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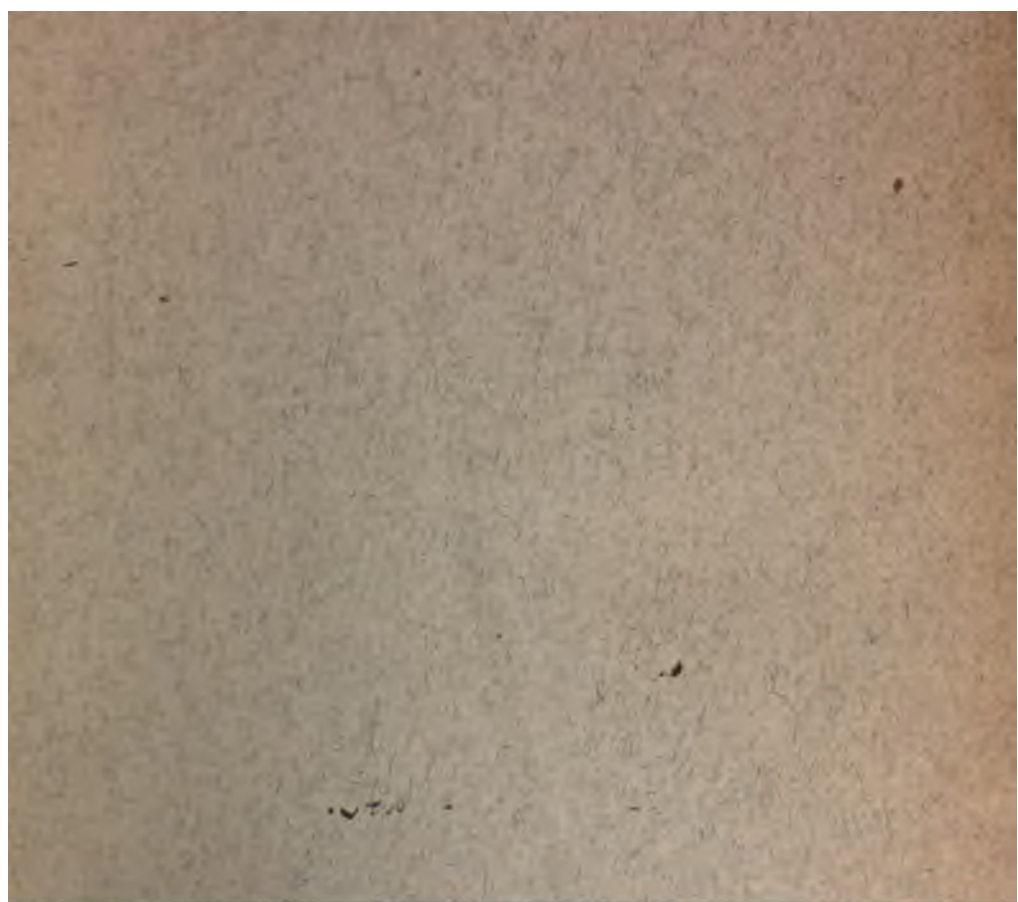
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OF THE

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DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

WASHINGTON.

JANUARY, 1908.

THE LIABILITY OF EMPLOYERS FOR INJURIES TO THEIR EMPLOYEES, IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY LINDLEY D. CLARK, A. M., LL. M.

In the English common law lies at the foundation of our present employers' liability, this doctrine is continually undergoing change by the rulings of State and National courts and by the enactment of numerous statutes passed with a view to a more exact definition of the rights of the employee or to some amelioration of the law in other respects. The principles of the common law are differently interpreted in the various jurisdictions that State names refer to certain applications of them, indicative of a locally received law which is not in accord with the generally accepted common law; while the statutes range in form and effect from a modification of the common law to an abrogation of it in some cases inclusive degree and the enactment of rules varying considerably from it and from one another.

the result that we now have in the United States a body of law and practice that is in effect largely of the nature of a compromise. It is the purpose of the present undertaking to set forth with some completeness the more important principles of the common law as generally applied to this subject in this country, together with such local variations as may appear; also to reproduce the statutory provisions of those States which have passed enactments on the subject, presenting the construction put thereon where they have been reviewed by the superior State courts or the Federal courts.

