention authorized the federation to direct or conduct an investigation of "all forms of insurance and death benefit systems now provided by national and international unions" and "group insurance plans and other insurance features used by employers to provide insurance for their employees."

The continuation of the federation's inquiry into the present status of workmen's compensation and employers' liability legislation was favored, and amendments to the Constitution were demanded, prohibiting child labor and empowering Congress to reenact laws which

the Supreme Court has declared unconstitutional.

The meeting urged that demands for a "still more efficient and extensive Department of Labor be impressively submitted to the President of the United States and to our National Congress."

The executive council was directed to request the Pan American Federation of Labor to make a survey of conditions in Venezuela and to ask the United States Government to take steps to end profiteering and reduce the cost of living. A general investigation of living and working conditions in the Philippines was also desired.

General recommendations of the convention included "a more stringent immigration policy" curtailing present quotas; the careful study of intelligence tests and the insistence on the importance of the participation of labor in the direction of the application of such tests; the expansion of the federation's information and publicity

service; and the elimination of the Railway Labor Board.

According to the secretary's report the balance on hand on April 30, 1922, was \$198,794.68. The total receipts for the year ending April 30, 1923, including this balance amounted to \$886,675; the total expenses to \$662,398.84, leaving a balance on August 31, 1923, of \$224,276.16 of which \$183,994.28 was in the defense fund for local trade and Federal labor unions. The average paid-up and reported membership for the fiscal year 1922 was 3,195,635 and for 1923, 2,926,468, a decrease of 269,167.

The federation's voting strength in 1923 was 30,486, which was

2,850 less than in 1922.

The following amounts were paid out in trade-union benefits mainly by international organizations:

Death benefits.	\$1,944,930.22
Death benefits to members' wives	135, 974. 50
Sick benefits	
Traveling benefits	19, 818. 50
Tool insurance	319.00
Unemployment benefits	28, 820.00

The above amounts represent only a small proportion of the aggregate sums paid out in trade-union benefits as numerous local unions which did not report to the federation on this matter provide such benefits for their members.

Mr. Samuel Gompers was again elected president of the federation. The secretary, Mr. Frank Morrison, and the treasurer, Mr. Daniel Tobin, for 1922–23, were also chosen to serve for another year.

It was decided to hold the next annual meeting in El Paso, Tex.

Number and Earnings of Members of International Typographical Union, 1909 to 1923.

IN THE September issue of the bulletin issued by the International Typographical Union are published (p. 30) statistics from the report (1923) of the secretary-treasurer of that organization, from which the following table is compiled showing the membership

of the union and their earnings from 1909 to 1923.

The total earnings shown in the table are based on the old-age pensions and mortuary assessments, each one of which is paid at the rate of one-half of 1 per cent on the earnings of the members. Dividing the total earnings each year by the number of members recorded by the union as paying the per capita for that year gives the average annual earnings per member as shown in the last column of the table.

MEMBERSHIP AND TOTAL AND AVERAGE ANNUAL EARNINGS OF MEMBERS OF THE INTERNATIONAL TYPOGRAPHICAL UNION FOR YEARS ENDING MAY 31, 1909, TO 1923.

Year ending May 31—	Num- ber of mem- bers.	Total earnings.	Average earnings per member.	Year ending May 31—	Num- ber of mem- bers.	Total earnings.	Average earnings per member.
1969 1910 1911 1911 1912 1913 1914 1914 1916	44, 921 47, 848 51, 095 53, 807 55, 614 58, 537 59, 571 60, 231	\$40, 293, 738 45, 602, 944 49, 770, 668 53, 378, 902 56, 944, 486 61, 050, 332 61, 155, 285 62, 711, 805	\$897 953 974 992 1,023 1,042 1,027 1,041	1917. 1918. 1919. 1920. 1921. 1922. 1923.	61, 350 62, 661 65, 203 70, 945 74, 355 68, 746 68, 144	\$66, 652, 431 71, 756, 014 82, 464, 167 114, 594, 258 141, 964, 382 123, 429, 452 130, 792, 901	\$1,086 1,145 1,265 1,615 1,909 1,795 1,919

Alliance of Five Needle-Trade Unions.1

N SEPTEMBER 8, 1923, the Needle Trades Workers' Alliance was formed by the Amalgamated Clothing Workers, the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, the United Cloth Hat and Cap Makers, the Journeymen Tailors' Union, and the International Fur Workers' Union. The purpose of the combination is "to promote solidarity, mutual aid, and cooperation among the affiliated international unions." Provision has been made for permanent headquarters in New York for the new organization which is to have a paid manager or executive secretary. The approximate membership of the five unions is 350,000. The executive council of the alliance is composed of one representative from each of the five affiliated unions. The budget must not exceed \$20,000 per year. An annual conference is to be held by the organization, the president of which is Mr. Morris Sigman, who is also the president of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union.

Meeting of Pan American Federation of Labor, 1924.

THE Pan American Federation of Labor will hold its next convention in Mexico City in December, 1924, instead of at Guatemala, as was originally planned, according to an announcement made by the Mexican-American labor conference which was held in El Paso, Tex. The concluding sessions of the convention may be held in Guatemala if political conditions there are improved.

Annual Meeting of Canadian Trades and Labor Congress.2

THE Trades and Labor Congress of Canada held its thirty-ninth annual meeting in Vancouver September 10 to 14, 1923. The final report of the credential committee showed 220 delegates in attendance. Some of the important resolutions adopted at the meeting were those requesting that the Government of Ontario be petitioned to extend the workmen's compensation act so as to include all workers; that the Government of Quebec be urged to pass a compensation law similar to those in operation in the other Provinces; that the Government of British Columbia be asked to institute examinations in English for workers whose native tongue is other than English and that employers be fined for hiring such foreigners for service in plants using water, steam, gas, or electricity as motive power.

Other resolutions favored Government health insurance; the total exclusion of orientals, and laws for the more effective control of the activities of orientals now residing in the Dominion; regulations requiring "periodical medical examination of all persons employed or engaged in the preparation of food for public consumption"; and the creation of a Dominion council of action to combat war and

 $^{^1}$ Daily News Record, New York, Sept. 10, 1923, pp. 1, 3. 2 Labor Gazette, Ottawa, October, 1923, pp. 1088–1102.

follow the example of the British Labor Party in its efforts to

prevent war.

The executive officers of the congress for 1923-24 were instructed by resolution to use all means in their power to have enacted into law as promptly as possible "the findings of the International Labor Conference in connection with the law of nations and part 13 of the

treaty of Versailles."

It was resolved, also, that the Trades and Labor Congress "continue to act as the legislative mouthpiece for organized labor in Canada, independent of any political organization engaged in an effort to send representatives of the people to parliament, the provincial legislature, or other elective bodies of this country," and it was urged that efforts be made to amend the criminal code so that peace-

ful picketing and persuasion in strikes may be legalized.

Among other resolutions were those requesting the Government to stop unauthorized persons from "filling the country with out-ofprotesting against any additional persons entering Canada as farm laborers and later taking the places of Canadian citizens; calling on the Dominion Government to assume responsibility on a national scale for the unemployment situation; and reiterating a previous request of the congress for legislation for a "simplified form of incorporation of cooperative societies."

Mr. Tom Moore was reelected president. Mr. P. M. Draper is the secretary-treasurer for the coming year. The 1924 convention will be

held in London, Canada.

Trade-Union Movement in Norway, 1922.1

T THE end of 1922, 1,449 trade-unions were in affiliation with the Norwegian National Federation of Trade-Unions. These had a combined membership of 83,640 (4,938 being women); this represented a decrease of 12,325 members during the year. Afterwards the decrease was checked and by July, 1923, the membership had increased to 87,189. The membership decreased in all unions except three—the union of employees of the paper industry, the commune workers' union, and the stonecutters' union-which

showed increases of 260, 112, and 56 members, respectively.

Collective agreements, most of which were arrived at through arbitration awards, concluded during the year numbered 360 and affected 84,952 workers. In 1922, 313,876 kroner (\$84,119, par) as against 3,746,010 kroner (\$1,003,931, par) in 1921 was paid out in strike benefits, 89,677 kroner (\$24,033, par) of which was paid by the National Federation. The number of working days lost because of disputes was 99,932 in 1922 and 2,217,786 in 1921. Reductions in wages in 1922 affecting 78,233 workers were estimated to amount to 72,310,861 kroner (\$19,379,311, par) or approximately 924 kroner (\$248, par) per worker. Similar reductions in 1921 amounted to about 680 kroner (\$182, par) per worker. Only 825 workers received wage increases, these amounting to 187,892 kroner (\$50,355, par), or about 228 kroner (\$61, par) per worker.

¹ Data are from Meddelelsesblad Christiania, September, 1923, and Sociala Meddelanden, Stockholm, No. 10, 1923.

The hours of work remained unchanged. The vacation period in several industries was reduced from 12 to 8 days. The average number of days' vacation in 1922 was 9.77 as against 10.74 in 1921.

According to reports from 22 unions and 1 directly affiliated organization with 70,922 members, the number of days lost in 1922 because of lack of work was 2,678,386, or 37.76 per member, as against about 4,000,000, or 49 days per member, in 1921. Days lost due to illness numbered 423,269; to military service, 96,697; and to other causes, 164,270; a total of 3,362,622, or 47.41 days lost per member.

For traveling and unemployment aid 26 organizations paid out 6,199,804 kroner (\$1,661,547, par). In 1921 the trade-unions paid unemployment relief amounting to 12,851,064 kroner (\$3,444,085, par). For medical aid and sick relief, 8 organizations paid out 550,580 kroner (\$147,555, par) and for funeral benefits and insurance 27 organizations paid out 402,923 kroner (\$107,983, par), and for invalidity and other aid 60,177 kroner (\$16,127, par). Disbursements of all the insurance funds amounted to 7,212,889 kroner (\$1,933,944, par). During the year the affiliated organizations had a total income of 13,241,777 kroner (\$3,548,796, par) and expenditures amounting to 12,227,431 kroner (\$3,276,952, par). Contributions to the National Federation in 1922 amounted to 1,067,194 kroner (\$286,008, par).

At the congress of the National Federation in April, 1923, it was resolved that the trade-union movement, as in Sweden, should be reorganized on the basis of industrial unionism, so that all workers at a place of work always would belong to one and the same organization.

Program of Polish Federation of Trade-Unions.1

N EXTRAORDINARY congress of the Polish Federation of Trade-Unions (Zjednoczenie Zawodowe polskie) was held at Poznan on July 29 and 30, 1923. The chief object of the congress was to draw up new rules and a program of action for the federation. Briefly summarized, the main points of the new program are the following:

(1) Strict observance of the hours of employment act (the 46-hour week in industry and commerce and a 6-hour day in occupations likely to injure the health of the workers-mines, blast furnaces, etc.).

(2) Night work and Sunday work to be reduced to a minimum.(3) Prohibition of night work for women and young persons.

(4) Prohibition of the employment of children under 15 years of age.

(5) Enactment of legislation prohibiting mothers from working outside their own

homes, this measure to be introduced gradually.

(6) Efforts to secure as high wages as possible, based on quantity and quality of output. Introduction of a method of fixing wages such as to insure that their value shall correspond to the pre-war value.

(7) Institution of a joint body to fix periodically the minimum wage required to meet the bare necessities of life, this minimum to be made compulsory everywhere.

(8) Enforcement of collective agreements and legal recognition of the right to

strike.

(9) Legislation providing for the introduction of profit sharing.

¹ International Labor Office. Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, Oct. 5, 1923, pp. 6–8. Based on information from Warsztati Rola, Aug. 4, 1923, and Presse de Poznan, July 31 and Aug. 17, 1923.

(10) Amendment and extension of existing legislation concerning trade courts and introduction of legislation for the institution of trade courts and special mining courts

in every locality with a population of more than 5,000, and at least in every district. (11) Institution of public joint employment offices; legislation concerning public employment offices and organization of joint employment offices administered by the State or the local authorities.

(12) Amendment of the workers' holidays act and extension of the right to a holiday

with pay to all categories of workers.
(13) Extension of the works councils act at present in force in Upper Silesia to the whole of the country.

(14) Enactment as soon as possible of a factory inspection act which will make the factory inspection department independent of all other administrative authorities. (15) Legislation for the protection of the life and health of the workers.

(16) Legislation for the protection of women and young persons.

(17) Introduction of health measures in all industrial and commercial undertakings.

(18) Application of labor legislation to home work.

(19) Guaranty of right of association and assembly in conformity with the Polish Constitution.

(20) Introduction of compulsory health, accident, invalidity, old-age and unemploy-

ment insurance under State control.

(21) Measures for the protection of emigrants, and for the collaboration of the tradeunions in the supervision of emigration.

(22) Codification and unification of labor legislation.

(23) Development of vocational education.

(24) Encouragement of the cooperative movement (productive and distributive cooperative societies).

(25) Introduction of a system of taxation based chiefly on direct taxes, a tax on

capital and a graduated income tax.

(26) Measures for the protection of workers against abusive practices in trade

employment offices.

(27) Measures for the solution of the housing problem by the construction of working class houses, which will in time become the property of the workers by a system of repayments; prolongation of the tenants' protection act in the case of all tenants earning less than five million marks per month.

Various resolutions were adopted by the congress, including a resolution concerning social insurance urging the Government and

(1) To codify, unify, and amend existing legislation concerning invalidity, old age, and other branches of social insurance, and extend such legislation to the whole of Polish territory.

(2) To take steps as soon as possible for the institution of health insurance societies

in Polish territory formerly belonging to Russia.

(3) To fix pension rates so as to insure that their real value is not below the pre-war level.

Another resolution urged the Government to introduce in parliament a bill for the ratification of the draft conventions adopted at the various sessions of the International Labor Conference.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.

Strikes and Lockouts in the United States, April to June, 1923.

ACCORDING to information received by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 603 labor disputes resulting in strikes and lockouts occurred in this country during the second quarter of 1923, or more than double the number reported for the first quarter of 1923. Inasmuch as some reports do not reach the bureau until several months after the strikes occur, the number of strikes occurring during the second quarter was probably somewhat larger than the above figure. Complete data relative to these strikes have not been received by the bureau, and it has not been possible to verify all that have been received. The figures in the following tables should therefore be regarded as an advance statement, and should not be accepted as final.

NUMBER OF DISPUTES BEGINNING IN EACH MONTH, JANUARY TO JUNE, 1922 AND 1923.

Year.	January.	Febru- ary.	March.	April.	May.	June.	Month not stated.	Total.
1922	126	79	73	102	99	59	41	579
1923	65	70	106	203	234	126	58	862

As respects number of strikers involved, the most important strikes occurring during the quarter included the following: That of 50,000 workers in some 2,000 shops of the clothing industry of New York City, during May, for a 10 per cent wage increase; that of 5,000 clothing workers in Philadelphia in June for a wage increase of \$5 per week; the strike of 5,000 shoe workers in Lynn during April for a wage increase of 30 per cent; the strike in May, of about 5,000 coal miners in 40 mines of Hopkins County, Ky., over renewal of contract; that of about 5,000 bakers for the Ward Baking Co., on May 1, against the open shop in various plants of the company located in New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, etc.; the unsuccessful strike, beginning May 16, of about 4,500 workers in 45 shoe factories in Brockton, Mass., for a 20 per cent wage increase and elimination of the State board of conciliation and arbitration as a stipulated medium for the settlement of disputes; and the successful strike, beginning May 1, of about 4,000 bricklayers and helpers in New York City for a twoyear agreement carrying a basic wage of \$12 per day to bricklayers. Mention should also be made of the strike for a wage increase of 3,950 telephone operators in the five New England States of Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Vermont, beginning June 26. After running for a month the strike was called off by the workers.

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The data in the following tables relate to the 603 disputes reported as having occurred in the three months under consideration. The strikes that occurred during the quarter but in which the exact month was not stated appear in a group by themselves.

STATES IN WHICH TWO OR MORE DISPUTES WERE REPORTED AS OCCURRING IN THE SECOND QUARTER OF 1923.

		Numl	per of d	lisputes				Number of disputes.					
State.	April.	May.	June.	Month not stated.	Total.	State.	April.	May.	June.	Month not stated.	Total		
New York Massachusetts Pennsylvania New Jersey Ohio Connecticut Washington Illinois California Indiana Rhode Island West Virginia Missouri Iowa Maryland	32 30 33 6 8 9 16 8 4 7 2 6 4 5	53 51 28 9 11 11 7 7 7 6 5 8 8 3 1	30 20 19 10 4 3 1 6 4 3 2 2 2 3 6	5 8 9 9 2 2 1 1	120 109 89 27 25 24 24 22 21 14 14 13 12 11	District of Columbia. Texas. Colorado. Maine. Michigan. Montana. New Hampshire. Wisconsin. Georgia. Kentucky. Oklahoma. 8 other States. Interstate.	2 2 1 2 1 1	2 2 1 2 1 2 1 1 1 3 3	1 1 2 1 1	1 1 2	55 44 33 33 33 33 22 22 22 28 810		
Minnesota Oregon	1 4	4 2	2 3	2	9 9	Total	203	234	126	40	60		

Of these 603 disputes, 470 occurred east of the Mississippi River and north of the Ohio and Potomac Rivers, 102 occurred west of the Mississippi; and 21 occurred south of the Ohio and Potomac Rivers and east of the Mississippi River. Of the 10 interstate strikes, 6, including the Ward bakers and the New England telephone operators, occurred east of the Mississippi River; 1 occurred west of the Mississippi River, and 3, of minor importance, embraced both sides of the river.

About 63 per cent of the disputes occurred in the industrial States

of New York, Massachusetts, and Pennsylvania.

As to cities, New York City leads with 79 strikes, followed by Boston and Chicago with 14 each, and Springfield, Mass., with 10; while Philadelphia, Cleveland, St. Louis, Brockton, Mass., and Seattle each had 8.

As to sex of the strikers involved, the distribution was as follows: Males only were involved in 426 disputes; females only in 11; both males and females in 101; and in 65 strikes the sex of the strikers

was not reported.

The following table shows the number of disputes reported as occurring in the industries specified. About 62 per cent of them occurred in the building trades, clothing, textiles, coal mining, and metal trades.

NUMBER OF DISPUTES IN SPECIFIED INDUSTRIES REPORTED AS OCCURRING DUR-ING THE SECOND QUARTER OF 1923.