COMMON LAW LIABILITY.

The doctrine of the employer's liability under the common law is presented under the heads of the duties and the defenses of the employer.

THE DUTIES OF EMPLOYERS.

As already stated, the two principal factors of the problem are the duty of the employer to protect his employee in the discharge of the duties of his employment and the assumption by the employee of the risks involved in the undertaking in which his contract of employment engages him. The duty of the employer is first considered, but it will be found impossible to discuss it without constantly bearing in mind the modifications that result from the existence of the complementary obligations resting on the employee.

The briefest statement of the rule governing the employer is that he is required to use due care for the safety of his employees while they are engaged in the performance of their work. This is taken to include all reasonable means and precautions, the facts in each particular case being taken into consideration. If such provisions have been made as a reasonably prudent man would supply if he himself were exposed to the dangers of the servant's position, no negligence would appear. In the case of corporations the Supreme Court fixes the duty at the use of such caution and foresight as a corporation controlled by careful, prudent officers ought to exercise.^(*)

Though the courts of review have condemned any instructions that would tend to charge the employer with a higher degree of care than that which may be defined as ordinary, the measure is not an absolute one, but is proportioned to the dangers to which the employee is exposed. The ordinary incidents of railroading, mining, and certain classes of manufacturing are in themselves, in comparison with general employments, unusually dangerous; and so of a large railroad yard as compared with a smaller one, an express train as compared with a freight train, or a gaseous mine with one in which no

^{*} *Wabash R. Co. v. McDaniels* (1882), 107 U. S. 454, 2 Sup. Ct. 932.

such dangers exist. In such cases as these, or when temporarily abnormal conditions prevail, ordinary care is advanced far beyond the requirements of the less dangerous conditions. On the other hand, care may lawfully be relaxed if the risk is unusually slight or if a device is for a specific and transitory use. The general rule as to care is qualified by the youthfulness or inexperience of an employee, a greater degree of care being commonly required for the protection of such persons; nor is the master relieved by the fact that a servant of tender years misrepresented his age in order to secure the employment.^(a)

PLACE AND INSTRUMENTALITIES.

Tools and appliances.

In accordance with the rule as to due care, the obligation rests on the master to supply tools and appliances that are reasonably safe for the intended use and reasonably well adapted to perform the work in contemplation. These must be provided at the place of use or at a place of such ease of access as to be reasonably procurable.

Place and materials.

Closely related is the duty to provide a safe place to work and proper material for use, the measure still being not absolute but reasonable or adequate safety. The distinction between place and appliance is not an easy one to draw, though the courts are stricter in their requirements as to the former than to the latter. Thus, if a scaffold furnished by an employer be regarded as a place to work, he is responsible not only for the materials supplied, but also for the construction and maintenance; while if it be viewed only as an appliance, he must make reasonable provision therefor, but its insufficiency, if such there be, may be laid to the account of the fellow-workmen of an injured employee, or perhaps to his own negligence in erection.^(b)

New devices.

What may be required in the way of improvement and alteration or in the adoption of new devices to accomplish the ends of safety is governed largely by the usual and ordinary course of procedure of those in the same business. The employer can not be made an insurer, nor is he bound to introduce the newest and safest appliances. On the other hand, he can not be allowed to disregard all inventions for securing the safety and comfort of his workmen. But as new

^a *Am. Car & Foundry Co. v. Armentraut* (1905), 214 Ill. 509, 73 N. E. 766.

^b *Butler v. Townsend* (1891), 126 N. Y. 105, 26 N. E. 1017; *Hoveland v. National Blower Works* (1908), 114 N. W. 795. (Wis.)

devices become more generally used, the standard of the custom of prudent men will become correspondingly altered, and the law of general usage may compel the adoption of devices the omission of which had not previously been considered as negligence.^(a) This rule operates more effectively in the case of installing new equipments or of beginning a new undertaking than where the question is one of the continuance or modification of established conditions.

The doctrine that the employer is bound to safeguard his employees from exposure to needless and unreasonable risks is subject to the general qualification that one has the right to carry on a business which is dangerous, either in itself or because of the manner in which it is conducted, provided it does not interfere with the rights of others, without incurring liability to a servant who is capable of contracting and who knows the dangers attendant on employment in the circumstances.^(b) A brief statement of the rule is that the employer has a right to exercise a reasonable judgment and discretion in the conduct of his affairs, and it is said that it would be a very extraordinary case indeed in which this right would be interfered with.^(b) This does not, however, permit the use of unreasonably dangerous appliances nor those which are in themselves defective or so obsolete and inferior that their adoption or retention would of itself indicate negligence,^(c) though the question is held to be one not of comparative safety but of reasonable safety. No fixed rule of liability is possible, therefore, in this respect, each case being of necessity decided on its own merits.

Where a convenience is of great advantage, its adoption may be classed as obligatory, at least where the change involves but small cost. It is not clear how far expense may be offered as a defense, no case being at hand in which that alone was held to relieve the employer from the duty of correcting abnormally dangerous conditions. In Alabama, however, the cost and the effect on public interests were considered as so affecting the requirement that the employer was not held negligent as matter of law in a case where a low bridge over a railroad could be changed only at large expense and the marked inconvenience of several members of the public.^(d)

Repair.

The same care is required of the master in maintaining as in furnishing safe and suitable appliances.^(e) Inasmuch, however, as the progress of work and the use of tools produce constantly changing

^a *Mason v. Richmond & D. R. Co.* (1892), 111 N. C. 482, 16 S. E. 698.

^b *Tuttle v. Detroit, etc., Ry.* (1887), 122 U. S. 189, 7 Sup. Ct. 1106.

^c *Choctaw, O. & G. R. Co. v. McDade* (1903), 191 U. S. 64, 24 Sup. Ct. 24.

^d *Louisville & N. R. R. Co. v. Hall* (1890), 91 Ala. 112, 8 So. 371.

^e *Moore v. Wabash, St. L. & P. R. Co.* (1885), 85 Mo. 588.

conditions, the doctrine that reasonably safe places and appliances must be provided is frequently modified by the statement that the duty has been discharged when ordinary or reasonable care has been exercised in the effort to make such provision.^(a) The continued employment of tools that are so worn as to increase the danger of their use will in general entail liability on the employer. If, however, the danger is an obvious one, the employee, continuing to work with a knowledge of the danger and without complaint, will be considered to have assumed the risk, and in case of injury has no recovery; nor will liability attach until the employer has or reasonably could have information of the defect requiring repair.

Here, again, qualifications abound, the usage of the trade, the custom of the shop, and the nature of the instrumentality each being a factor. Simple repairs may customarily be made by the users of the tools, in which case the employer is without liability. If a machinist is employed to make repairs, a workman injured while attempting to repair his own machine is without right of action. Perishable appliances, such as ropes, belts, etc., which wear out constantly from use, should be renewed at proper intervals if the master is to stand clear of the charge of negligence.

Intended use.

Liability attaches only where the injury is the result of the use of an appliance for the work and in the manner for which it was furnished. Thus the common practice of workmen riding on elevators intended only for freight is at the risk of the workman; ^(b) so, also, of the use of one ladder for splicing to another when it was intended solely for use alone.^(c) Continued indulgence in a practice with the master's acquiescence, however, or the adaptation of an appliance to new uses by the master himself or by a representative, qualifies this rule, so that if such use involves increased danger and a servant is injured thereby the master can not defend by pointing out the deviation from the original use or showing that the instrumentality was suitable therefor.^(d)

Customary method.

In close connection with the above is the rule that the employer is not liable to an employee for an injury incurred by a departure from the customary method of performing work or by leaving the place of his employment to work in some other department unless on instruc-

^a Anderson v. Michigan C. R. Co. (1895), 107 Mich. 501, 65 N. W. 585; Reed v. Stockmyer (1896), 20 C. C. A. 381, 74 Fed. 186.