		Num	ber of disp	outes.	
Occupation.	April.	May.	June.	Month not stated.	Total.
Building trades' workers	39	46	26	11	12
Clothing workers	21	41	23	4	8
Tottling workers	32	20	5	3	6
Cextile workers	17	20	8	. 8	F
Coal miners				. 8	
Metal trades employees	18	16	15	2	5
Bakers		14	4		1
Chauffours and teamsters	4	5	6	1	1
Street, sewer, and park employees	6	5	2 1	3	1
Street, sewer, and park employees Lumber and timber workers.	9	3	1		3
Food workers	4	3	2		
Steamboat men.	8	1			
Longshoremen and freight handlers	3	1	4		
Paper workers	2	4	1	1	
Printing and publishing employees	ĩ	5	2		
Printing and publishing employees	2	3	-	3	
Stone workers	2			0	
Electrical workers	3	3	1		
Hotel and restaurant employees	2	3	1	1	
Leather workers	3	4			
Barbers Street-railway employees	1	2	3		
Street-railway employees		5	1		
Laundry workers	2	2	1		
Motion picture and theatrical employees	3	1	1		
Laundry workers Motion picture and theatrical employees Tobacco workers	3 2 2	3	Accession of the		
Brick and tile workers.	2	2			
Glass workers	1	2	1		
Glass Workers	3	ī			
Shipbuilding employees Slaughtering, meat cutting and packing employees	2	1	2		
Slaughtering, meat cutting and packing employees	3		4		
Iron and steel workers	1				
Light, heat, and power employees Rubber workers	1	1	2		
Rubber workers		2	1		
Stationary firemen		3			
Clerks and salesmen	1	1			
Fishermen		2			
Furniture employees		1	1		
Oil and chemical employees. Telephone and telegraph employees.	2				
Telephone and telegraph employees			2		
Miscellaneous	6	9	10	3	2
Total	203	234	126	40	60

In 423 disputes the employees were reported as connected with unions; in 37 disputes they were not so connected; in 5 disputes both union and nonunion employees were involved; in 7 disputes they were unionized after the strikes began; and in 131 disputes the question of union affiliation was not reported.

In 378 disputes only one employer was concerned in each disturbance; in 28 disputes, 2 employers; in 14 disputes, 3 employers; in 5 disputes, 4 employers; in 8 disputes, 5 employers; in 41 disputes, more than 5 employers; and in 129 disputes the number of employers was not reported.

In the 480 disputes for which the number of persons was reported there were 258,255 employees directly involved, or an average of 538 per strike.

In 57 disputes in which the number involved was 1,000 or more, the strikers numbered 190,580, thus leaving 67,675 involved in the remaining 423 disputes, or an average of 160 each.

By months the figures are as follows: April, 67,982 persons in 172 disputes, average 395, of whom 26,314 were in 152 disputes of less than 1,000 persons each, average 173; May 123,638 persons in 188 disputes, average 658, of whom 26,886 were in 168 disputes of less

than 1,000 persons each, average 160; June, 51,784 persons in 104 disputes, average 498, of whom 12,324 were in 90 disputes of less than 1,000 persons each, average 137. In 16 disputes, involving 14,851 persons the month in which the strike began was not reported.

The following table shows the principal causes of the disputes in so far as reported. In more than 50 per cent of them wages were a prominent question:

PRINCIPAL CAUSES OF DISPUTES REPORTED AS OCCURRING IN THE SECOND QUARTER OF 1923.

		Nun	aber of disp	outes.	
Cause.	April.	May.	June.	Month not stated.	Total.
Increase of wages	88	84	52	17	24
Decrease of wages	3	6	02	1	23
Wages not otherwise specified	4	7	5	4	2
ncrease of hours		1			
Decrease of hours	2	1			
ncrease of wages and decrease of hours	14	4	10	1	5
Recognition of union	4	14	5	2	
Recognition and wages	2	10	7		
Recognition and hours		3			
Recognition, wages, hours	1	7	3		
Recognition, wages, hours	18	11	5	1	
Conditions and wages	15	7	3	1	
Conditions and hours	1		NAME OF THE PARTY		
Conditions, wages, hours		2			
Conditions and recognition		2 2	1		
Discharge of foreman demanded				1	
Discharge of employees	9	4	5	1	-
Employment of nonunion men		4	4		
Delectionable persons hired			Î		
Discrimination	1	2			
pen or closed shop	10	18	6	2	
mair products	2				
n regard to agreement	8	7	3		
New agreement	2 8 3 3	3	1		
ympathy	3	8	3	2	
urisdiction	2	4			
fiscellaneous	4	17	6	3	
Not reported	15	8	6	5	
Total	203	234	126	40	60

It is often difficult to determine exactly when a strike terminates, since many strikes end without any formal vote on the part of the strikers. The bureau has information of the ending of 401 disputes during the quarter, including about 28 in which the positions of the employees were filled or they returned to work with probably little or no interruption of the work.

The following table shows the number of disputes ending in the

first six months of 1922 and 1923:

NUMBER OF DISPUTES ENDING IN THE FIRST SIX MONTHS OF 1922 AND 1923.

Year.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	Month not stated.	Total.
1922	37	27	35	37	76	47	45	304
1923	57	59	70	110	160	107	31	594

The table following shows the results of disputes ending in the second quarter of 1923:

RESULTS OF DISPUTES ENDING DURING THE SECOND QUARTER OF 1923.

	Number of disputes.						
Result.	April.	May.	June.	Month not stated.	Total.		
In favor of employers. In favor of employees. Compromised Employees returned pending arbitration. Not reported.	41 20 27 2 2 20	44 51 38 1 26	31 41 18 3 14	1 22 1	11' 134 88 6		
Total	110	160	107	24	40		

The next table gives the duration of disputes ending in the second quarter of 1923, by classified periods of duration.

CLASSIFIED DURATION OF DISPUTES ENDING IN THE SECOND QUARTER OF 1923.

	Number of disputes.								
Duration.	April.	May.	June.	Month not stated.	Total.				
1 day or less	18 12 6 9 17 24 7 1	22 7 14 13 24 29 16 6 8	7 9 8 5 13 23 13 4 13 2 10	24	47 28 28 28 27 54 76 36 11 21 7				
Total	110	160	107	24	401				

The number of days lost in the industrial disputes ending in the quarter for the 335 reporting was approximately 5,594. The average duration of these was 17 days. The average duration of the disputes lasting less than 90 days was 10 days. By months the record is as follows: April, 2,443 days lost, average 25 days; May, 1,294 days lost, average 9 days; June, 1,857 days lost, average 19 days.

Of the 401 disputes ending during the quarter, 335 reported duration, and of this number 302 reported the number of employees involved, aggregating 180,641, an average of 598 employees.

Of the 401 disputes reported as ending during the quarter, 340 reported the number of employees involved, aggregating 197,790, an average of 582 employees.

Strikes and Lockouts in Czechoslovakia, 1922.1

THE difficult industrial situation in Czechoslovakia during 1922 found expression in 262 strikes and 20 lockouts, which involved 979 establishments and a total of 114,909 workers. Almost one-fifth of the workers affected were women. Of the total number of strikes and lockouts, 212 affected single establishments, while 70 were conducted as group or district affairs. The industrial disputes of 1922 resulted in a total loss of 2,554,350 working-days and of 98,071,500 crowns (\$19,908,514, par) in wages.

There were undoubtedly numerous small strikes during the year under review, which were not officially recorded. It is reasonable, therefore, to estimate the number of workers affected by strikes and lockouts as approximately 150,000, the time lost as 3,000,000 workingdays, and the loss of wages at 150,000,000 Czecho-Slovak crowns

(\$30,450,000, par).

More than half of the strikes were due to protests on the part of employees against the general lowering of wages in all branches of industry, undertaken with a view to relieving the industrial stagnation which resulted from the phenomenal rise in the exchange rate of the Czecho-Slovak crown. Disagreement over the recognition of workers' representatives or organizations proved to be the next principal cause of strikes and lockouts during the year. In the textile industry this was the leading cause of disagreement, which may be explained by the fact that the majority of workers in the textile trades are women, who are less well organized than the male employees in other industries.

Only 50 of the 282 disputes were settled in favor of the workers. Of the remaining cases, 147 were settled in favor of the employers and 82 by compromise agreements.

Three strikes remained unsettled at the close of the year.

The following table shows the distribution of the labor disputes of 1922, by industry groups:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA, BY INDUSTRY, 1922.

[1 crown=20.3 cents par.]

Industry.	Num- ber of strikes.	Number of lock- outs.	Total num- ber of labor dis- putes.	Number of establishments affected.	Number of em- ployees affected.	Working- days lost.	Loss of wages.
Earthenware and glassware. Metal working. Machinery and tools. Woodworking Rubber. Leather Textile Upholstering Clothing. Paper. Foodstuffs. Building. Chemical Printing. Electric power plants. Commerce. Transportation	40 10 43 62 1 11 24 15 6 6 14 11 15 2 2 2	4 1 6 1 1 3 2	44 10 44 68 2 2 27 15 8 14 11 13 1 1 2 2	178 18 168 212 2 2 155 88 2 2 54 17 77 1 119 29 1 1 1 2 2 2	28, 712 2, 914 42, 489 9, 252 560 1, 124 13, 593 30 2, 129 4, 302 2, 129 4, 302 2, 929 117 79 117 46 237	486, 428 62, 077 1, 058, 528 197, 464 23, 455 9, 383 391, 140 91, 330 125, 247 10, 014 51, 866 54, 414 79 995 225 885	Crowns. 17, 729, 912 2, 459, 215 50, 126, 728 5, 769, 304 1, 121, 101 324, 930 11, 647, 933 4, 867, 494 409, 266 4, 550, 128 1, 300, 743 2, 370 37, 810 10, 732 26, 550
Total	262	20	282	979	114, 909	2, 554, 350	98, 071, 500

¹ From a report of the American consul at Prague, dated Apr. 18, 1923.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING.

New Apprenticeship Regulations in New South Wales.

THE scarcity of apprentices in the building trades has been causing grave concern in the Antipodes as well as here, and New South Wales has recently adopted some new apprenticeship rules which, it is hoped, will relieve the situation as far as bricklayers are concerned. In its issue for August 31, 1923, the New South Wales Industrial Gazette gives the terms of the new regulations, which were drawn up by the Board of Trade under the industrial arbitration act, and signed by the Governor on August 10. One of the most important provisions is the adjustment of the required period of training to the age at which it is commenced. Those entering the trade between 14 and 16 years of age are to be apprenticed for five years, those between 16 and 17 for four years, and those between 17 and 19 for three years. For those over 19 the period may be even shorter.

Any apprentice entering the trade after attaining his nineteenth birthday may complete his apprenticeship in two years if he shall have satisfactorily passed through a course of 12 weeks' instruction at the training school for bricklayers conducted by the Master Builders' Association, or such other training school as may from time to time be approved by the said board.

Apparently in New South Wales, as in the United States, it is difficult for an individual employer to provide continuous employment and training for an apprentice, and the regulations name two bodies which may take over the responsibility, and under whose direction the apprentice may be transferred from one employer to another, as may be considered desirable.

The Master Builders' Association or the Operative Bricklayers' Society may, respectively, by their presidents, or any representative officials thereof, be the masters of apprentices in the said trade.

apprentices in the said trade. * * * *

The Master Builders' Association and the Operative Bricklayers' Society, respectively, as masters, may direct the service of the apprentice to be performed under the control of persons to be named by them, and for whose actions and defaults, as deputy masters, they respectively shall be responsible; and the apprentice shall serve accordingly. This condition shall be deemed to be incorporated in all contracts of apprenticeship to the said association or society.

Regulations are made as to wages, hours of work, and, for the younger apprentices, attendance at continuation schools, and one important provision deals with the question of limitation.

Unless and until otherwise ordered, no limitation shall be placed on the proportion of apprentices to journeymen, but application may be made from time to fix the proportion of any employer in respect of whom it is alleged that there is undue employment of junior labor.

Vocational Guidance in Brussels.

A N ACCOUNT of the methods employed in the vocational guidance and placement of young people in Brussels and its environs is given in the International Labor Review for September, 1923 (pp. 345–359). The Vocational Guidance Bureau of Brussels was founded in 1911 and consists of local offices which have been set up in every commune and a central office which collects literature, prepares material for tests, conducts propaganda, deals

with difficult cases, and assists the local offices.

The establishment of vocational guidance in Belgium was not the result of a difficult economic situation, as in many countries, since between the years 1870 and 1910 the trade and industry of the country had enjoyed a period of remarkable prosperity. At the end of that period their further development was checked, however, and the lack of apprentices in the old handicrafts due to the growth of large-scale industry became apparent. It was realized that it was necessary to improve the labor force of the country in view of the competition in the foreign markets which was certain to become more intense in the future, since Belgium could produce hardly a quarter of the food needed and must therefore be in a position to export largely. To do this it was essential to produce goods of equal or, if possible, superior quality to those of its competitors and to sell at equal or lower prices, and this idea was responsible for a movement, supported by all parties, for the improvement of technical education. Popular sentiment had favored for some time the development of elementary education, and manual training had been instituted in the schools in order to enable working-class children to complete their education and at the same time prepare for a trade.

A society was formed in Brussels, of business and professional men, which had for its purpose the study of matters relating to children, and in 1909 a section was established for the placement of apprentices and the supervision of apprenticeship. In this first work, from which the scheme for vocational guidance developed, the choice of a trade was not considered, the aim being to find suitable situations for boys and girls and to see that they were not exploited.

Experience in this work showed that frequently parents paid no attention to the physique of their children when choosing an occupation for them, that they often overestimated the intellectual abilities of their children, and were also ignorant of the requirements of the occupation selected. Because of these conditions there was developed a system of school reports, psychological examinations, and examinations in motor functions, which gradually and without any predetermined plan led up to the formation of a system of vocational guidance and the establishment of the bureau. Attempts to classify the occupations from the standpoint of the special qualifications required, by means of questionnaires circulated among manufacturers and craftsmen, failed, since the replies brought out the objective qualities but did not reveal the characteristics of the occupations or help to classify the workers. A doctor, a psychologist, and a technician were therefore appointed to observe skilled workers in the exercise of their trades in order to determine the essential qualifications in the different occupations, a method, the article states, which recent

developments have shown to be the most practical one for the solution

of the problem.

The tests followed in the plan for vocational guidance include as a first essential a thorough medical examination. In addition to the physical examination, the physician is expected to furnish information relating to the child's temperament, his probable degree of resistance to muscular and nervous fatigue, and his ability to work under certain conditions. The mental examination, which is used only as a means of checking the reports of the teachers of the children examined, includes tests on attention, sensation and perception, memory, and complex intellectual activity. Laboratory tests of motor abilities are conducted which measure rapidity, endurance, facility in starting a movement, and motor memory; tests are also

given involving training of the motor functions.

The Intercommunal Vocational Guidance Office is controlled by a committee composed of two delegates from each commune and two delegates of the State and the Province. It is supported in the main by contributions by the communes. The office has three departments—medical, psychological, and research in technical abilities. The work of the staff of the central office includes assembling documentary material on vocational guidance (library, museum of apparatus, etc.), collecting data showing the essential qualifications for success in the various trades, training the staff of the communal offices in the technique of vocational guidance, examining all special or new cases referred to it by the communal offices, and inspecting the local offices. There is also a committee, consisting of the director of the office and delegates from employers' and workers' organizations, to collect statistics and study conditions under which the various occupations should be carried on. This committee is authorized to secure the assistance of specialists when necessary. There are local communal offices in each commune, the number depending upon its population and financial resources. Each of these offices includes at least one vocational counselor and two examiners, one of whom is

The placement of apprentices, after compulsory examination by the vocational guidance office, has taken place through the trade associations, but by a recent agreement between the official employment exchange and the vocational guidance office a special department has been established in the employment exchange to look after the placement of male and female apprentices. This department is supervised by a committee composed of five employer members appointed by the chamber of commerce, four representatives of the workers appointed by the Association of Socialist and Independent Trade-Unions, one member appointed by the Federation of Christian Trade-Unions, three delegates of the employment exchange, three delegates of the vocational guidance office, and one represent-

ative of the Ministry of Labor.

All applications for employment are dealt with by the employment exchange and the results of the examination given at the vocational guidance office are taken into consideration in the placement of young people applying for positions. Lists of pupils of about the age of 14 are furnished the vocational counselor by the schools when they are about to complete the elementary school course. The preferences

of the children or of their parents in the choice of a trade are noted and in addition the teacher reporting is asked to send a school report for each child. On receipt of this list the vocational counselor writes to the parents of the children requesting them to take advantage of the services of the communal office. In assisting the young people in the choice of a trade the wishes of the parents and the child are followed so far as possible whenever they have clear preferences which seem to be based upon good reasons, unless the work involves a risk which the medical examination shows should not be incurred, or where there are very definite counterindications in respect to mental, sensory, or motor faculties. Attempts also are made to prevent the choice of a trade which is overcrowded and in which there is no chance of improvement within a reasonable length of time. In cases where no decided preference is evidenced for any particular occupation the results of the various examinations, tests, and reports are taken into consideration in assisting young people in the choice of a trade, and if a child is found to have ability which warrants further study the parents, if unable to meet the expense, are directed to agencies where they can obtain assistance. Cases which present unusual difficulties are not dealt with by the local offices but are referred to the central office for settlement.

In general all cases, whether those of children leaving school or of young persons who have entered a trade but think they have been mistaken in their choice of a vocation, are considered individually and the attempt is made to weigh the various factors "just as a patient is treated by a doctor or as a case is studied by counsel for

the defense."

Vocational and Other Educational Training by Employers in Finland.

AN INVESTIGATION recently carried on in 150 large industrial establishments in Finland 1 showed that employers are gradually beginning to recognize the importance of vocational

instruction for young persons.

In 1921 new legislation was passed which provided for the reorganization of the school system as a whole and required two years' continuation instruction for pupils leaving school to go to work. In certain industrial districts an attempt has been made to direct this required continuation instruction toward the pupil's future vocation. Apprentices at factories receive theoretical instruction for one or two days per week, thus combining the theory with their practical experience in the factory. Of the enterprises investigated, only nine had established special trade schools for their employees, but it is hoped that more will do so when reorganization of the school system is completed.

Of the vocational schools in Finland, that established in 1919 by the Machine & Bridge Building Co. for its employees is stated to be of the most interest. The school provides a four-year course, to which

¹ The results of this investigation are given in Nos. 4, 6, 7, and 9 of Social Tidskrift. For an account of employers' housing and welfare work for employees, see pp. 154 and 191 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

24 pupils are admitted each year, and furnishes theoretical instruction in both trade and general elementary subjects. As far as possible attempts are made to secure pupils whose homes are in the rural districts. A dormitory (internat) accommodating 50 pupils is connected with this school. The resident pupils are under the supervision of an experienced teacher and receive all care and necessary clothing. After a trial period of three months, during which the student may leave if he desires, an apprenticeship contract is made out and the company deposits to the credit of the resident pupil (intern) 500 marks (\$96.50, par) at interest while the pupil stays with the school. The wage which the resident pupil would receive during this first year is withheld to cover part of the expenditure of the dormitory. During the three remaining years of apprenticeship, the same amount is withheld, but as the apprentice's wages, beginning with the second year, are based on piece rates, there may be a considerable surplus over this amount. This surplus is credited to the pupil's savings account, so that when his schooling is finished he has a sum that allows him to continue his education at home or abroad.