^b Kern v. De Castro & D. Sugar Ref. Co. (1890), 125 N. Y. 50, 25 N. E. 1071.

^c McKay v. Hand (1897), 168 Mass. 270, 47 N. E. 104.

^d Lauter v. Duckworth (1897), 19 Ind. App. 535, 48 N. E. 864.

tions from a properly authorized representative.^(a) So if a more dangerous method or place of work is chosen when one less dangerous was available, the resultant injury, if any, does not charge the employer with liability.^(b)

Incomplete, etc., appliances.

A lower standard of the employer's liability prevails where the employee is engaged in the work of repair, or of bringing an unfinished appliance to completion, or of the demolition of a structure. A greater degree of danger is obviously present under such conditions than if the work was proceeding with complete and stable instrumentalities, and the employee is held to be correspondingly obligated to be on his guard, though it is by no means intended to relieve the employer by a general rule. The actual knowledge of the employee may be taken as the ultimate guide in determining liability, and unnecessary and abnormal dangers are not a part of the risk assumed.^(c)

Inspection.

The duty of making repairs necessarily involves the duty of discovering the need for them as it may arise, which entails the duty of inspection. The duty of maintaining tools and machinery in a reasonably safe and suitable condition is in general on a level with the duty to provide such appliances in the first instance. The inspection required for such maintenance differs somewhat from that necessary or presumed at the time a new plant or new tools are first brought into use. As to the latter it may first be stated that an employer who makes and supplies an instrumentality is chargeable with such a knowledge of its defects as ordinary care during the course of such manufacture would have disclosed. Subsequent inspections will not relieve him of this liability so long as the defects continue, and notice of such original defects is not necessary in order to fix the responsibility of the employer. In case of purchase, the duty of inspection may ordinarily be assumed to have been discharged by the manufacturer, though a showing that the purchase was carelessly made (as, for instance, without indicating to the manufacturer the intended use, so that he might make tests appropriate to such use) has been held to imply negligence. If an article is of an approved pattern and the dealer is a reputable one, the presumption is in favor of the employer's nonliability. Indeed, it is generally considered

^a *Stagg v. Edward Western Tea & Spice Co.* (1902), 169 Mo. 489, 69 S. W. 391.

^b *Wormell v. Maine C. R. Co.* (1887), 79 Me. 397, 10 Atl. 49.

^c *Colorado Midland R. Co. v. Naylor* (1892), 17 Colo. 501, 30 Pac. 249; but see *Brick v. Rochester, N. Y. & P. R. Co.* (1885), 98 N. Y. 211.

that such facts are conclusive in his favor in the absence of particular facts or circumstances calculated to put a prudent person on his guard.^(a) This doctrine does not appear to control in Michigan, however, where it has been held to be the duty of the employer to cause thorough inspection of newly purchased articles before putting them into use.^(b) The duty of a reasonable inspection of purchased appliances is also inferable from a comparatively recent opinion of the Supreme Court of the United States.^(c) In favor of this view is the fact that it accords with the doctrine of nondelegable duties, discussed below, and that it alone affords protection to the employee where there has been actual negligence on the part of the manufacturer, with whom he has no contractual relations.

The necessity for inspection of instrumentalities in use obviously varies with the nature of the appliance and the circumstances of employment. Small and simple tools may be used without inspection, the employer being entitled to assume that the workmen will make timely discovery of defects and be suitable judges of the fitness of such tools for use. Complex or dangerous machinery or instrumentalities that are liable to rapid wear or deterioration must, on the other hand, be the subjects of inspections of a nature and frequency adapted to the conditions indicated. Inasmuch, however, as inspection is only a means to an end, the fact that due provision has been made therefor will not absolve a master from liability where he has actual knowledge of defective conditions through some other means than by inspection. Nor will the proved inadequacy of an inspecting force charge him with liability if it is shown that in any particular instance the appliance involved in the case was in fact properly inspected.