Some industrial establishments have provided free lecture courses for their employees; these have increased in popularity from year to year. Another form of educational activity is the establishing of libraries and reading rooms for the workers. Of the enterprises investigated, 33 have arranged for libraries or reading rooms; others furnish funds to young people's societies for this purpose. Still other employers subscribe for newspapers which employees wish sent to them. Some factories have arranged for practical courses in house-

hold economy, sewing, care of children, and other matters.

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WELFARE.

Welfare Work for Employees in Finland.

INFORMATION as to welfare measures undertaken by Finnish employers for their workers has been collected by the Finnish woman factory inspectors in the course of their regular work ¹ and published in Nos. 4, 6, 7, and 9 of Social Tidskrift. The investigation covered 150 large industrial firms operating 222 factories.

In 44 of the 150 firms, joint-purchase schemes have been established whereby the employees by combining their purchases may obtain their supplies at the lowest possible cost, the buying being done by a qualified person paid by the firm. Factory kitchens or restaurants have been installed by about 30 firms, the kitchen or restaurant being operated by a manager paid by the firm, by a joint committee of employees, or by outside parties. It was found that the second method of operation was apparently the most satisfactory to the employees.

Another measure instituted by some of the larger employers is the setting up of so-called "interest offices." These offices generally perform such duties as paying, for the worker, his taxes, insurance, school expenses, and other regularly recurring expenditures; in some instances, however, these offices also make arrangements for taking care of loans, savings, and the management of joint-purchase schemes, and even, in some cases, the operation of day nurseries or

courses in cooking, gardening, nursing, etc.

Of the 150 establishments studied, 78 had made some arrangement for the provision of medical attention for their workers and 33 either had their own hospital or sick rooms or had made arrangements for rooms at the commune or other hospitals where their employees could be treated. Company hospitals range all the way from those with the simplest equipment to those equipped with all the most modern appliances. One firm also has a convalescent and vacation home. In many factories where there is no hospital a doctor is employed; often the same physician is employed by several factories. Factories located in cities often make arrangements with several doctors, the medical attendance being given free or at greatly reduced rates. Of the enterprises studied, 65 employ nurses, etc., and 87 have established sick funds for the employees. Funeral funds have also been established at several large enterprises.

Some 20 factories employ welfare workers to advise their employees, and two large establishments jointly employ a welfare director who has oversight of hygienic conditions in the workshops, works out any necessary welfare and protective measures, and directs the

social activities of the workers.

Other measures instituted by the employers for the benefit of their workers include vocational training for young workers, lecture courses for older employees,² day nurseries and summer colonies for their employees' children, and support of the employees' athletic and social clubs.

¹The data gathered as to housing for employees are summarized on pp. 154 to 156 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

²For an account of these activities, see pp. 189 and 190 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

COOPERATION.

Cooperative Restaurants and Distribution of Milk, Minneapolis.¹

THE success of the Franklin Cooperative Creamery Association of Minneapolis shows what can be done by the cooperative movement in distributing milk. This association was formed as a result of a controversy in the fall of 1919 between the local milk distributors and their drivers. The society, formed by some of the strikers, has had a steadily increasing success. The business is carried on by the workers themselves on a salary basis, the surplus savings made by the business being returned to the member patrons on the basis of patronage.

Between July, 1921, and July, 1923, the number of wagons operated by the association increased from 46 to 146 and the number of employees from 120 to 381. In July, 1923, the sales amounted to \$286,095 as compared with \$86,849 in July, 1921. The sales during the period January to September, 1923, reached a total of \$2,285,408. The association delivers milk to "more than 40,000 homes in the city of Minneapolis," and is stated to be the largest creamery in the city. Ice cream is also manufactured and sold by the association.

Its net savings for the first nine months of 1923 amounted to \$158,612. It is stated that the creamery not only has "materially reduced the price of milk," but it has returned to its patrons a 5 per

cent dividend on their purchases, amounting to \$86,047.

Some two months ago a cooperative restaurant was opened in the down-town district of the same city by a cooperative organization formed chiefly of members of the Northwestern Cooks' Association and employees of the Franklin Cooperative Creamery Association. This very soon proved to be too small and the new association, the Franklin System Cooperatives (Inc.), opened another early in September. Both places are reported to be operating successfully and the society is already running its own small bakery.

Progress of Consumers' Cooperative Wholesale Societies.

Cooperative Central Exchange.

DURING the first seven months of 1923, according to a statement in the October, 1923, issue of Cooperation (New York), the Cooperative Central Exchange of Superior, Wis., had sales amounting to \$289,700, or \$97,399 more than in the corresponding period of the previous year. A saving of \$2,961 was made from these sales as compared with a loss of \$2,113 in 1922.

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¹ Data are from the Minneapolis Cooperator, issues of June 15 and Sept. 14, 1923, and news service of The Cooperative League.

Central States Cooperative Wholesale Society.2

HE Central States Cooperative Wholesale Society, East St. Louis, Ill., recently held its annual convention, at which some 50 socie-

ties with a membership of about 15,000 were represented.

It is stated that a "broad educational program" was adopted at the meeting, which will pay particular attention to the need of intensive cooperative education of the people of the mining towns of Illinois.

This wholesale society was, until about a year ago, operated on what was called the "American plan." It has now been reorganized on a strictly Rochdale basis with control entirely in the hands of its constituent retail societies. According to the report of the assistant manager of the wholesale, all but 14 of the 43 "American plan" stores in existence when the reorganization began have been disposed of. In many cases independent Rochdale societies were organized and the stores were turned over to them to operate, while in other cases the stores were either closed or sold out.

Course in Cooperative Training, Minneapolis. 3

THE Northern States Cooperative League has been conducting a five weeks' course in cooperative training. The course, which opened in Minneapolis September 4, 1923, covered the theory, principles, and history of the cooperative movement, bookkeeping (including the special system, adapted to cooperative enterprises, recommended by the Cooperative Central Exchange) and problems of organization and administration of consumers' cooperative societies of various types.

This is stated to be the "first attempt made in the United States to organize a cooperative training school to be conducted in the English language," although similar courses, in the Finnish language, have been given for several years by the Cooperative Central Ex-

change, at Superior, Wis.

Altogether 22 students, 4 of them women, took the course, 14 of whom come from places outside Minneapolis. Of the students attending, 9 were born in the United States, 6 in Sweden, 5 in Finland, 1 in Canada, and 1 in Norway.

Guiding Points in the Location of the Cooperative Store.

CTUDENTS of the cooperative training course recently held in Minneapolis 4 drew up the following set of points for a guide to cooperative societies in locating their cooperative stores:

Get a good street map of the town (or of the section of the city) in which the society is located. Then, using different colored pins or different characters (such as *, x, o):

1. Plot the homes of members of the society.

2. Plot all competitor stores, distinguishing between chain stores and individual private stores.

Data are from press release of Central States Cooperative Wholesale Society, dated Oct. 2, 1923; and
 Cooperation, New York, November, 1923.
 Data are from Cooperation, New York, August, 1923, and The Minneapolis Cooperator, Sept. 14, 1923.
 See article immediately preceding.

3. Plot all available locations, distinguishing between stores for rent and ground that might be used for new buildings.

Study the situation carefully in each instance and answer the following questions,

with regard to each available location: 1. How available is it to the members?

2. How is it located with reference to the nearest general shopping center?

3. How is it located with reference to its nearest competitors?

4. With reference to the movement of shopping crowds, is it (a) on the right side of the street? (b) directly in the line of approaching home-bound commuters (near a large city)? (c) how many leisure-hour shoppers pass this site (between 9 and 12 a. m.; 1 and 4 p. m.)?

5. How many people of all classes pass this point between 8 and 9 a. m.; between 12 and 1 p. m.; between 4 and 6 p. m.?

6. Class of people in the majority passing the store (business men; school children; industrial workers; women)?
7. How many of these are possible buyers?

8. What nationality are these people? 9. Approximately what proportion of the people in the neighborhood are good material for new members?

10. Are the people in the neighborhood well established or is the population

shifting?

11. Have there been cooperative stores in this district previously? If so, what happened to them?

12. Is the neighborhood attractively laid out?

- 13. How near is the location to post office (in small town) or to other general centers of attraction?
 - 14. Is the competition between other stores so keen that prices are abnormally low? 15. How much of the trade is cash and carry; how much credit and delivery?

With regard to the property itself—
1. What is its rental value (or purchase value)?
2. What kind of a building is it and for what was it used previously?

2. What kind of a building is it and for what was it used provided.

3. What is the nature of the most immediate neighbors on either side and across that is the nature of the most immediate neighbors on either side and across that is the nature of the most immediate neighbors on either side and across that is the nature of the most immediate neighbors on either side and across that is the nature of the most immediate neighbors on either side and across that is the nature of the most immediate neighbors on either side and across that is the nature of the most immediate neighbors on either side and across that is the nature of the most immediate neighbors on either side and across that is the nature of the most immediate neighbors on either side and across the nature of the most immediate neighbors on either side and across the nature of the most immediate neighbors on either side and across the nature of the most immediate neighbors on either side and across the nature of the most immediate neighbors on either side and across the nature of the nature of the most immediate neighbors on either side and across the nature of the nature o the street (business or dwelling and how engaged or of what class)?

4. Is is a corner lot? How much window space? What kind of windows?

5. How wide is the sidewalk? Made of what material?

6. What are the sanitary conditions in and about the building?

7. What improvements are there in the building?

8. How high are buildings on either side and across the street? How prominent?
9. Are all improvements placed under street and paid for?

10. What sun hits the windows (morning, noon, or afternoon)? Are there any shade trees or other protection? 5

Report of British Labor Copartnership Association, 1922.

THE September, 1923, issue of Copartnership (London) contains (pp. 138 and 139) the thirtieth annual report of the Labor Copartnership Association. This association is a federation of societies whose declared aim it is "to bring about an organization of industry based upon the principle of labor copartnership; that is to say, a system in which all those engaged shall share in the profits, capital, control, and responsibility."

In the 1921 report (see Monthly Labor Review, November, 1922, pp. 226 and 227) it was stated that 1921 was the worst year yet experienced; the present report states that 1922 was equally bad, but the hope is expressed that the worst is now over and that an improve-

ment in business conditions may be expected.

⁵ From Cooperation, New York, November, 1923, p. 196.

The table below contains figures, taken from the report, showing details of operation for 1922 of the societies engaged in various kinds of work:

RESULTS OF OPERATION OF COPARTNERSHIP PRODUCTIVE SOCIETIES IN GREAT BRITAIN, 1922, BY INDUSTRY.

[£ at par=\$4.8665.]

Country and industry.	Number of societies.	Share and loan capi- tal and reserve.	Amount of business.	Profit.	Loss.	Amount paid as dividend on wages.
England: Textile. Boot and shoe. Metal Building and wood. Printing, etc. Miscellaneous.	13 15 3 6 16 7	£577, 409 354, 050 36, 951 54, 811 191, 389 168, 445	£1,153,754 645,695 81,760 47,733 372,205 174,738	£65, 290 28, 276 3, 478 496 21, 082 501	£12,059 10,089 63 1,649 81 13,320	£7, 292 6, 089 1, 375 3, 337
Total	60	1, 383, 055	2, 475, 885	119, 123	37, 261	18, 237
Scotland: Textile Baking Printing	1 1 2	282, 989 840, 391 22, 037	274, 293 1, 384, 801 24, 711	16, 200 89, 148 868		1, 085 14, 109 66
Total	4	1, 145, 417	1,683,805	106, 216		15, 260
Grand total	64	2,528,472	4, 159, 690	225, 339	37, 261	33, 497

The table following shows the development of the copartnership movement since 1883:

DEVELOPMENT OF COPARTNERSHIP MOVEMENT IN GREAT BRITAIN, 1883 TO 1922.

[£ at par=\$4.8665.]

Country and year.	Number of societies.	Amount of capital.	Amount of business.	Profit.	Loss.	Amount re- turned as dividend on wages.
England and Wales:						
1883	12	£85,786	£138, 248	£7,519	£114	
1896	83	433, 439	808, 136	31, 833	11,329	£6,900
1909	93	679, 425	1, 138, 915	52,665	7,283	10, 135
1913	76	744, 585	1,503,339	85, 899	2,086	13, 949
1920	61	1, 353, 527	4,904,580	272, 065	24, 853	57,761
1921.	61	1, 439, 533	2, 873, 212	85, 256	130,770	19,598
1922	60		2, 475, 885	119, 123	37, 261	18, 237
Scotland:	00	1,383,055	2, 410, 000	119, 120	31,201	10, 201
1883	3	17,650	99 509	1,512		
1896	7		22,503			9,088
1000	6	581, 991	1,043,047	73, 181	197	15,433
	5	1,302,328	3,058,923	143, 814	197	
1913		1,525,495	3,545,298	159,877		19,614
1920	4	1, 104, 413	2, 801, 102	185,550		10,531
1921	4	1,145,576	2, 212, 163	141,876		18,784
1922	4	1, 145, 417	1,683,805	106, 216		15, 260
Great Britain:		100 100	400 ===	0.004	444	
1883	15	103, 436	160, 751	9,031	114	***********
1896	90	1,015,430	1,851,183	105, 014	11,329	15,988
1909	99	1 2, 981, 753	4, 197, 838	196, 479	7,480	25, 568
1913	81	1 2, 270, 078	5, 048, 637	245,776	2,086	33,563
1920	65	1 2, 457, 930	7,705,682	457,615	24, 853	68, 292
1921	65	2,585,109	5, 085, 375	227, 132	130,770	38, 382
1922	64	2,528,472	4, 159, 690	225,339	37, 261	33, 497

 $^{^{\}rm i}$ Not the exact sum of the amounts given above for Scotland and England and Wales, but is as given in the report.

Cooperation in Foreign Countries.

Australia.

ABOR Report, 1922, No. 13, of the Bureau of Census and Statistics of Australia contains the results of a comprehensive investigation of the cooperative movement in that country made by the bureau.

The following table taken from the report shows the number of

societies in 1922:

NUMBER OF SOCIETIES IN AUSTRALIA OF EACH TYPE IN 1922, BY STATE.

		Producers' societies.		ners' societies.	Total.		
State.	Num- ber.	Membership.	Num- ber.	Membership.	Num- ber.	Membership.	
New South Wales. Victoria Queensland South Australia West Australia Tasmania	58 67 40 25 26 12	52,098 53,048 25,699 38,451 2,619 20,555	43 29 10 10 43 2	49, 179 20, 158 4, 412 30, 398 } 6, 832	101 96 50 35 69 14	101, 277 73, 206 30, 111 68, 849 }	
Total	228	192, 470	137	110, 979	365	303, 449	

The table below shows the statistics of operation in 1922:

OPERATIONS OF COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN AUSTRALIA IN 1922, BY STATE AND TYPE OF SOCIETIES.

	Producers' societies.				Consumers' societies.				
State.	Share capital.	Sales for year.	Net saving.	Share capital.	Sales for year.	Net saving.	Amount returned in dividends on purchases.		
New South Wales Victoria Queensland South Australia West Australia Tasmania	£824, 503 1, 214, 728 400, 644 719, 231 42, 999 99, 257	£12, 230, 060 10, 174, 929 5, 597, 966 5, 468, 747 202, 806 258, 014	£141, 785 47, 116 59, 275 1 10, 145 9, 403 13, 435	£483, 319 156, 105 35, 423 498, 545 } 54, 419	£3, 148, 913 894, 970 233, 862 1, 791, 658 494, 195	£255, 044 24, 860 5, 737 69, 844 9, 755	£236, 054 10, 765 3, 373 37, 164 5, 349		
Total	3, 301, 362	33, 932, 522	260, 869	1, 227, 811	6, 563, 598	365, 240	292, 70		

¹T.oss

The above tables include figures for plant stores established by employers for the benefit of their employees. In the case of New South Wales they also include statistics for the cooperative wholesale society, thereby involving a certain amount of duplication.

Canada.

A REPORT from the Cooperative Union of Canada noted in the October, 1923, issue of the International Cooperative Bulletin (pp. 247, 248) contains statistics for certain affiliated Canadian cooperative societies for the year 1922. These statistics cover only 12 consumers' societies and the great Canadian cooperative market-

ing association, the United Grain Growers (Ltd.). The report states that 1922 was a year of trading losses and unemployment on a large scale, but that on the whole the cooperative societies fared very well. Four societies reported decreased sales, aggregating \$197,944, but it is pointed out that "it is probable that the deflation of prices contributed to this as much as reduction in trade support through reduced purchasing power of members."

The combined membership of the 12 consumers' societies was 6,552 and the sales for the year \$2,166,196. The societies' share capital totaled \$293,183 and their loan capital \$157,782. Their

reserve funds amounted to \$94,781.

Dividends on purchases ranging from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 10 per cent were paid by nine societies and amounted to \$138,761.

It should be pointed out that the statistics given fall far short of disclosing the actual condition of the organized movement in Canada during 1922. Even if statistics of the entire organized movement were available they would represent a very small proportion of those of Canadian societies organized on the Rochdale plan. There are hundreds of societies operating in isolation, and the Federal Government has no machinery at its disposal for collecting the necessary data. The isolated societies are bound to disappear sooner or later, since, deprived of the experience of other societies, and generally organized in ignorance of cooperative principles, there is little chance of many of them being permanently successful. Persistent efforts are, however, being made to bring such societies to see the folly of the policy of isolation, and, as is stated in the Canadian Cooperator, if the campaign now being conducted meets with considerable success, there should be a great improvement in the position of the organized movement by next year.

The United Grain Growers (Ltd.) reported a membership of 35,748 and sales of \$2,838,424.

Saskatchewan.

A summary of the annual report of the cooperation and markets branch of the Saskatchewan Department of Agriculture given in the September, 1923, issue of the Public Service Weekly (Regina) "indicates that during the year ended April 30, 1923, agricultural cooperation has made very satisfactory progress." "The bountiful harvest of 1922 is reflected in the ledgers of the associations."

The number of shareholders in cooperative associations at the present time is 16,849. The paid-up capital invested has increased from \$501,070.33 to \$504,570.19. During the year 52 associations marketing livestock shipped 805 cars, the receipts amounting to \$749,360.58. The value of farm products marketed through the associations amounted to \$25,361.41, while the total value of supplies sold amounted to \$3,332,517.08. The aggregate turnover of the associations, including livestock, amounted to \$4,107,239.07, the net profit earned being \$110,997.34. * * * That the Saskatchewan Cooperative Elevator Co. had a good year is shown by the fact that its net profit for the year was \$463,056.63, and a cash dividend of 8 per cent on the paid-up value of the shares was made. During the year 332 elevators handled

on the paid-up value of the shares was made. During the year 332 elevators handled a total of 34,769,955 bushels of all grains, and 2,565,422 bushels were shipped over the platform, making a total of 37,335,377 bushels compared with 27,990,437 bushels handled during the previous year. The commission sales department handled 36,519,352 bushels and the terminal elevators 22,419,398 bushels.

Ceylon.

THE Ceylon Blue Book for 1922 contains (pp. Z1-Z3) detailed data showing for each of the cooperative societies in the colony the date of registration, whether of limited or of unlimited liability, number of members, paid-in share capital, reserve, and data as to loans granted by the Government. These figures show that on April 30, 1922, there were 167 cooperative societies, with 19,957 members. Their paid-in share capital amounted to Rs. 150,354 (\$73,170, par) and their reserve to Rs. 25,057 (\$12,194, par). Loans to the amount of Rs. 43,345 (\$21,094, par) had been granted to these societies by the Government; of this amount Rs. 36,043 (\$17,540, par) was still owing.

No information is given as to the kind of business done by the

various societies.

Czechoslovakia.

THE September 28, 1923, issue of Industrial and Labor Information (Geneva) contains (p. 33) a summary of the 1922 report of the Czecho-Slovak Union of Building and Housing Cooperative Societies. According to this account 232 local housing societies are affiliated with the union. Of these societies, during 1922, 75 bought building land valued at 4,469,353 kronen (\$907,279, par); 79 societies built a total of 639 houses, containing accommodation for 739 families, and 17 blocks of houses containing 164 flats.

The report states that the number of societies which undertook building operations was larger than in the preceding year but that fewer houses were built. This decrease in dwellings provided was

due chiefly to the difficulty of securing capital.

India (Punjab).

THE report of the Punjab registrar of cooperative societies for the year 1921–22 contains statistics of the movement there of which the following is a summary:

OPERATIONS OF COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN THE PUNJAB IN 1921-22, BY TYPE OF SOCIETY.

[Rupee	at par=	48,665	cents.1

Type of society.	Number of societies.	Number of members.	Paid-in share capital.	Reserve fund.	Working eapital.)	Profit for year.
Central banking societies	144	1 8, 233	Rupees. 1, 435, 880	Rupees. 601, 469	Rupees. 16,613,534	Rupees. 280, 404
Agricultural societies: Credit. Purchase and purchase and sale. Production and sale. Other.	8, 232 160 11 354	214, 837 1, 175 477 22, 179	5, 027, 134 57, 241 83, 760 1, 494	5, 708, 785 20, 377 17, 078 1, 167	24, 665, 989 312, 915 277, 925 3, 826	1,066,209 2 17,689 2 212 694
Total	8,757	238, 668	5, 169, 629	5,747,407	25, 260, 655	1,049,002
Nonagricultural societies	401 41	17, 594 529	331, 094	101, 118	1, 202, 840	15, 220

¹ Member societies.

² Loss.

Similar data for other parts of India were given in the July, 1923, issue of the Monthly Labor Review (pp. 239-242).

Italy.

Fascist Cooperatives.

IT APPEARS, from an article in the September 5, 1923, issue of L'Association Ouvrière (Paris), that there is now a Fascist cooperative movement in Italy. There was already a Catholic, a

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Socialist, and a "neutral" movement, though many of these societies

have been destroyed by Fascist supporters.

The Fascist societies held their first convention at Milan on June 17, 1923, at the call of their federation, the Italian Union of Cooperatives, which was formed in April, 1921. The union claims to have in affiliation 1,341 local societies with a combined membership of 247,000 and a business for 1922 of 350,000,000 lire (\$67,550,000, par).

According to the article, the convention unanimously approved the attitude taken by the Central Commission on Cooperation in its revision of the Commercial Code in providing that cooperative societies should be allowed to pursue no other purposes than those for which they were formed. It is admitted that the purpose of this provision is to prevent societies from participating in political or other "extra-cooperative" movements. This provision is of interest because of the fact that such participation is given by the Fascists as the excuse for the destruction of the cooperative societies.

The intention was announced of calling a congress which would be a congress not only of members of the Italian Union of Coopera-

tives but of the whole Italian cooperative movement.

Labor Cooperatives.

A recent book by Odon Por, entitled "Guilds and Cooperatives in Italy," contains a chapter (pp. 98–116) on the present (1922) condition of the cooperative movement—especially the workers' productive cooperative societies—in that country. These societies began with such simple work as digging canals or making dams, then gradually began to undertake more technical work, until finally their "combines," or federations of societies, have become able to compete "with the biggest and best-equipped private enterprises," while in some Provinces "they have actually wiped out the private contractors and are practically controlling productive activities, doing work for the authorities and for the public alike."

Hundreds and thousands of workers are directly interested in these cooperatives that have now made good their position in every branch of production. They are building bridges in brick and steel; public and private palaces and whole garden cities; they are constructing roads, railways and ports; they are digging canals; they are manufacturing machines of all kinds; they are building sailing ships, cargo boats, liners, and warships; they redeem and cultivate rationally vast stretches of land; they are active in shipping and transportation; they have rebuilt, within a short period of time, whole districts where the war wrought havoc. In the arts and crafts they are numerous. As the workers work willingly and with enthusiasm for these their own enterprises, and as the societies are able to shift organized bodies of labor from one end of the country to another when required, they are able to execute works hardly realizable by private enterprise, which can never obtain the whole-hearted cooperation of hired labor.

To-day, the vast number of workers in the cooperative movement and their excellence, the extent and variety of undertakings, the technical and managerial experience vested in them, form such a solid block of interests that the problems connected with its efficient and undisturbed functioning constitute a national problem. Cooperation must live and grow undisturbed if the economic life of the Nation is to proceed regularly

and progressively.

These vast institutions, distributed all over the country, command attention not merely by virtue of their technical equipment, organizing ability and business capacity, but especially by virtue of their manifest will to work, not for profits, but for service. Their will to serve the community is a motive that the community, besieged as it is by profiteers, can not afford to overlook.

In the introduction to a recent government bill on cooperation it is explicitly recognized that the cooperative movement is the most fitting means of regenerating the economic forms and institutions which have proved themselves inadequate to cope with the problems matured during the war; that the army of middlemen and profiteers that has sprung up during the war and has infested all activities can be kept in check only by the cooperatives, which by their very nature exclude all profit making. The rapid and skillful execution of the public work entrusted to them, making practically no profit on it, is one of the chief features of these cooperatives, and therein lies their great future.

It is remarkable that out of the thousands of cooperative societies very few have failed during the present industrial and financial crisis, while numerous gigantic private enterprises have gone bankrupt. This proves their stability and the efficiency of their managers. Nevertheless, the cooperatives are suffering from the crisis, for

they can not obtain sufficient credit.

These combines are grouped into a federation, the National Federation of Cooperatives of Production and Labor, which represents them in their relations with the State, organizes the exchange of equipment among the federated combines, arranges for supplies of raw materials, and provides technical and business assistance and advice. The federation already owns its own brick works and quarries and is planning to extend its operations in this field. "Thus, while the single combines represent, regionally, industrial bodies of the most modern type—doing any work from the roughest to the most artistic—their national federation constitutes a formidable force affecting the whole industrial life of the country." It has recently taken steps toward undertaking "great construction works in France and Russia in agreement with the labor organizations of these countries and under the control of their Governments and that of Italy."

THE following table taken from the April, 1923, issue (p. 198) of the Revue Mensuelle de Statistique (Warsaw), shows the number of registered cooperative societies of each type, in Russian, Prussian, and Austrian Poland, on January 1, 1922.

NUMBER OF COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES OF EACH TYPE, IN POLAND, BY GEO-GRAPHIC SECTION, JANUARY 1, 1922.

	Number of societies of each type in-				
Type of society.	Russian Poland.	Prussian Poland.	Austrian Poland.	Whole country.	
Consumers' societies Housing societies. Credit societies. Wholesale societies:	2,323	117	1,756	4, 196	
	341	76	58	475	
	1,164	1,028	3,151	5, 343	
Farmers'. Other Raw-material societies.	53	133	600	786	
	37	64	201	302	
	18	79	227	324	
Societies for sale of dairy products	50	182	270	502	
	5	47	27	79	
	2	60	5	. 67	
Other industrial societies.	2	39	29	70	
Libraries, etc.	6	10	37	53	
Not reported	7	16	44	67	
Total.	4,008	1,851	6, 405	12, 264	

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION.

Conciliation Work of the Department of Labor in October, 1923.

By Hugh L. Kerwin, Director of Conciliation.

THE Secretary of Labor, through the Division of Conciliation, exercised his good offices in connection with 61 labor disputes during October, 1923. These disputes affected a total of 43,511 employees. The following table shows the name and location of the establishment or industry in which the dispute occurred, the nature of the dispute (whether strike or lockout or controversy not having reached strike or lockout stage), the craft or trade concerned, the cause of the dispute, its present status, the terms of settlement, the date of beginning and ending, and the number of workmen directly and indirectly affected:

LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR THROUGH ITS DIVISION OF CONCILIATION, OCTOBER, 1923.

Company or industry and location.	Nature of controversy.	Craft concerned.	Cause of dispute.	Present status.
Dana Collieries, Dana, Ind	Strike	Miners	Railroad transpor-	Adjusted.
	do	Traction workers Track laborers	Wage dispute	Do. Do.
Warwick Mills, Centerville, R. I	Threatened strike.	Textile workers	Wages, hours, and recognition.	Do.
Cloak makers, Los Angeles, Calif Crowell Publishing Co. and Ralph Printing Co., Springfield, Ohio.	Strikedo	Cloak makers Wrappers and op- erators.	Union recognition Open shop	Pending. Do.
Grass-Golden Shoe Co., Boston, Mass.	do	Shoe workers	Wages and alleged violation of con-	Adjusted.
Meat cutters, Chicago, Ill	Controversy.	Meat cutters	Asked \$5 per week increase and short- er hours.	Pending.
Pine Ridge, Pa		A comment of the comm	Union dispute: working conditions.	Adjusted.
Laurel Run Colliery, Pa. Delaware Colliery, Pa. Tennessee Coal & Iron Co., Whitwell, Tenn.	do	dodododododododo	dodoAsked regular wages in their section.	Do. Do. Pending.
U. S. Radiator Corporation, Edwardsville, Ill.	do	Foundry workers.		Do.
Kater & Co., Philadelphia, Pa	Threatened strike.	Garment makers	Wages and hours of labor.	Adjusted.
Chas. K. Fein, Philadelphia, Pa De May Co., Philadelphia, Pa Hoe Printing Co., New York City	do	dodo	do do	Do. Do. Pending.
Marble cutters, New York City			crease.	Adjusted.
F	do		Asked union recog- nition.	Do.
Nanticoke, Pa.	do	Miners Textile workers	Wages and working conditions. Alleged discrimina-	Do. Pending.
United Hosiery Co., Chattanooga, Tenn.		Teathe workers	tion for union affiliation.	r enumg.
Telephone operators, Sullivan, Ind	do	Telephone opera- tors.		Do.

¹ Not reported.

LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR THROUGH ITS DIVISION OF CONCILIATION, OCTOBER, 1923—Continued.

Company or industry and location.	Nature of controversy.	Craft concerned.	Cause of dispute.	Present status.
U. S. Furniture Co., Hoboken, N. J	Strike	Basket makers	Open shop and work-	Adjusted.
Building trades, Newark, N. J	do	Building trades	ing conditions. Asked \$10 a day and 5 days a week.	Pending.
Tailors, Newark, N. J	do	Tailors	Asked wage increase Working conditions.	Do. Adjusted.
Hallors, Newark, N. Pa. Hudson Coal Co., Pa. Furriers, South Norwalk, Conn East End Coal Co., Pond Creek, Pa. Jewelry workers, New York City. Cigar makers, Boston, Mass Dexter Paper Co., Windsor Locks,	do	Miners Jewelry workers	Lack of equipment	Pending. Adjusted. Pending.
Cigar makers, Boston, Mass Dexter Paper Co., Windsor Locks, Conn.	Strike	Cigar makers Paper workers	Wage agreement Asked increase; discrimination for union affiliation.	Do. Do
A. C. Meeley Co., Philadelphia, Pa	strike.	Ladies' tailors	Wages, hours, and recognition of	Unable to adjust.
Graham Co., Philadelphia, Pa Margaret Arkwright, Philadelphia, Pa.	Strike Threatened strike.	do	do	Adjusted. Do.
Julia C. Morris Co., Philadelphia, Pa. Ladies' tailors, Louisville, Ky	Strikedo	do	Asked wage increase of 17½ cents per hour.	Do. Pending.
Lorraine Manufacturing Co., Pawtucket, R. I.	Service and the service of the service of		Closed shop	Do.
Kovatz & Knauber Co., New York City. Beyelers and mirror makers, New			certain work	Unclassi- fied. Pending.
York City.			recognition of union.	rending.
Longshoremen, Norfolk, Va			new agreement.	Adjusted.
Longshoremen, New Orleans, La Derrick men, New York City			crease.	Pending. Do.
Lax & Abowitz, Brooklyn, N. Y Avondale Colliery, Pa	Threatened strike.	Shoemakers Miners	Recognition of union Wages and working conditions.	Adjusted. Pending.
Peach Orchard Colliery, Pa Truesdale Colliery, Pa	do	do	do	Do. Do.
Woodward Colliery, Pa Pettebone Colliery, Pa	do	do	do	Do. Do.
Auchinclos Colliery, Pa	do	do	do	Do. Do.
Peach Orchard Colliery, Pa. Peach Orchard Colliery, Pa. Truesdale Colliery, Pa. Woodward Colliery, Pa. Pettebone Colliery, Pa. Loomis Colliery, Pa. Auchinelos Colliery, Pa. No. 6 Colliery, Pennsylvania Coal Co., Pittston, Pa. Barnum Colliery, Pittston, Pa.	Strike	do	Price on rock, wages, and conditions.	Adjusted. Do.
Central Colliery Avoca Pa	do	do	discharge man.	Do.
Canaanville Coal Co., Ohio. Golden State Woolen Mills, Long Beach, Calif.	do	Textile workers	Wages; company re- fused to renew	Pending. Do.
Brownwell Brush & Wire Co., Greensburg, Ind. Carpenters, St. Louis, Mo		makers	agreement. 5 per cent reduction in wages. Asked 25 cents per	Adjusted.
Eisenlohr Co., Reading, Pa			hour increase. Asked 10 per cent increase and piece-	Pending.
Wilkinson Lumber Co., Indianapolis, Ind.			work. Jurisdictional dispute.	Adjusted
No. 14 Colliery, Pittston, Pa Commonwealth Steel Co., Granite City, Ill.	do	Miners Iron molders	pute. Wage rates Company representation plan.	Do. Pending.

¹ Not reported.

LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR THROUGH ITS DIVISION OF CONCILIATION, OCTOBER, 1923—Continued.

		Dura	ation.	Men in	volved.
Company or industry and location.	Terms of settlement.	Begin- ning.	Ending.	Direct- ly.	Indi- rectly.
Dana Collieries, Dana, Ind	To Public Service Commis-	1923. Oct. 1	1923. Oct. 19	120	
Schuylkill Ry., Girardville, Pa Surface track laborers, Chicago, III Warwick Mills, Centerville, R. I. Cloak makers, Los Angeles, Calif Crowell Publishing Co. and Ralph	To arbitration	do	Oct. 3	100	200
Surface track laborers, Chicago, Ill	do	Sept. 13	Oct. 9	1,200	
Cloak makers, Los Angeles, Calif	Agreement concluded	Oct. 1 Sept. 20	Oct. 12	900	
Crowell Publishing Co. and Ralph		(1)		23	.,
Grass-Golden Shoe Co., Boston, Mass.	Wages settled; agreement concluded.	Sept. 1	Sept. 18	60	
Meat cutters, Chicago, Ill		Oct. 1		2,500	
Laurel Run Colliery, Pa	One man dischargeddo	Oct. 2	Oct. 6do	650 450	
Delaware Colliery, Pa	do	do	do	750	
well, Tenn.		May 8		450	10
U. S. Radiator Corporation, Edwardsville, Ill. Kater & Co., Philadelphia, Pa		Aug. 16		600	******
	44-hour week; \$44 week min- imum.	Oct. 4	Oct. 8	15	3
Chas. K. Fein, Philadelphia, Pa De May Co., Philadelphia, Pa	do	Oct. 5	do	20	3
Hoe Printing Co., New York City		Aug. 2		1,150	
Opera Fur Co., Boston, Mass	To arbitration for settlement. Men return to work; strike off	Oct. 1 Oct. 6	Oct. 20 Oct. 9	1, 200 18	1,80
Hoe Printing Co., New York City Marble cutters, New York City Opera Fur Co., Boston, Mass Bliss Colliery, Glen Alden Coal Co., Nanticoke, Pa.	To district board for adjust-	Oct. 8	Oct. 15	855	
Nanticoke, Pa. United Hosiery Co., Chattanooga, Tenn.	ment.	Sept. 5		950	
Pelephone operators, Sullivan, Ind U.S. Furniture Co., Hoboken, N. J	Union recognition granted	Sept. 24 Sept. 15	Oct. 14	14 48	
Building trades, Newark, N. J		(1)		(1)	
Building trades, Newark, N. J Pailors, Newark, N. J Hudson Coal Co., Pa	To district board for settle- ment; strike off.	Oct. 8	Oct. 9	15, 000	
Furriers, South Norwalk, Conn East End Coal Co., Pond Creek, Pa.	Equipment furnished by company.	Sept. 25	Oct. 1	100 100	
Jewelry workers, New York City Cigar makers, Boston, Mass	Men returned; conferences	Aug. 1		(1) (1)	
Dexter Paper Co., Windsor Locks,	pending.	Mar. 1		24	15
Conn. A. C. Meeley Co., Philadelphia, Pa	Company increased wages;	Oct. 9		20	10
Graham Co., Philadelphia, Pa	strike continues. 44-hour week, \$44 per week	Oct. 15	Oct. 17	10	2
Wargaret Arkwright, Philadelphia.	do	Oct. 13	Oct. 16	12	3
Pa. Julia C. Morris Co., Philadelphia, Pa. Ladies' tailors, Louisville, Ky	do	Oct. 12	Oct. 15	15	8
Ladies' tailors, Louisville, Ky		Oct. 1		18 58	
Lorraine Manufacturing Co., Pawtucket, R. I. Kovatz & Knauber Co., New York	Adjusted prior to commis-	Oct. 6	Oct. 15	6	
City. Bevelers and mirror makers, New	sioner's arrival.	Sept. 4		20	
Bevelers and mirror makers, New York City.	D		70		
Longshoremen, Norfolk, Va	Received 10 cents per hour increase.	Oct. 6	(1)	700	
Longshoremen, New Orleans, La Derrick men, New York City Lax & Abowitz, Brooklyn, N. Y	Men returned without dis-	Oct. 15 Sept. 3	Oct. 28	200 100	20
Avondale Colliery, Pa	crimination.	(1)		480	
Avondale Colliery, Pa		(1) (1)		395	
Fruesdale Colliery, Pa		(1)		1,900 1,725	
Pettebone Colliery, Pa		(1)		393	
Woodward Colliery, Pa. Pettebone Colliery, Pa. Loomis Colliery, Pa. Auchinelos Colliery, Pa. No. 6 Colliery, Pannsylvania Coal		(1)		900 390	
No. 6 Colliery, Pennsylvania Coal Co., Pittston, Pa.	Unauthorized strike; men	Oct. 20	Oct. 22	1,675	
Co., Pittston, Pa. Barnum Colliery, Pittston, Pa	returned. Returned; demand settlement later.	Oct. 19	do	200	

1 Not reported.

71915°—23——14 [1427]

LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR THROUGH ITS DIVISION OF CONCILIATION, OCTOBER, 1923—Concluded.