The duty does not extend beyond a reasonably careful inspection, though no defect will be considered latent which may be discovered by the exercise of due care. The taking apart of machinery, or such other inspection as would interfere with the profitable conduct of business, is not, in general, required.^(d) External appearances, however, may be such as to demand a more thorough inspection; ^(e) so, also, of appliances showing defects in operation or those to which some accident has occurred of a nature likely to cause obscure injuries, etc.^(f)

As to frequency of inspections there is little that can be stated definitely. The nature of the appliance and its liability to change

^a *Reynolds v. Merchants' Woolen Co.* (1897), 168 Mass. 501, 47 N. E. 406. But see *Erickson v. Am. Steel & W. Co.* (1906), 193 Mass. 119, 78 N. E. 761.

^b *Morton v. Detroit, etc., R. Co.* (1890), 81 Mich. 423, 46 N. W. 111.

^c *Richmond & D. R. Co. v. Elliott* (1893), 149 U. S. 266, 13 Sup. Ct. 837.

^d *Philadelphia & R. R. Co. v. Hughes* (1888), 119 Pa. 301, 13 Atl. 286.

^e *Hall v. Emerson-Stevens Mfg. Co.* (1900), 94 Me. 445, 47 Atl. 924.

^f *Mooney v. Connecticut River Lumber Co.* (1891), 154 Mass. 407, 28 N. E. 357.

under the conditions of use are elements to be reckoned with. Appliances which are much worn or which are not maintained at a good standard of condition according to common usage require more frequent inspection than is obligatory with newer and more efficient equipment and methods.

The modification of the doctrine of safe places in case of unfinished structures and of repairs following accidents applies to the duty of inspection, the probability of defective conditions being a matter of common knowledge, so that the servant making the inspection will be supposed to have assumed the risk.

Ownership of appliances.

The duty of inspection above considered assumes the ownership of both appliances and premises to be in the employer. Where ownership is divided various distinctions exist, based on the relations of the employer and the owner of the premises or instrumentality. The most important of this class of cases are perhaps those in which is involved the handling by railroad companies of cars belonging to other companies. Such cars, known in railroading as "foreign" cars, although received only temporarily for purposes of transportation, are as completely identified with the employer's plant as if the transfer was made by purchase, so that the nature of the obligations arising therefrom differs from that existing in cases where the employer's lack of control over the appliance is usually held to exempt him from liability.^(a)

In the first place, it may be said that no railway company is obliged to receive and turn over to be handled by its employees any defective or dangerous car. Every company is under a legal duty not to expose its employees to dangers arising from such defects of foreign cars as may be discovered by reasonable inspection before such cars are received into its train. This inspection is such a one as the company's own cars would receive while in use, and not a shop inspection. The shortness of the time during which the foreign car is in the hands of a company is not an excuse for neglecting the duty.^(b)

Where danger from the use of foreign cars arises, not from defective equipments, but from differences of construction, it has been generally held that the servant assumes the obvious risks thus arising, but if ignorance of the risk is predicated on his part his right of action would follow. It may be noted, however, that the statutory requirement of automatic couplers is not met unless the various

^a *Baltimore & P. R. Co. v. Mackey* (1895), 157 U. S. 72, 15 Sup. Ct. 491.

^b *Atchison, T. & S. F. R. Co. v. Penfold* (1896), 57 Kans. 148, 45 Pac. 574.

kinds brought together will actually couple by impact, the mere fact that they will so couple when used with others of the same make not being a sufficient compliance with the Federal statute.^(a)

Animals.

Where animals are used as a part of an employer's industrial appliances, or are kept on his premises, and an employee is injured by reason of their vicious or otherwise dangerous qualities, the employer is liable for the injury if he is or ought to be aware of such dangerous qualities. The same general rules as to the employer's duty to give warning and the employee's assumption of risk in accordance with his own knowledge of conditions are applicable in this connection as in the case of inanimate appliances or adjuncts.

WORKING FORCE.

Hiring coservants.