		Dura	ation.	Men involved.	
Company or industry and location.	Terms of settlement.	Begin- ning.	Ending.	Direct-	Indi- rectly.
Central Colliery, Avoca, Pa	To be submitted as per rules of union.	1923. Oct. 17	1923. Oct. 20	600	25
Canaanville Coal Co., Ohio		Aug. 1		(1) 110	140
Beach, Calif. Brownwell Brush & Wire Co., Greensburg, Ind.	5 per cent cut; bonus of 10 per cent for piecework over 600 yards.	Oct. 1	Oct. 24	45	5
Carpenters, St. Louis, Mo Eisenlohr Co., Reading, Pa	(1)	Oct. 15	Oct. 31	500 17	350
Wilkinson Lumber Co., Indianapolis, Ind.	Work awarded to iron workers.	Oct. 14	Oct. 24	10	40
No. 14 Colliery, Pittston, Pa	Returned. Submitted to union regulations.	Oct. 23	Oct. 29	1,610	90
Commonwealth Steel Co., Granite City, Ill.	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	June 1		280	
Total				40,002	3, 509

¹ Not reported.

On November 1, 1923, there were 67 strikes before the department for settlement and, in addition, 16 controversies which had not reached the strike stage. Total number of cases pending, 83.

IMMIGRATION.

Statistics of Immigration for September, 1923.

By W. W. Husband, Commissioner General of Immigration.

THE following tables show the total number of immigrant aliens admitted into the United States and emigrant aliens departed from the United States from July to September, 1923. The tabulations are presented according to the countries of last permanent or future permanent residence, races or peoples, occupations, and States of future permanent or last permanent residence. The last table (Table 6) shows the number of aliens admitted under the per cent limit act of May 19, 1921, from July 1 to November 7, 1923.

TABLE 1.—INWARD AND OUTWARD PASSENGER MOVEMENT, JULY TO SEPTEMBER, 1923.

	Arrivals.				Depa	rtures.			
Period.	Immigrant aliens admitted.	Non- immi- grant aliens ad- mitted.	United States citizens arrived.	Aliens de- barred.	Total arrivals	Emi- grant aliens.	Non- emi- grant aliens.	United States citizens.	Total depart- ures.
JulyAugustSeptember	85, 542 88, 286 89, 431	13,039 13,688 18,221	20,637 33,510 51,894	2,899 2,804 2,331	122,117 138,288 161,877	8,041 6,489 6,073	14,213 12,267 10,245	39,898 27,744 16,025	62, 152 46, 500 32, 343
Total	263,259	44,948	106,041	8,034	422,282	20,603	36,725	83,667	140.99

TABLE 2.—LAST PERMANENT RESIDENCE OF IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED AND FUTURE PERMANENT RESIDENCE OF EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED DURING SEPTEMBER, 1923, AND FROM JULY TO SEPTEMBER, 1923, BY COUNTRIES.

	Immi	grant.	Emig	rant.
Country.	September, 1923.	July to Septem- ber, 1923.	September, 1923.	July to Septem- ber, 1923.
Albania Austria Belgium Bulgaria Czechoslovakia Denmark Esthonia Finland France, including Corsica Germany	53 828 289 145 2,507 601 50 699 916 7,993	166 3,417 970 286 6,555 1,803 147 2,244 2,586 26,910	22 14 60 10 136 43 33 46 70	48 64 168 38 474 184 3 124 336 338
Great Britain and Ireland: England Ireland Scotland Wales Greece Hungary Italy (including Sicily and Sardinia) Latvia Lithuania Netherlands Norway Poland Portugal (including Azores and Cape Verde Islands) Rumania Russia Spain (including Canary and Balearic Islands) Sweden Switzerland Turkey In Europe Yugoslavia Other Europe	4, 615 3, 187 6, 720 872 927 7, 308 340 573 2, 078 5, 670 1, 853 2, 843 2, 843 3, 375 2, 94 3, 375 293 653 27	13, 277 9, 796 18, 106 18, 106 2, 393 22, 239 22, 239 1, 145 1, 982 6, 452 13, 216 1, 527 5, 290 7, 860 371 11, 052 2, 070 1, 132 1, 371 1, 312 1, 371 1, 312 1, 371 1, 312 1, 371 1, 312	418 136 72 7 536 39 1,538 1 1 22 45 233 383 383 62 81 193 63 14 46 156 7	1,561 505 288 19 1,553 175 5,432 48 147 117 225 1,046 1,071 312 275 638 227 91 47
Total Europe	57, 396	168, 530	4,540	16, 105
China. Japan India Syria, Palestine, and Mesopotamia Turkey in Asia. Other Asia.	1, 524 555 31 543 589 39	2,793 1,466 67 1,371 1,192 126	330 159 14 59 1 7	751 453 37 164 97 21
Total Asia	3, 281	7,015	570	1,523
Africa Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand Pacific Islands (not specified) Canada and Newfoundland. Central America Mexico. South America. West Indies. Other countries	149 80 11 16,657 293 8,097 1,328 2,137 2	618 321 26 49,237 7,64 26,529 3,403 6,803 13	10 30 4 209 37 294 84 295	38 113 8 754 146 539 305 1,072
Grand total	89, 431	263, 259	6,073	20, 603
Male Female	53, 358 36, 073	161,334 101,925	4,304 1,769	13 713 6,890

TABLE 3.—IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED TO AND EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING SEPTEMBER, 1923, AND FROM JULY TO SEPTEMBER, 1923, BY RACES OR PEOPLES.

	Imm	igrant.	Emi	Emigrant.		
Race or people.	September, 1923.	July to September, 1923.	September, 1923.	July to September 1923.		
African (black)	1 510	1 400	01			
Armenian	1,519	4,408	61	35		
Bohemian and Moravian (Czech).	584	1,657	2	1 77 3		
Bulgarian, Serbian, and Montenegrin	870	2,599	123	45		
Chinese	288	699	167	50		
Crinese Croatian and Slovenian	766	1,476	314	73		
Cuban	543	1,241	4	111		
	252	651	97	24		
Dalmatian, Bosnian, and Herzegovinian	22	122	11	6		
Dutch and Flemish	1,005	3,324	88	30		
East Indian	21	42	9	3		
English	10,530	29,998	658	2,24		
Finnish	659	1,979	45	14		
French	3,860	11,389	65	35		
German	10,493	34,724	113	49		
Greek	937	2,639	546	1.56		
Hebrew	8,557	22,479		5		
rish	5, 754	16,963	133	56		
talian (north)	1.462	4,623	- 56	26		
talian (south)	6,081	18,508	1,487	5,20		
apanese	448	1,303	150	44		
Korean	9	22	5	424 / 1907		
Lithuanian	341	943	52	- 17		
Magyar	1.141	3, 187	46	18		
Mexican	7,926	25,809	286	51		
Pacific Islander	3	6	200	01		
Polish	3,478	9.660	246	1,06		
Portuguese	671	1,964	390	1.10		
Rumanian	252	728	61	30		
Russian	1.995	4.840	95	32		
Ruthenian (Russniak)	213	650	90	02		
candinavian (Norwegians, Danes, and Swedes)	6,598	20.959	188	76		
cotch	8,854	24,526	80	38		
lovak	1,415	3,310	9	6		
panish	393	1,680	256	84		
panish-American	422	999	50	24		
yrian	215	786	67	16		
urkish	31	209	44	12		
Velsh	424	1,080	8	2		
Vest Indian (except Cuban)	241	705	35	18		
Other peoples	158	372	26	88		
Total	89,431	263, 259	6,073	20,603		

Table 4.—IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED TO AND EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING SEPTEMBER, 1923, AND FROM JULY TO SEPTEMBER, 1923, BY STATES OR TERRITORIES.

State,	Immigrant.		Emigrant.	
	September, 1923,	July to September, 1923.	September, 1923.	July to September, 1923.
Alabama Alaska Arizona Arkansas. California Colorado Connecticut Delaware. District of Columbia. Florida Georgia Hawaii. Idaho	72 19 2, 268 35 6, 187 224 1, 855 86 229 428 48 159 132 6, 776 814	172 83 4, 438 69 17, 938 570 5, 457 221 616 1, 300 151 621 383 20, 226 2, 348	2 12 31 1 463 8 108 1 20 87 3 21 11 322 48	199 244 1098 5 1, 417 5 439 3 3 1077 423 26 6 63 27 1, 037 158

TABLE 4.—IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED TO AND EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING SEPTEMBER, 1923, AND FROM JULY TO SEPTEMBER, 1923, BY STATES OR TERRITORIES—Concluded.

State.	Immigrant.		Emigrant.	
	September,	July to September, 1923.	September, 1923.	July to September, 1923.
Kansas.	207	615	14	38
Kentucky	82	177	5	6
Louisiana	147	396	20	131
Maine	895	2,658	9	28
Maryland	469	1, 259	26	97
Massachusetts	7, 262	20,889	699	2, 03
Michigan	7,076	21, 036	202	668
Minnesota	1,319	4, 501	58	18
Mississippi	62	206	2	1:
Missouri	624	1,762	24	11
Montana	192	683	14 16	39
Nebraska	353	1,056	4	1
Nevada	20	1.973	8	1
New Hampshire	536	13, 545	245	819
New Jersey	4, 548	289	5	1
New Mexico	138	66, 360	2,024	7, 93
New York	23, 031	118	14	3, 35
North Dakota	209	927	11	3
Ohio.	3,667	10,626	255	81
Oklahoma	93	212	2	1
Oregon.	668	1,922	35	79
Pennsylvania	7, 731	21, 383	558	1,820
Porto Rico	24	65	17	6
Rhode Island	947	2,915	146	38
South Carolina.	39	78	3	
South Dakota	147	475	1	2
Tennessee	70	167	2	1.
Pexas	4, 243	17, 216	207	31
Utah	131	514	11	5.
Vermont	285	728	2	1'
Virginia	291	735	29	7
Virgin Islands	1	2		
Washington	2,391	6, 287	142	32
West Virginia	314	885	43	16
Wisconsin	1, 314	4,094	61	18
Wyoming	93	263	11	2:
Total	89, 431	263, 259	6,073	20,60

TABLE 5.—IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED TO AND EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING SEPTEMBER, 1923, AND FROM JULY TO SEPTEMBER, 1923, BY OCCUPATIONS.

Occupation.	Controller	1 8 8 8 8		
Occupation.	September, 1923.	July to September, 1923.	September, 1923.	July to September, 1923.
Professional: Actors Architects Clergy Editors Electricians Engineers (professional). Lawyers Literaryand scientificpersons. Musicians Officials (Government). Physicians Sculptors and artists Teachers Other professional.	40 277 11 485 533 41 98 227 64 165 54	387 146 688 1, 568 1, 942 79 286 581 175 362 131 1, 348	2 1 20 1 6 27 5 3 11 7 14 1 28	17 5 1388 3 21 88 17 15 29 38 27 9 119
Total	3,043	9,023	145	658

TABLE 5.—IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED TO AND EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED FROM THE UNITED STATES DURING SEPTEMBER, 1923, AND FROM JULY TO SEPTEMBER, 1923, BY OCCUPATIONS—Concluded.

	Immigrant.		Emigrant.	
Occupation.	September,	July to September, 1923.	September,	July to September 1923.
Skilled:				
Bakers	457	1,357 1,043	20	4
Barbers and hairdressers Blacksmiths	367 462	1,043	16	50
Bookbinders Brewers.	37	117		1
Brewers	4	20		*********
Butchers	374 57	1,075 196	6 2	29 17
Cabinetmakers. Carpenters and joiners. Cigarette makers.	1,905	6, 566	44	15
Cigarette makers	9	23	1	- 1
Cigar makers. Cigar packers	30	114	11	5
Clerks and accountants.	2,949	8,705	82	30
Dressmakers	593	1,667	6	46
Engineers (locomotive, marine, and stationary) Furriers and fur workers	732 37	1, 495 152	7	2
Gardeners	128	463	11	2
Hatand cap makers	40	129		1
Iron and steel workers	1,474	3,650	4	2
Locksmiths	80 475	159 1, 447	1	4
Machinists	856	2, 580 3, 174	18	7
Mariners	1,095	3, 174	20	74
Masons	719 1, 125	2,390 3,256	5 18	28
Mechanics (not specified) Metal workers (other than iron, steel, and tin)	223	501	1	4
Millers	91	249	7	3
Milliners	108	289 3,035	50	
Miners Painters and glaziers	1,076 443	1,524	10	240
Pattern makers	62	174	1	1
Photographers	64	183 283	3	3
Plasterers	91 260	826	3	31
Printers	226	587	4	15
Saddlers and harness makers	34 322	126 968	2	9
Shoemakers.	765	2, 163	33	93
Stokers	118	325	1	1
Stonecutters	1,023	271 3,015	1 22	118
Tanners and curriers.	33	3,013	2	110
Textile workers (not specified)	56	198		1
Tinners. Tobacco workers	82 5	311 16	1	2
Upholsterers	37	134		3
Watch and clock makers	82	249		3
Weavers and spinners	481 27	1,302	63	142
Woodworkers (not specified)	92	289		
Other skilled	795	2,245	10	47
Total	20,694	60, 619	489	1,828
Aiscellaneous:				
Agents	226	777	8	32
Bankers Draymen, hackmen, and teamsters	27 253	65 697	5	26
Farm laborers.	3,658	11,996	8 18	12 77
rarmers	2,091	6,827	135	417
Fishermen	203	741	7	12
Hotel keepers. Laborers.	22 12, 354	40, 384	2,773	8, 172
Manufacturers	89	225	2	17
Merchants and dealers	1,389	4,003 21,072	186 102	509 498
Other miscellaneous	7,318 3,499	10, 467	325	1,372
Total.	31, 129	97,318	3, 571	11, 148
No occupation (including women and children)	34, 565	96, 299	1,868	6, 969
Grand total.	89, 431	263, 259	6,073	20, 603
	00, 101	200, 200	0,010	20,000

TABLE 6.—STATUS OF THE IMMIGRATION OF ALIENS INTO THE UNITED STATES UNDER THE PER CENTUM LIMIT ACT OF MAY 19, 1921, AS EXTENDED BY PUBLIC RESOLUTION NO 55, SIXTY-SEVENTH CONGRESS, APPROVED MAY 11, 1922, JULY 1 TO NOVEMBER 7, 1923.

Country or region of birth.	Maximum monthly quota.	Admitted Nov. 1 to 7, 1923.	Annual quota.	Admitted July 1 to Nov. 7.	Balance for year. ¹
and the state of t			000	000	(9)
Albania	58	2 55	288	280 73	(3)
Armenia (Russian)	46	5			3,009
Austria	1,468	230	7,342	4,197	3,000
Belgium	313	112	1,563	1,364	95
Bulgaria	61	35	302	275	
Czechoslovakia	2,871	1,039	14, 357	10,739	2, 86
Danzig	60	27	301	247	39
Denmark	1,124	101	5,619	2,686	2,896
Esthonia	270	18	1,348	313	1,020
Finland	784	79.	3,921	3, 181	62
Fiume	14	1	71	54	0 ***
France	1,146	139	5,729	3, 118	2,51
	13,521	2,490	67, 607	37,663	29, 36
Great Britain and Ireland	15,468	2 15, 468	77, 342	77, 340	(3)
Greece	613	538	3,063	2,986	(3)
Hungary	1.149	178	5,747	3,541	2, 01
celand	15	3	75	15	. 6
Italy	8,411	2,522	42,057	31,841	9,09
Latvia	308	165	1,540	1,171	28
Lithuania	526	285	2,629	2,253	25
Luxemburg	19	2	92	76	
Netherlands	721	238	3,607	3,100	47
Norway	2,440	112	12,202	8,006	3,41
Poland	6, 195	1,932	30, 977	23, 228	5, 29
	493	2 471	2,465	2,443	(3)
Portugal	1.484	476	7,419	5, 905	1.05
Rumania	4, 881	2 4, 881	24, 405	24, 405	(3)
Russia	182	77	912	805	2
Spain	4.008	82	20,042	15,040	4,82
Sweden	750	527	3,752	3,527	11
Switzerland	1.00	139	6, 426	2,905	3, 26
Yugoslavia		2.12	86	2, 800	(3)
Other Europe		2 6	57	54	(3)
Palestine		2 156	882	864	181
Syria	177				(3)
Furkey	531	2 517	2,654	2,641	(3)
Other Asia	19	2 16	92	100	(3)
A frica	21	2 16	104		
Egypt	4	2 2	18	18	(3)
Atlantic Islands	24		121	96	2
Australia	56	25	279	240	1 1
New Zealand and Pacific Islands	16	2 4	80	67	(3)
Total	71, 561	33, 181	357, 803	277,029	72, 81

After all pending cases for which quotas have been granted and admissions under the act during the

current fiscal year have been deducted from the annual quota.

2 Maximum monthly quota exhausted. The balance of the quota not yet shown as admitted, are pending cases for which quotas have been granted.

3 Annual quota exhausted.

Proposed International Conference on Emigration and Immigration.1

THE success of the conference of those countries with a large emigration, which was held in Rome in July, 1921, on the initiative of Italy, has induced the Italian Government to send out invitations for another conference to be held in Rome in 1924. In order that this conference may be able to contribute to the solution of problems of both emigration and immigration, invitations were sent not only to countries with large emigration but also to those with large immigration. The formal letter of invitation sent by the Italian Government to the various countries was accompanied by the following program outlining the scope and character of the conference:

¹Italy. Commissariato Generale dell'Emigrazione. Bollettino della Emigrazione. Rome, August-September, 1923, pp. 617-621.

The International Labor Organization, attempting to enlarge its ample program, has expressed the intention of giving its attention also to problems of emigration. For obvious reasons, however, any efforts that might be made by the general conferences of the permanent labor organization to promote an international regulation in the special field of emigration and immigration would require considerable time and serious and long preparation. Such efforts would, moreover, lack the participation

of those countries that are not members of the organization.

Not all countries are equally interested in the phenomena of emigration and immigration. On the other hand, there are countries in which, owing to demographic, geographic, and economic conditions, emigration and immigration constitute a specially important element of their national life. Owing to the fact that they are more directly interested, these latter countries can better appreciate the necessity of making a strenuous effort to establish direct international agreements and to coordinate their activities in all matters relating to emigration and immigration. Because of this consideration, the Italian Government believes that a conference of technical delegates of the various nations that are typical countries of emigration or of immigration would be particularly apt to promote an inquiry into those problems, conducted in an essentially practical spirit, with the result that a number of suggestions would be collected that would probably furnish effective orientation for an international regulation of these complex problems. In this belief the Italian Government has taken the initiative in inviting the principal countries of emigration and immigration to an international conference.

I. The international conference on immigration will be held at Rome during the

first months of next year on a date to be fixed later.

II. The conference will have the character of a technical and not of a diplomatic conference. Excluding all problems which by their very nature can be solved only by each individual State by means of local legislation, the conference will examine the various problems relating to emigration with a view to considering what agreements would seem desirable in order to coordinate the emigration and immigration services of the various countries and to supply, in a more satisfactory manner, the needs of emigration and immigration. In accordance with its strictly technical character the conference will not have the power to sign collective conventions but will limit itself to summarizing in the form of proposals or in the form of a declaration of principles or recommendations those criteria that it will decide to suggest as the principles that should govern general international or individual conventions, which the Governments may subsequently conclude, or administrative liaisons which the Governments may find convenient to establish between the respective services.

III. In order that its work may proceed in a more orderly manner the conference

will be divided into sections. Each section will have the task of examining specified questions pertaining to a particular group of problems.

IV. With reservation as to later changes, the conference shall be composed of the following sections:

(a) Transport of emigrants.(b) Hygiene and sanitary services.

(c) Collaboration between the emigration and immigration services of the various

(d) Assistance to emigrants in the ports of embarkation and to immigrants in the ports of disembarkation, and by private institutions to those who have emigrated.

(e) Suitable means for adjusting immigration to the labor needs of countries of

immigration (information services as to the labor markets, employment, and colonization enterprises).

(f) Development of cooperation, thrift, and mutual aid among emigrants.

(g) Principles that should govern emigration treaties.

Each government accepting the invitation for participation in the conference shall have the right to propose, not later than November 30, 1923, particular questions

to be submitted to the various sections of the conference for examination.

VI. The conference shall in plenary meeting, after having adopted its own rules of procedure, determine definitely, on proposal of a committee appointed by it, what questions among those proposed shall become the order of the day and be assigned to the various sections.

The monthly bulletin of the Italian Emigration Commission states that the Governments of the countries principally concerned with emigration and immigration have already expressed their intention of sending delegates to the proposed conference.

Recent Italian Measures for Protection of Emigrants.¹

THE Gazzetta Ufficiale of August 16, 1923, publishes the text of a royal decree of July 19, 1923 (No. 1686), issued with a view to the reorganization of the services for the training of emigrants, for finding employment for emigrants abroad and for the prevention of clandestine emigration. The decree authorizes the Minister of Foreign Affairs to appoint temporarily, under the General Emigration Department, a chief inspector, four regional inspectors, and provincial delegates (inspectors).

On September 5, 1923, the cabinet approved the draft of a decree providing for the establishment at the principal ports of embarkation of refuges and hostels for emigrants. The General Emigration Department may either administer these establishments directly or entrust their management to private undertakings. The commissioner general of emigration is empowered to requisition for a limited period hotels situated near the railway stations or harbors, for the purpose of utilization as emigrant hostels.

The following regulations with regard to the transport of emigrants by foreign shipping companies have been issued by the commissioner general of emigration:

1. To obtain a license to carry emigrants, foreign vessels must as a rule fit out in Naples, and must touch at Palermo at least every other voyage.

2. The conditions of employment of Italian subjects in the service of such com-

panies must be satisfactory.

3. The companies must pledge themselves not to undertake propaganda for the purpose of inducing persons to emigrate, and must also require their agents to abstain from such propaganda. They must also undertake not to carry any Italian subject who is not in possession of the usual papers as required by Italian law.

4. From the quota allowed to them will be deducted a number equivalent to that

of the Italian passengers embarking on ships of the same company at foreign ports.

On September 7, 1923, the cabinet approved the draft of a decree authorizing the savings bank department of the Bank of Sicily to set up agencies abroad for undertaking the transfer of emigrants' savings. Up to the present, of the three banks of issue in Italy only the Bank of Naples had been authorized by the act of 1901 to do business of this nature. The Government, however, considers that these operations should be extended in order to prevent the frauds which too frequently take place at the expense of emigrants. The draft decree further empowers the bank to participate in the management of foreign companies which undertake to provide for the economic interests of Italian emigrants. The expenditure incurred in setting up these agencies and in participating in the foreign companies in question shall not exceed a quarter of the reserve funds of the savings bank department.

It may be added that the Government has recently requested the National Cooperative Credit Institute to take steps for coordinating the activity of Italian cooperative societies abroad, and has authorized it to approach the banks with a view to concluding agreements for giving the necessary financial support to the cooperative societies which are finding profitable opportunities of work in France.

¹International Labor Office. Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, Oct. 5, 1923, pp, 15, 16. Based on information from Corriere della Sera Sept. 4-7, 1923, and Gazzetta Ufficiale, Aug. 16, 1923.

WHAT STATE LABOR BUREAUS ARE DOING.

Massachusetts.1

IN SEPTEMBER, 1923, 85 complaints regarding nonpayment of wages were brought to the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries, and 16 cases were prosecuted. During that month the payments by employers to employees after complaint aggregated more than \$1,600.

There were 1,345 industrial safety orders issued in the month of September and the department's inspectors investigated 91 cases of

industrial accidents and 2 cases of occupational disease.

Porto Rico.

THE appropriations of the Bureau of Labor of Porto Rico provided for only 10 inspectors for the fiscal year 1921–22, according to the report of the commissioner of agriculture and labor of the island for that period. One district with 11 towns is in the charge of a single inspector. Another inspector has 10 towns within his jurisdiction. A doubling of the inspection force and an appropriation for traveling expenses up to \$15,000 are recommended. The table given below shows the number of indictments in the year covered by the report for violations of the labor laws:

CASES OF INDICTMENT, 1921-22.

Violated laws.	Number of indictments.	Number of em- ployers sen- tenced.	Number of em- ployers ac- quitted.	Number of cases pending.
Minimum wage. Women and children law Law regulating the weight workers may carry. Law on the duties of the employers Act No. 75, on employment of minors. Law on labor contract. An act to provide for a dispensary. The safety scaffold law.	20 4 24 109 1	93 19 5 2 14 26 1 3	94 20 1 1 6 27	68 42 14 1 1 4 56

The following statistics on wage claims handled by the bureau of labor are also taken from the above-mentioned source:

Total number of claims handled during fiscal year 1921–22 Number of claims settled Number of claims unsuccessful Number of claims pending	79 208
Amount of 76 claims settled (amounts involved in 3 others not given) Amount of 200 unsuccessful claims (amounts involved in 8 others not	\$2,666.63
given)	8, 044. 03 664. 74

¹ Information from the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries, received Nov. 10, 1923.

It will be noted that over 70 per cent of these wage claims have not been successful. The commissioner of agriculture and labor states that his office has not the requisite powers to enforce the claims and calls attention to the necessity of having a formal agency for this purpose. Porto Rico already has a law "to determine the procedure in cases of claims for wages of farm laborers against their employers" and the extension of the act to all occupations is suggested in the report.

The commissioner deplores the utter inadequacy of the employment agency, which is under the direction of the chief clerk of the Bureau of Labor. The functioning of this placement service has become increasingly difficult because of insufficient funds and the failure of employers to cooperate. Furthermore, there is no law authorizing the Bureau of Labor to set up employment agencies in the island, nor has this office the necessary means to collect employment statistics which would indicate the approximate situation in the labor market.

The housing of peasants in Porto Rico is reported as "most degrading." The huts of these people "may not be compared to the housing of any other workman of the countries advanced in civiliza-tion." The bureau's inspectors visited 796 families supporting 2,839 children and 914 other relatives. The living conditions of those in the rural districts are "deplorable," while in the urban zone also the workers' dwellings are unhealthy and wholly out of harmony with "the progress of our cities."

In the judgment of the commissioner the bureau of labor should "undergo a complete reorganization so as to make it more useful and effective." He also emphasizes the urgent need for progressive social and economic changes in the life of the people on the island

through adequate legislation and government.

CURRENT NOTES OF INTEREST TO LABOR.

Reduction of Working-Days per Week in Finland.

A CCORDING to Arbejdsgivern (Copenhagen), October 12, 1923. the Finnish Footwear Employers' Association has decided to reduce the working week to four days throughout the whole country. This measure, which, it is stated, will most likely become effective November 1, is a result of the extensive importations of footwear. coming principally from Germany.

Scandinavian Employers' Conference.

ACCORDING to a consular report from Stockholm, Sweden, dated September 18, 1923, the eighth conference of Scandinavian employers was held in Stockholm August 31 and September 1, There were 80 representatives present from Norway, Sweden,

Denmark, and Finland.

While conferences have not been held every year (the first meeting was held at Copenhagen in 1907, but Finland was first represented in 1910) the Scandinavian countries and Finland have kept in touch with each other by annual meetings of the permanent committee and have exchanged reports. Some subjects discussed at the conference were as follows:

"The question of uniform laws in the Scandinavian countries

regarding social conditions.

The possibility of enacting uniform unemployment laws in the Scandinavian countries.

Employers as contributors to social institutions. Vital questions relative to collective agreements.

Wage policies of the employers' union during periods of depression. Passport regulations in connection with the migration of foreign labor into Sweden."

The next conference is to be held at Christiana in 1925, on a date to be decided upon by the permanent committee.

Reorganization of Swedish Unemployment Commission.

ACCORDING to Sociala Meddelanden No. 10, 1923, issued by the Swedish Labor Bureau (Socialstyrelsen), the Government has decided that beginning with October 1, 1923, the commission is to consist of five members and that the commission is to appoint from its own membership a labor committee of three which is to handle and decide such matters as need not come before the committee in full. Hereafter the question of payment of unemployment benefit to those unemployed because of labor disputes is to be referred by the local relief body to the State unemployment commission. Under the previous legislation every such case was considered by the labor committee; if the committee failed to reach an agreement it was referred to the Government.

The committee of three members appointed March 10, 1922, to report to the Government on these matters ceases to function. [1439]

PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO LABOR.

Official-United States.

Arkansas.—Bureau of Labor and Statistics. The childhood of Arkansas. Little Rock [1923]. 15 pp.

Contains the Arkansas law relating to child labor, information as to the issuance of permits, and statistics showing the distribution of employed children. In 1920 the State had 48,140 children from 10 to 15 years of age gainfully employed, of whom 94.9 per cent were employed on farms.

Connecticut.—Board of Compensation Commissioners. Compendium of awards, June 1, 1920, to May 31, 1922, inclusive. [New Haven, 1923?] 824, 130 pp.

This volume is a continuation of the series of awards by the compensation commissioners of Connecticut, together with decisions of the superior court and of the supreme court of errors on appeal. Selected opinions of the commissioners are given, but all decisions of the superior court and of the supreme court of errors have been printed in full, the last named appearing as part two of the volume, including decisions rendered in the October term, 1922. Analytic headings and a statement of the findings in the form of syllabi, followed in a number of cases by a memorandum of the commissioner, make the first part a compendium of practice and construction; while the court decisions furnish the authoritative determinations on a number of points drawn into dispute by appellants. An index of cases and a topical index complete the work.

ILLINOIS.—Board for Vocational Education. Statement of plans and policies, fiveyear period, 1922–1927. Springfield, 1923. 60 pp. Bulletin No. 27.

Outlines courses for agricultural education, trade and industrial education, education in home economics, and teacher training.

Indiana.—Industrial Board. Report [for fiscal year ending September 30, 1922]. [Indianapolis, 1923?] 67 pp.

Data on industrial accidents, taken from this report, are published on page 167 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review. The report of the department of women and children was summarized in the Monthly Labor Review for May, 1923.

Pennsylvania.—Department of Labor and Industry. Industrial home work in Pennsylvania, by Agnes M. H. Byrnes. [Harrisburg, 1921?] 189 pp.

Gives the results of a survey of industrial home work made in 1916 and 1917, and of a brief resurvey made in 1920. The study traces the development of industrial home work, and gives data concerning the number, age, sex, and marital status of the workers, earnings, extent to which child labor is utilized, and general effects of the system. In general, the effects are considered undesirable. The work is said to be harmful to the health of the workers (especially to children), destructive to family welfare, and a danger to the health of the community.

Viewed from the economic and social standpoint, the system is no more desirable. It offers a low wage scale, and in spite of the fact that family groups often cooperate in production it brings in but scanty returns. It weakens the position of the employee in the factory, and is a detriment to efficient production, since the employer "relies upon a cheap and unskilled labor supply, instead of upon machines and other improved methods of manufacture, and upon efficient organization of employees." To offset these disadvantages only two benefits are mentioned: The work enables women

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to supplement inadequate family earnings and affords an opportunity for earning money to many who dread the exactions of factory life.

The report recommends a system of gradually increasing legal restrictions which would eventually eliminate home work, but which would avoid the hardships that would result from abruptly sweeping it away.

Texas.—Board for Vocational Education. Outline of plans for vocational education in Texas as related to trades and industry, 1922–1927. Austin, 1923. 112 pp. Bulletin No. 161.

In addition to outlining the plans for vocational education through the five-year period 1922 to 1927, this report contains an account of what has been accomplished under the Smith-Hughes Act since the work was begun in 1918.

Wisconsin.—Industrial Commission and Railroad Commission. Wisconsin State electrical code. Madison, 1922. 283 pp. First edition.

A brief notice regarding this code is given on page 157 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

UNITED STATES.—Department of the Interior. Bureau of Mines. Erection of barricades during mine fires or after explosions, by J. W. Paul and others. Washington, 1923. 28 pp. Illustrated. Miners' circular 25.

This pamphlet is a practical study of the hazards from gas during a mine fire or explosion, and gives directions for building barricades, with illustrations of measures taken by entombed miners to save themselves in a number of serious mine disasters. It is designed for the practical instruction of underground workers in coal and metal mines.

———— Bureau of Pensions. Retirement Division. Handbook containing abstracts of decisions and opinions and rules of procedure relating to the retirement act of May 22, 1920, and amendments. Washington, 1923. x, 82 pp.

This handbook sets forth the text of the act of May 22, 1920, and its amendments, regulating the retirement of employees in the classified civil service of the United States. The text of the law is first printed in sections, each paragraph followed by annotations embodying abstracts of decisions and opinions on the subject matter. The law and its amendments and Executive orders relative thereto, together with circulars and instructions, are reproduced consecutively in an appendix. Important decisions as to classification, status, the effect of leave, modes of computing service, disability annuities, automatic separation, refunds, etc., are presented.

— Department of Labor. Children's Bureau. Child labor on Maryland truck farms, by Alice Channing. Washington, 1923. 52 pp. Bureau publication No. 123.

A discussion of the findings of this study is given on pages 118 and 119 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

—— — Ten years' work for children, by Grace Abbott. Washington, 1923. 10 pp. Reprinted from North American Review for August, 1923.

This pamphlet reviews briefly the work of the United States Children's Bureau during the 10 years since it began functioning in the summer of 1912.

— Interstate Commerce Commission. Bureau of Statistics. Report on the statistics of railways in the United States for the year ended December 31, 1921, together with abstracts of periodical reports for the year ended December 31, 1922. Washington, 1923. cxviii, 476 pp.

This report contains the usual statistics of mileage, equipment, capitalization, traffic and operation, income and profit and loss statements, investments, etc. Statistics of employees include number, compensation, and service hours.

— War Department. Bureau of Insular Affairs. Commissioner of Agriculture and Labor of Porto Rico. Report [for fiscal year ending June 30, 1922]. (Reprint from the report of the Governor of Porto Rico, pp. 438–504.) Washington, 1923. 66 pp.

Extracts from this report appear on pages 113 and 213 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Feview.

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Official—Foreign Countries.

Australia.—Bureau of Census and Statistics. Labor report, 1922. Melbourne, 1923. 183 pp. No. 13. [C. S. No. 415.]

Contains, in addition to the strictly labor data, statistics relating to wholesale and retail prices, price index numbers, and cooperative societies. (Data on the number and operations of cooperative societies in Australia in 1922 are given on page 196 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.) Several tables are devoted to the movement of trade-union membership since the close of the war. At the end of 1918 the total membership was 581,755. For three years it continued to rise, the percentage of increase being 7.9 per cent in 1919, 9 per cent in 1920, and 2.7 per cent in 1921. In 1922 the membership fell from 703,009 at the beginning of the year to 702,938 at the end, a decrease so small as to be negligible. During these years the number of male members rose from 531,090 to 616,886, an increase of 16.2 per cent, while the female membership rose from 50,665 to 86,052, an increase of 69.8 per cent. However, at the end of 1922 only 34.5 per cent of the estimated total number of female workers 20 years of age and over were in the unions, while for male workers the corresponding percentage was 59.2.

The trade-union returns as to unemployment show the following variations during the same period:

ame period.	unemployed.	Per cent unemployed	
1918	17, 536	5.8	
1919	20, 507	6.6	
1920		6.5	
1921	40, 549	11.2	
1922		9.3	
1923 (first quarter)	27, 112	7.2	

Previous to 1921, the highest percentage of unemployment reported by the unions was 10.8 per cent in 1896, at which time the trade-union membership was so small—4,227—that it may be doubted whether the figures were representative of general conditions. At the end of 1922, the highest percentage of unemployment, 15.6, was found in the unions of the engineering and metal-working trades, the next, 13.5 per cent, among the workers engaged in mining, quarrying and the like, while the unions of those working with food, drink, and tobacco stood third with a percentage of 12.1. No other group of unions showed as large a proportion as 10 per cent unemployed.

The percentage of unemployment, by cause, is given for each quarter since the beginning of 1918 under three headings: Lack of work, sickness, and other causes. In the first three quarters of 1919, the influenza year, illness caused a material amount of unemployment, the percentage varying from 1.5 to 2.5, but in no other quarters from that time on did it account for as much as 1 per cent. In the second quarter of 1919 "other causes" accounted for 0.7 per cent, but for the rest of the period it was never responsible for more than 0.3 per cent. Throughout the whole period lack of work has been the outstanding cause of unemployment.

Of interest to labor are the data on cooperative societies, friendly societies, wages and hours of labor, industrial disputes, old-age and invalid pensions, prices of commodities, rents, trade-union membership, and unemployment.

CEYLON.—Department of Census and Statistics. The Ceylon blue book, 1922. Colombo 1923. [Various paging.]

Certain figures with regard to cooperative societies, taken from this report, are given on page 197 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Denmark.—Invalideforsikringsretten. 1ste Aarsberetning, 1. Oktober 1921 to 31. December 1922. Copenhagen, 1923. 171 pp.

First report of the Invalidity Insurance Court of Denmark, covering the period from October 1, 1921, to December 31, 1922. Future reports will cover the calendar year. This report gives the composition and organization of the court, its competence, method of handling cases, statistical survey, and surveys of special cases.

A brief report on operations under the invalidity insurance law is given on page 169 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Finland.—Ministère des Affaires Sociales. L'agriculture et la situation des ouvriers agricoles en Finlande. Helsingfors, 1923. 55 pp.

This is a short survey, in French, of agriculture and the situation of agricultural workers in Finland. It gives statistics of production, the work of the cooperative societies, the number of farm owners and of workers, hours of labor, wages, and payments in kind, and housing conditions.

France. — Ministère du Travail. Statistique Générale de la France. Annuaire statistique 1922. Paris, 1923. xvi, 396 pp.

The thirty-eighth annual report of the General Statistical Office includes tables relating to climate, population, commerce, finance, and industries of France, its colonies and protectorates, covering different periods of time. About half of the report gives similar information on these subjects for other countries.

Germany.—[Statistisches Reichsamt.] Jahresberichte der Gewerbe-Aufsichtsbeamten und Bergbehörden für das Jahr 1922. Berlin, 1923. 4 vols. [Various paging.]

These four volumes contain the annual reports for the year 1922 of the factory and mine inspection services of the various German States. A summary of these reports is given on pages 39 to 50 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Great Britain.—Department of Overseas Trade. Report on the economic and financial conditions in Germany to March, 1923, by J. W. F. Thelwall and C. J. Kavanagh. London, 1923. 158 pp.

This report on the economic and financial conditions in Germany, prepared by two members of the British commercial diplomatic service, covers conditions up to March, 1923. It deals with German finance and foreign trade, the coal industry, the iron and steel and allied industries, labor, wages, and the cost of living.

— Exchequer and Audit Department. Unemployment insurance acts, 1920 to 1922. Unemployment fund account, 1921–1922. London, 1923. 6 pp.

Gives the balance sheet of the fund for the insurance year ending July 2, 1922. During this time contributions to the fund showed an increase, as compared with the preceding year, from £13,483,118 (\$65,615,594, par) to £42,431,769 (\$206,494,204, par), while payments to the unemployed rose from £34,126,201 (\$166,075,157, par) to £53,060,622 (\$258,219,517, par).

— Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries. Committee on distribution and Prices of Agricultural Produce. Interim report on meat, poultry and eggs. London, 1923. 185 pp. Cmd. 1927.

A study of the methods and costs of selling and distributing meat and poultry products.

— Ministry of Labor. Employment and Insurance Department. Report on the administration of section 18 of the unemployment insurance act, 1920. London, 1923. 44 pp. Cmd. 1613.

Contains the sections of the unemployment insurance act of 1920 which provided for special schemes of insurance by industries, an account of how far these provisions were effective, some discussion of the difficulty of establishing special schemes, and a description of the one special scheme, established in 1921, for insurance of workers in the insurance business. For a brief summary of the report, see pages 149 to 151 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

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India (Punjab).—[Department of Industries and Land Records. Inspector of factories.]

Annual report on the working of the Indian factories act, 1911, in the Punjab, for the year 1922. Lahore, 1923. [Various paging.]

Contains, in addition to the report, statistical tables showing the number of factories covered by the law, the average daily number of workers, the shifts and holidays, accidents, convictions, and inspections. The sections of the report dealing with working conditions are summarized on pages 50 and 51 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

— [Registrar of Cooperative Societies.] Report on the working of the cooperative societies in the Punjab for the year ending July 31, 1922. Lahore, 1922. 7, 31, xcvii pp.

Figures taken from this report are given on page 198 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

ITALY.—Ministero per il Lavoro e la Previdenza Sociale. Direzione Generale del Lavoro. Occupazione operaia e riduzioni d'orario nelle industrie (Luglio 1920-Novembre 1921). Rome, 1923. 177 pp. (Supplemento al "Bollettino del Lavoro e della Previdenza Sociale" N. 37.)

Report on the results of an investigation of the extent of unemployment and short-time work in Italy in November, 1921, as compared with July, 1920. The investigation was made by the Italian factory inspection service by means of printed schedules filled in by industrial employers and verified by personal inquiries of factory inspectors. It covered all establishments employing more than five workers, with the exception of establishments in Sicily and in the Provinces of Catanzaro and Reggio Calabria. The returns from these Provinces were not included in the results because they were incomplete.

The returns covered 18,320 establishments. Of these, 1,002 were closed and 17,318 were in operation in November, 1921, as against 1,583 closed and 16,737 in operation in July, 1920. The establishments operating in November, 1921, employed 1,046,769 workers (615,884 males and 430,885 females), while those operating in July, 1920, employed 1,204,728 workers (739,434 males and 465,294 females). The decrease in the number of workers employed in November, 1921, therefore, was 157,959, or 13.1 per cent. It should, however, be noted that of the 1,046,769 workers employed in November, 1921, only 829,639 worked full time while 217,139 were on short time.

Netherlands.—Centrale Commissie voor de Statistiek. Jaarverslag over het jaar 1922. The Hague, 1923. 54 pp.

The annual report of the Central Statistical Commission of the Netherlands on its activities in the year 1922.

— Departement van Arbeid, Handel en Nijverheid. Verslag over het haventoezicht, 1922. [The Hague] 1923. viii, 90 pp.

The annual report of the Harbor Inspection Service of the Netherlands covering the year 1922. The report deals with the activities of the service with respect to the inspection of vessels, the enforcement of the stevedores' law, the stevedores' safety decree, and the decree regulating the hours of labor in harbors, discusses complaints made by various parties, and gives detailed statistics of accidents in harbor work and inland navigation. In addition it contains detailed reports for each of the three existing inspection districts as to working regulations and the extent of navigation in the various harbors of the country.

New Zealand.—Pensions Department. Report for the year ending March 31, 1923. Wellington, 1923. 8 pp.

The following figures taken from this report give some of the facts as to miners', old-age, and widows' pensions in the year ending March 31, 1923, compared with figures taken from the annual reports for the two preceding years:

STATISTICS OF MINERS', OLD-AGE, AND WIDOWS' PENSIONS IN NEW ZEALAND, FOR YEARS ENDING MARCH 31, 1921, 1922, AND 1923.

[£ at par=\$4.8665; shilling=24.3 cents; penny=2.03 cents.]

Type of pension, and year ending—	Type of pension, and year ending— Number of pensions in force. Number of pensions in force.		Average amount of pension.		Cost per capita of European population.	
Miners' pensions: March 31, 1921. March 31, 1922. March 31, 1923.	474 506 544	111 107 114	£ 62 62 62	8. 12 5 4	8.	d. 54 6
Old-age pensions: March 31, 1921. March 31, 1922. March 31, 1923.	19,837 20,491 21,181	2,760 3,278 3,435	37 36 36	3 13 7	12 11 11	2 11 11
Widows' pensions: March 31, 1921. March 31, 1922. March 31, 1923.	3, 421 3, 343 3, 411	719 641 794	58 62 57	2 7	3 3 2	1

New Zealand.—Registrar of Friendly Societies. Report for the year ended December 31, 1922. Wellington, 1923. 35 pp.

The membership of the friendly societies in New Zealand whose returns were tabulated was 80,777 on December 31, 1922, an increase of 2,963, or 3.81 per cent, over 1921. The gross funds amounted to £2,593,692 (\$12,622,202, par), an increase over 1921 of £147,849 (\$719,507, par), the average capital per member being £32 2s. 2d. (\$156.26, par). Average sick pay, per member sick, decreased from £7 11s. 5d. to £7 8s. 3d. (\$36.84 to \$36.07, par), although considered in relation to the number of weeks of sickness the average benefit paid per week was the same as in 1921, 13s. (\$3.16, par.) The mortality rate was slightly higher than that of 1921, being 8.18 per thousand. The funeral benefit paid in 1922 amounted to £28,793 (\$140,121, par), equal to 7s. 3d. (\$1.76, par) per deceased member as compared with 6s. 8d. (\$1.62, par) in 1921.

Union of South Africa.—Department of Mines and Industries. Annual reports for the calendar year ended December 31, 1922. Pretoria, 1923. [Various paging.] 28 tables.

Contains statistical data relating to the mines and quarries of South Africa. In 1921 the labor force numbered 278,728, of which 87.6 per cent was colored; in 1922 the number employed had decreased to 255,703, but the proportion of colored workers had increased to 89.5 per cent. The figures as to accidents show on the whole an improvement; both fatalities and accidents were fewer in 1922 than in 1921. A section on miners' phthisis shows a decrease in the number of cases found, but the situation is not yet regarded as satisfactory.

The figures indicate that pure silicosis is still being produced at the rate of about 20 cases per month. This can not be regarded as satisfactory and points to the necessity for further improvement in underground health conditions, and for continued vigilance in existing preventive measures. Machine drilling is still the class of occupation which gives rise most rapidly to miners' phthisis.

Unofficial.

AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR. Executive Council. Report to the 43d annual convention, Portland, Oreg., October 1, 1923. [Washington, D. C.] 1923. 127 pp.

Extracts from this report are given in the account of the convention on pages 163 to 167 this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

BILLERBECK, GERHARD. Die Kündigung und Entlassung von Arbeitern. Berlin, 1921. 118 pp. (Bücherei des Arbeitsrechts, Band 2.)

A compilation of the legal provisions relating to the giving of notice to and dismissal of workers in Germany, with commentaries and citations from legal decisions.

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CARNEGIE ENDOWMENT FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE. Division of Economics and History. Labor supply and regulation, by Humbert Wolfe. Oxford, Clarendon Press, 1923. xiv, 422, 10 pp.

This is one of a series of monographs on the "Economic and social history of the World War." The series is intended to consist of "unofficial yet authoritative statements, which may best be described as about half-way between memoirs and blue books." In carrying out this purpose the author states that he has tried to make the book entirely impersonal and uncontroversial. It is doubtful whether such an attempt can ever be wholly successful when the matter handled is one on which opinion divides as sharply as it does concerning the treatment of labor during the war, but the author has confined himself pretty closely to an account of what was done, what were the intentions behind the doings, and what were, in the main, the results of the various measures.

At the outbreak of the war apparently no one realized that production and distribution of the necessaries of life were as essential to success as military measures, and enlistments were encouraged, regardless of how much the volunteers might be needed in industry. The author traces the various steps needed to remedy this situation, first to prevent the enlistment of those needed at home, then to retrieve for industry some of those who had been allowed to enlist, to see that enlistments were confined to those who could best be spared, to secure new labor supplies, and finally, to bring what labor was available to the highest pitch of productivity.

If securing and maintaining a labor supply involved considerable interference with the peace-time rights of the individual, the regulation of the labor so secured involved even more. A considerable degree of compulsion was introduced, and the industrial rights of both employer and employee were severely restricted. In essential industries, strikes and lockouts were prohibited, trade-union practices built up by decades of effort were abrogated, working conditions were regulated, wages were fixed, and for a time the worker's right to leave if he did not like his treatment was practically abolished though the employer's right to dismiss was not interfered with. An immense increase in output was the immediate result of these measures; their more remote results do not fall within the scope of this book.

An appendix contains the successive munitions acts, the Treasury agreements as to dilution of labor, rules for constituting and regulating the munitions tribunal, the various orders concerning wages, and similar documents, which are not always easy to obtain but are essential for any one wishing to study the war-time development of control of industry.

Consultative Committee of Women's Organizations. Housing Subcommittee.

The housing problem. A statement of the present position. London, 1923. 54 pp.

This report, which is dated April, 1923, gives a brief historical sketch of the housing problem before the war, a discussion of the present situation, and a review of the current proposals for meeting the housing shortage, giving arguments for and against each plan cited. An appendix contains data on related subjects and a brief account of housing measures in other countries.

Gowin, Enoch Burton, and Wheatley, William Alonzo. Occupations. A text-book for the educational, civic, and vocational guidance of boys and girls. Revised by John M. Brewer. Boston, Ginn & Co., 1923. x, 441 pp.

This study of occupations is designed to aid high-school students in choosing their vocations. The revision retains much that was in the original edition with the addition of material relating to vocations for girls, and a general discussion of education and work and of vocational adjustment. A bibliography on occupations is appended.

Hunter, Merlin H. and Watkins, Gordon S. The background of economics. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co. (Inc.), 1923. x, 514 pp.

The purpose of this book is to furnish a background for the study of the principles of economics, and it is intended to be used in preparation for college work in economics. The study covers the forces and products of nature, the development of agriculture and manufacturing industries, the problems of industry, exchange, and Government and economic relations.

Institut International d'Agriculture. Annuaire international de législation agricole, 1922. Rome, 1923. liii, 1056 pp.

The international yearbook of agricultural legislation. Contains an analytical introduction and index in English; the text is in French. Part VIII contains the text of legislation on agricultural cooperation, insurance, and credit.

Institut International de Statistique. Commission d'études pour les statistiques economiques internationales. Rapport sur les indices de la situation economique, par Lucien March. [Brussels?] 1923. 268 pp.

This report was issued by a special commission appointed to make a study of index numbers relating to the economic situation—wholesale prices, retail prices, and cost of living; stock exchange transactions, issue of bills, etc.; and composite indexes of economic prosperity in different countries. The report was presented to the fifteenth session of the International Statistical Institute at Brussels, October, 1923, as part of the work toward establishing comparable statistics between the various countries.

Institute for Government Research. The Division of Conciliation, its history, activities, and organization, by Joshua Bernhardt. Baltimore, Johns Hopkins Press, 1923. xi, 37 pp. Service monographs of the United States Government, No. 20.

This monograph gives the history and organization of the Division of Conciliation of the Department of Labor and an account of its activities in working for industrial peace through conciliation and mediation. The work of the division does not include controversies between railroads, express companies, and sleeping-car companies which are subject to the interstate commerce act, and their employees. The historical section includes an account of national legislation relating to the settlement of disputes on certain carriers in interstate commerce, the creation of the Division of Conciliation, progress to the World War, effect of the war, and the present status of the division. The appendixes include an outline of organization, including number of personnel and salaries; a classification of activities; a statement of appropriations and expenditures; and a bibliography.

Kaskel, Walter, and Syrup, Friedrich. Arbeitsnachweisgesetz. Kommentar. Berlin, 1922. 330 pp. (Carl Heymanns Verlag, Taschen-Gesetzsammlung 103.)

The authors of this volume, who had prepared the first draft of the German law on public employment offices (*Arbeitsnachweisgesetz*), after the enactment of this law on July 22, 1922, published the above commentary in order to aid the administrative authorities in the practical enforcement of the law and to contribute to the solution of the large number of difficult problems involved in the administration of the new law. A summary of the provisions of the law was given in the October, 1922, issue of the Monthly Labor Review (pp. 185–191).

Michigan, University of. School of Education. Vocational Education Department.

Occupations of junior workers in Detroit, by Alexander C. Crockett and Jennie M.

Clow. Ann Arbor, 1923. 76 pp. Special studies No. 1.

A summary of this study is given on pages 120 and 121 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE BOARD. Wages, hours, and employment in American manufacturing industries, July, 1914–July, 1923. New York, 1923. vii, 154 pp. Research report No. 62.

This report aims to portray "the important features of the movement of hourly and weekly earnings, hours of plant operation and worker hours, as well as of the numbers employed, during the nine years since the pre-war period, treating in detail the trends in the past three years, or since the general peak of industrial activity in 1920." It contains a number of summary tables, pay-roll data concerning different industries, and charts showing the fluctuations of the various factors considered.

Palla, Edmund. Die Kammern für Arbeiter und Angestellte. Vienna, 1923. vi, 122 pp. (Die sozialpolitische Gesetzgebung in Österreich, Band XI, Heft 1.)

This volume is one of a series of works on socio-political legislation in Austria and deals with the Austrian chambers of labor, a unique institution that has nothing in common with the French bourses du travail or the Italian camere di lavoro. The Austrian chambers of labor are public corporations created to represent and safeguard the economic interests of manual workers and salaried employees in the same manner as chambers of commerce represent the interests of employers in commerce and industry. The activities of these chambers consist chiefly in proposing and drafting legal measures in the interest of labor and in cooperating in the administration of such measures. The volume under review contains the full text of the law on chambers of labor of February 26, 1920, the decree regulating the election of members of such chambers, and of the by-laws of the chambers. Two tables show the result of the first elections held.

Robertson, D. H. The control of industry. New York, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1923. ix, 171 pp.

This book contains a general discussion of economic principles as exemplified by developments of large-scale industry; the organization of marketing; finance and industry; cooperation; workers' control; and joint control.

Speiser, W. Wirtschaftskennzahlen (Indexziffern). Berlin, 1922. 56 pp.

The above brochure had as its principal aim the collecting, sorting, and discussion of the numerous economic indexes computed in Germany and foreign countries up to November, 1921. It deals with general, wholesale, and retail price indexes, cost of living, wage, foreign exchange, stock exchange, and other economic indexes, and contains several tables and a large number of charts. Wherever it was possible the pre-war period has been taken as the base period in the tables and charts in order to make the various indexes comparable.

Taylor, Paul S. The Sailors' Union of the Pacific. New York, Ronald Press Co., 1923. vii, 188 pp.

This study of unionism among sailors on the Pacific coast deals with earlier conditions of seamen on vessel and on shore, the hardships and injustices they had to suffer, the development of union organization, and the influence of organization in securing legislation which remedied some of the worst conditions connected with their calling. The two last chapters of the book were published in the April, 1923, issue of the Monthly Labor Review (pp. 11–20) under the title "Organization and policies of the Sailors' Union of the Pacific."

Warbasse, James P. Cooperative democracy. New York, Macmillan Co., 1923. xx, 493 pp.

In this valuable contribution to the cooperative literature the president of the Cooperative League of the United States of America discusses "the cooperative movement, its philosophy, methods, accomplishments and possibilities, and its relation to the State, to science, art, and commerce, and to other systems of economic organizations." Cooperation is presented as a "practical working plan for a complete reorganization of society upon a voluntary nonpolitical basis." The author is convinced that

this reorganization of society must take place through the consumers' movement, and in order to show the basis for this belief he describes and analyzes such other forms of cooperation as producers' copartnerships, syndicalism, and agricultural producers' associations.

The author discusses at length the conditions which would obtain under the cooperative democracy as he visualizes it. Beginning with retail and then wholesale distribution the consumers' movement would undertake cooperative production of one article after another until finally all production would be carried on by the organized consumers.

The book contains a chapter showing what the movement has already done in such lines as distributive business (stores, bakeries, restaurants, etc.), laundry operation, housing, banking, medical service, insurance, telephone service, mining, wholesaling, importing, and manufacturing. Other chapters analyze the difference between cooperative and Government ownership, the profit motive and its defects, the organized labor movement, and the guild movement in its relation to cooperation, and sketch briefly the history and development of the cooperative movement in the different countries of the world.

WEAKLY, FRANK E. Applied personnel procedure. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1923. vii, 192 pp.

Certain specific phases of personnel management, such as placement, turnover, attendance, promotion, and transfers, job analysis, employee representation, profit sharing, and related subjects are treated from the standpoint of the author's varied experience as a manual worker, head of a personnel department, and a general executive.

Yovanovitch, D. Le rendement optimum du travail ouvrier. Rémunération, organisation, hygiène, morale du travail. Paris, Payot, 1923. 490 pp.

This book is a study of the modern stimulants of labor activity. It takes up the question of industrial organization from the labor point of view and attempts an evaluation of the different practices and reforms from the angle of their efficacy. The study is divided into three parts. The first treats of the remuneration of labor and includes a consideration of the various bonus systems, profit sharing, and other additions to wages. The second part takes up the organization and hygiene of labor, including scientific management, and the third part the relationship between the worker and the industry, covering works councils, labor control, and the occupational, economic, and general education of the workers.

SERIES OF BULLETINS PUBLISHED BY THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

[The publication of the annual and special reports and of the bimonthly bulletin was discontinued in July, 1912, and since that time a bulletin has been published at irregular intervals. Each number contains matter devoted to one of a series of general subjects. These bulletins are numbered consecutively, beginning with No. 101, and up to No. 236 they also carry consecutive numbers under each series. Beginning with No. 237 the serial numbering has been discontinued. A list of the series is given below. Under each is grouped all the bulletins which contain material relating to the subject matter of that series. A list of the reports and bulletins of the Bureau issued prior to July 1, 1912, will be furnished on application. The bulletins marked thus * are out of print.]

Wholesale Prices.

- *Bul. 114. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1912.
- Bul. 149. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1913.
- *Bul. 173. Index numbers of wholesale prices in the United States and foreign countries.
- *Bul. 181. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1914.
- *Bul. 200. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1915.
- Bul. 226. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1916.
- Bul. 269. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1919.
- Bul. 284. Index numbers of wholesale prices in the United States and foreign countries. [Revision of Bulletin No. 173.]
- Bul. 296. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1920.
- Bul. 320. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1921.
- Bul. 335. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1922.

Retail Prices and Cost of Living.

- *Bul. 105. Retail prices, 1890 to 1911: Part I.
- Retail prices, 1890 to 1911: Part II—General tables.
- *Bul. 106. Retail prices, 1890 to June, 1912: Part I.
 - Retail prices, 1890 to June, 1912: Part II—General tables.
- Bul. 108. Retail prices, 1890 to August, 1912.
- Bul. 110. Retail prices, 1890 to October, 1912.
- Bul. 113. Retail prices, 1890 to December, 1912.
- Bul. 115. Retail prices, 1890 to February, 1913.
- *Bul. 121. Sugar prices, from refiner to consumer.
- Bul. 125. Retail prices, 1890 to April, 1913. *Bul. 130. Wheat and flour prices, from farmer to consumer.
- Bul. 132. Retail prices, 1890 to June, 1913.
- Bul. 136. Retail prices, 1890 to August, 1913.
- *Bul. 138. Retail prices, 1890 to October, 1913.
- *Bul. 140. Retail prices, 1890 to December, 1913.
- Bul. 156. Retail prices, 1907 to December, 1914.
- Bul. 164. Butter prices, from producer to consumer.
- Bul. 170. Foreign food prices as affected by the war.
- Bul. 184. Retail prices, 1907 to June, 1915.
- Bul. 197. Retail prices, 1907 to December, 1915.
- Bul. 228. Retail prices, 1907 to December, 1916.
- Bul. 270. Retail prices, 1913 to 1919.
- Bul. 300. Retail prices, 1913 to 1920.
- Bul. 315. Retail prices, 1913 to 1921.
- Bul. 334. Retail prices, 1913 to 1922.

Wages and Hours of Labor.

- Bul. 116. Hours, earnings, and duration of employment of wage-earning women in selected industries in the District of Columbia.
- *Bul. 118. Ten-hour maximum working-day for women and young persons.
- Bul. 119. Working hours of women in the pea canneries of Wisconsin.
- *Bul. 128. Wages and hours of labor in the cotton, woolen, and silk industries, 1890 to 1912.
- *Bul. 129. Wages and hours of labor in the lumber, millwork, and furniture industries, 1890 to 1912.
- *Bul. 131. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, 1907 to 1912.
- *Bul. 134. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe and hosiery and knit goods industries, 1890 to 1912.
- *Bul. 135. Wages and hours of labor in the cigar and clothing industries, 1911 and 1912.
- Bul. 137. Wages and hours of labor in the building and repairing of steam railroad cars, 1890 to 1912.
- Bul. 143. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1913.
- Bul. 146. Wages and regularity of employment and standardization of piece rates in the dress and waist industry of New York City.
- *Bul. 147. Wages and regularity of employment in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry.
- *Bul. 150. Wages and hours of labor in the cotton, woolen, and silk industries, 1907 to 1913.

Wages and Hours of Labor-Concluded.

- *Bul. 151. Wages and hours of labor in the iron and steel industry in the United States, 1907 to 1912.
- Bul. 153. Wages and hours of labor in the lumber, millwork, and furniture industries, 1907 to 1913.
- *Bul. 154. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe and hosiery and underwear industries, 1907 to 1913.
- Bul. 160. Hours, earnings, and conditions of labor of women in Indiana mercantile establishments and garment factories.
- Bul. 161. Wages and hours of labor in the clothing and cigar industries, 1911 to 1913.
- Bul. 163. Wages and hours of labor in the building and repairing of steam railroad cars, 1907 to 1913.
- Bul. 168. Wages and hours of labor in the iron and steel industry, 1907 to 1918.
- *Bul. 171. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 1, 1914.
- Bul. 177. Wages and hours of labor in the hosiery and underwear industry, 1907 to 1914.
- Bul. 178. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry, 1907 to 1914.
- Bul. 187. Wages and hours of labor in the men's clothing industry, 1911 to 1914.
- *Bul. 190. Wages and hours of labor in the cotton, woolen, and silk industries, 1907 to 1914.
- *Bul. 194. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 1, 1915.
- Bul. 204. Street railway employment in the United States.
- Bul. 214. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1916.
- Bul. 218. Wages and hours of labor in the iron and steel industry, 1907 to 1915.
- Bul. 221. Hours, fatigue, and health in British munition factories.
- Bul. 225. Wages and hours of labor in the lumber, millwork, and furniture industries, 1915
- Bul. 232. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry, 1907 to 1916.
- Bul. 238. Wages and hours of labor in woolen and worsted goods manufacturing, 1916.
- Bul. 239. Wages and hours of labor in cotton goods manufacturing and finishing, 1916.
- Bul. 245. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1917.
- Bul. 252. Wages and hours of labor in the slaughtering and meat-packing industry, 1917.
- Bul. 259. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1918.
- Bul. 260. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry, 1907 to 1918.
- Bul. 261. Wages and hours of labor in woolen and worsted goods manufacturing, 1918.
- Bul. 262. Wages and hours of labor in cotton goods manufacturing and finishing, 1918. Bul. 265. Industrial survey in selected industries in the United States, 1919. Preliminary report.
- Bul. 274. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1919.
- Bul. 278. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry, 1907 to 1920.
- Bul. 279. Hours and earnings in anthracite and bituminous coal mining.
- Bul. 286. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1920.
- Bul. 288. Wages and hours of labor in cotton goods manufacturing, 1920.
- Bul. 289. Wages and hours of labor in woolen and worsted goods manufacturing, 1920.
- Bul. 294. Wages and hours of labor in the slaughtering and meat-packing industry in 1921.
- Bul. 297. Wages and hours of labor in the petroleum industry.
- Bul. 302. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1921.
- Bul. 305. Wages and hours of labor in the iron and steel industry, 1907 to 1920.
- Bul. 316. Hours and earnings in anthracite and bituminous coal mining.
- Bul. 317. Wages and hours of labor in lumber manufacturing, 1921.
- Bul. 324. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry, 1907 to 1922.
- Bul. 325. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1922.
- Bul. 327. Wages and hours of labor in woolen and worsted goods manufacturing, 1922.
- Bul. 328. Wages and hours of labor in hosiery and underwear industry, 1922.
- Bul. 329. Wages and hours of labor in the men's clothing industry, 1922.
- Bul. 345. Wages and hours of labor in cotton goods manufacturing, 1922.
- Bul. 348. Wages and hours of labor in the automobile industry, 1922. [In press.]
- Bul. 353. Wages and hours of labor in the iron and steel industry, 1907 to 1922. [In press.]

Employment and Unemployment.

- *Bul. 109. Statistics of unemployment and the work of employment offices.
- Bul. 116. Hours, earnings, and duration of employment of wage-earning women in selected industries in the District of Columbia.
- Bul. 172. Unemployment in New York City, N. Y.
- *Bul. 182. Unemployment among women in department and other retail stores of Boston, Mass.
- *Bul. 183. Regularity of employment in the women's ready-to-wear garment industries.
- Bul. 192. Proceedings of the American Association of Public Employment Offices.
- *Bul. 195. Unemployment in the United States.
- Bul. 196. Proceedings of the Employment Managers' Conference held at Minneapolis, Minn., January, 1916,
- Bul. 202. Proceedings of the conference of the Employment Managers' Association of Boston, Mass., held May 10, 1916.
- Bul. 206. The British system of labor exchanges.
- Bul. 220. Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Meeting of the American Association of Public Employment Offices, Buffalo, N. Y., July 20 and 21, 1916.
- Bul. 223. Employment of women and juveniles in Great Britain during the war.
- *Bul. 227. Proceedings of the Employment Managers' Conference, Philadelphia, Pa., April 2 and 3, 1917.

Employment and Unemployment-Concluded.

- Bul. 235. Employment system of the Lake Carriers' Association.
- Bul. 241. Public employment offices in the United States.
- Bul. 247. Proceedings of Employment Managers' Conference, Rochester, N. Y., May 9-11, 1918.
- Bul. 310. Industrial unemployment: A statistical study of its extent and causes.
- Bul. 311. Proceedings of the Ninth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Public Employment Services, September 7-9, 1921, Buffalo, N. Y.
- Bul. 337. Proceedings of the Tenth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Public Employment Services, Washington, D. C., September 11-13, 1922.

Women in Industry.

- Bul. 116. Hours, earnings, and duration of employment of wage-earning women in selected industries in the District of Columbia.
- *Bul. 117. Prohibition of night work of young persons.
- *Bul. 118. Ten-hour maximum working-day for women and young persons.
- Bul. 119. Working hours of women in the pea canneries of Wisconsin.
- *Bul. 122. Employment of women in power laundries in Milwaukee, Wis.
- Bul. 160. Hours, earnings, and conditions of labor of women in Indiana mercantile establishments and garment factories.
- *Bul. 167. Minimum-wage legislation in the United States and foreign countries.
- *Bul. 175. Summary of the report on condition of woman and child wage earners in the United States.
- *Bul. 176. Effect of minimum-wage determinations in Oregon.
- *Bul. 180. The boot and shoe industry in Massachusetts as a vocation for women.
 - Bul. 182. Unemployment among women in department and other retail stores of Boston, Mass.
 - Bul. 193. Dressmaking as a trade for women in Massachusetts.
- Bul. 215. Industrial experience of trade-school girls in Massachusetts.
- Bul. 217. Effect of workmen's compensation laws in diminishing the necessity of industrial employment of women and children.
- Bul. 223. Employment of women and juveniles in Great Britain during the war.
- Bul. 253. Women in the lead industries.

Workmen's Insurance and Compensation (including laws relating thereto).

- Bul. 101. Care of tuberculous wage earners in Germany.
- Bul. 102. British National Insurance Act, 1911.
- Bul. 103. Sickness and accident insurance law of Switzerland.
- Bul. 107. Law relating to insurance of salaried employees in Germany.
- *Bul. 126. Workmen's compensation laws of the United States and foreign countries.
- *Bul. 155. Compensation for accidents to employees of the United States.
- *Bul. 185. Compensation legislation of 1914 and 1915.
- Bul. 203. Workmen's compensation laws of the United States and foreign countries.
- Bul. 210. Proceedings of the Third Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
- Bul. 212. Proceedings of the conference on social insurance called by the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
- Bul. 217. Effect of workmen's compensation laws in diminishing the necessity of industrial employment of women and children.
- Bul. 240. Comparison of workmen's compensation laws of the United States.
- Bul. 243. Workmen's compensation legislation in the United States and foreign countries.
- Bul. 248. Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
- Bul. 264. Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
- Bul. 272. Workmen's compensation legislation of the United States and Canada, 1919.
- *Bul. 273. Proceedings of the Sixth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
- Bul. 275. Comparison of workmen's compensation laws of the United States and Canada.
- Bul. 281. Proceedings of the Seventh Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
- Bul. 301. Comparison of workmen's compensation insurance and administration.
- Bul. 304. Proceedings of the Eighth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
- Bul. 312. National Health Insurance in Great Britain, 1911 to 1920.
- Bul. 332. Workmen's compensation legislation of the United States and Canada, 1920 to 1922.
- Bul. 333. Proceedings of the Ninth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.

Industrial Accidents and Hygiene.

- Bul. 104. Lead poisoning in potteries, tile works, and porcelain enameled sanitary ware factories.
- Bul. 120. Hygiene of the painters' trade.
- *Bul. 127. Dangers to workers from dust and fumes, and methods of protection.
- Bul. 141. Lead poisoning in the smelting and refining of lead.
- *Bul. 157. Industrial accident statistics.

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Industrial Accidents and Hygiene-Concluded.

- Bul. 165. Lead poisoning in the manufacture of storage batteries.
- *Bul. 179. Industrial poisons used in the rubber industry.
- Bul. 188. Report of British departmental committee on the danger in the use of lead in the painting of buildings.
- *Bul. 201. Report of committee on statistics and compensation insurance cost of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions. [Limited edition.]
- Bul. 205. Anthrax as an occupational disease.
- Bul. 207. Causes of death by occupation.
- Bul. 209. Hygiene of the printing trades.
- *Bul. 216. Accidents and accident prevention in machine building.
 - Bul. 219. Industrial poisons used or produced in the manufacture of explosives.
 - Bul. 221. Hours, fatigue, and health in British munition factories.
 - Bul. 230. Industrial efficiency and fatigue in British munition factories.
 - Bul. 231. Mortality from respiratory diseases in dusty trades.
- *Bul. 234. Safety movement in the iron and steel industry, 1907 to 1917.
- Bul. 236. Effect of the air hammer on the hands of stonecutters.
- Bul. 251. Preventable death in the cotton manufacturing industry.
- Bul. 253. Women in the lead industries.
- Bul. 256. Accidents and accident prevention in machine building. Revision of Bul. 216.
- Bul. 267. Anthrax as an occupational disease. [Revised.]
- Bul. 276. Standardization of industrial accident statistics.
- Bul. 280. Industrial poisoning in making coal-tar dyes and dye intermediates.
- Bul. 291. Carbon monoxide poisoning.
- Bul. 293. The problem of dust phthisis in the granite-stone industry.
- Bul. 298. Causes and prevention of accidents in the iron and steel industry, 1910 to 1919.
- Bul, 306. Occupation hazards and diagnostic signs. Λ guide to impairment to be looked for in hazardous occupations.
- Bul. 339. Statistics of industrial accidents in the United States.

Conciliation and Arbitration (including strikes and lockouts).

- *Bul. 124. Conciliation and arbitration in the building trades of Greater New York.
- *Bul. 133. Report of the industrial council of the British Board of Trade on its inquiry into industrial agreements.
 - Bul. 139. Michigan copper district strike.
- Bul. 144. Industrial court of the cloak, suit, and skirt industry of New York City.
- Bul. 145. Conciliation, arbitration, and sanitation in the dress and waist industry of New York City.
- Bul. 191. Collective bargaining in the anthracite industry.
- *Bul. 198. Collective agreements in the men's clothing industry.
- Bul. 233. Operation of the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act of Canada.
- Bul. 303. Use of Federal power in settlement of railway labor disputes.
- Bul. 341. Trade agreement in the silk-ribbon industry of New York City. [In press.

Labor Laws of the United States (including decisions of courts relating to labor).

- *Bul. 111. Labor legislation of 1912.
- *Bul. 112. Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1912.
- *Bul. 148. Labor laws of the United States, with decisions of courts relating thereto.
- *Bul. 152. Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1913.
- *Bul. 166. Labor legislation of 1914.
- *Bul. 169. Decisions of courts affecting labor, 1914.
- *Bul. 186. Labor legislation of 1915.
- *Bul. 189. Decisions of courts affecting labor, 1915.
- Bul. 211. Labor laws and their administration in the Pacific States.
- *Bul. 213. Labor legislation of 1916.
- Bul. 224. Decisions of courts affecting labor, 1916.
- Bul. 229. Wage-payment legislation in the United States.
- Bul. 244. Labor legislation of 1917.
- Bul. 246. Decisions of courts affecting labor, 1917.
- Bul. 257. Labor legislation of 1918.
- Bul. 258. Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1918.
- Bul. 277. Labor legislation of 1919.
- Bul. 285. Minimum-wage legislation in the United States.
- Bul. 290. Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1919-1920.
- Bul. 292. Labor legislation of 1920.
- Bul. 308. Labor legislation of 1921.
- Bul. 309. Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1921.
- Bul. 321. Labor laws that have been declared unconstitutional.
- Bul. 322. Kansas Court of Industrial Relations.
- Bul. 330. Labor legislation of 1922.
- Bul. 343. Laws providing for bureaus of labor statistics, etc.
- Bul. 344. Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1922.

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Foreign Labor Laws.

Bul. 142. Administration of labor laws and factory inspection in certain European countries.

Vocational Education.

- Bul. 145. Conciliation, arbitration, and sanitation in the dress and waist industry of New York City.
- *Bul. 147. Wages and regularity of employment in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry.
- *Bul. 159. Short-unit courses for wage earners and a factory school experiment.
- Bul. 162. Vocational education survey of Richmond, Va.
- Bul. 199. Vocational education survey of Minneapolis, Minn.
- Bul. 271. Adult working class education (Great Britain and the United States).

Labor, as Affected by the War.

- Bul. 170. Foreign food prices as affected by the war.
- Bul. 219. Industrial poisons used or produced in the manufacture of explosives.
- Bul. 221. Hours, fatigue, and health in British munition factories.
- Bul. 222. Welfare work in British munition factories.
- Bul. 223. Employment of women and juveniles in Great Britain during the war.
- Bul. 230. Industrial efficiency and fatigue in British munition factories.
- Bul. 237. Industrial unrest in Great Britain.
- Bul. 249. Industrial health and efficiency. Final report of British Health of Munition Workers Committee.
- Bul. 255. Joint industrial councils in Great Britain.
- Bul. 283. History of the Shipbuilding Labor Adjustment Board, 1917 to 1919.
- Bul. 287. National War Labor Board.

Safety Codes.

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