Besides the duty to use care in regard to inanimate or irresponsible instrumentalities, the employer must also be reasonably and properly careful and diligent to see that each employee hired by him has such qualifications as will enable him to perform his duties without greater risk to himself and his coemployees than the business necessarily involves. The same principles apply here as in connection with the duty as to appliances. Where the degree of danger to be guarded against is greater or the skill needed for safety is of a higher order, the degree of care demanded is correspondingly increased. Obviously the question of experience or ability would be of little moment in mere manual labor unrelated or not immediately related to other stages of work, while for certain classes of railroad employment, for instance, definite inquiries as to qualifications are necessary to relieve the employer of the charge of negligence.

The disqualifications of persons of suitable age may be mental, moral, or physical, the most common being those that arise from the intemperate use of intoxicants, though habitual carelessness or recklessness, such as may reasonably come to the knowledge of the employer, likewise charge him with liability. The element of knowledge, either actual or constructive, is an essential one. A plaintiff grounding his claim on the negligence of the employer in hiring an incompetent coservant must prove, not only the incompetence, but also that the employer failed of proper care and diligence in the original hiring or in subsequent inquiry as to incompetency of which notice was given during the term of service.^(b) It must further

^a *Johnson v. S. P. R. Co.* (1904), 196 U. S. 1, 25 Sup. Ct. 158.

^b *Indiana, B. & W. R. Co. v. Dalley* (1887), 110 Ind. 75, 10 N. E. 631.

appear that the injuries complained of were the consequence of the incompetence charged.^(a)

Although the employer's duty in regard to care is a continuing one, the presumption of good character and suitable qualifications can safely be relied on by an employer who has used due care in the original hiring until notice of a change. A single act of negligence or incompetence is not enough to fix the employer's liability for continuing to employ the servant guilty of the same, though notice thereof may be presumed to put him on his guard. It has been held in some cases, however, that the quality of a single act was so notoriously objectionable that it indicated a degree of incompetence sufficient to charge the master with liability for the employment of the person committing it.^(b) Evidence of the commission of several acts of negligence is, in most jurisdictions, held to be competent to prove the unfitness of a servant. In Pennsylvania^(c) and Massachusetts,^(d) however, general reputation is made the test, and the submission of individual acts is objected to as tending to raise collateral inquiries, and thus indefinitely to protract the case; but the rule that proof of frequent specific acts of actual negligent quality of which the employer had, or by the use of due care could have had, knowledge is the one generally approved; and obviously reputation is the general result of the impressions made by individual occurrences.

Corollary to the obligation to employ competent coservants is the requirement that a sufficient number shall be provided for the reasonably safe performance of the employer's work. This duty includes that of seeing, at least in a general way, that the employees engaged are properly distributed to the various parts of the establishment and that due provision for physical fitness is made by allowing opportunity for rest and time for meals.

Rules.

Another branch of the employer's duty is that of providing appropriate rules and securing the carrying out of a suitable system for the conduct of his work. This applies only to businesses sufficiently complex to make such arrangements reasonable, and no such assumption

^a *Galveston Rope & Twine Co. v. Burkett* (1893), 2 Tex. Civ. App. 308, 21 S. W. 958.

^b *Baulee v. New York & H. R. Co.* (1874), 59 N. Y. 356, 17 Am. Rep. 325.

^c *Frazier v. Pennsylvania R. Co.* (1861), 38 Pa. 104, 80 Am. Dec. 467. This case was sharply criticised in *Pittsburg, Ft. W. & C. R. Co. v. Ruby* (1871), 38 Ind. 294, 10 Am. Rep. 111, in which it was said that "the case stands alone, unsustained and unsupported, so far as we have been able to discover, by any elementary work or decision."

^d *Hatt v. Nay* (1887), 144 Mass. 186, 10 N. E. 807.

is made as that rules can be so framed as to guard against every contingency. The duty is held to extend to the making of reasonable rules and their reasonable and practicable enforcement, ordinary care being used to anticipate and guard against such accidents as can be reasonably foreseen. A defective system and inadequate rules will not satisfy the law, but the presumption is in favor of the sufficiency of those provided, and it has been held that only manifestly unreasonable or clearly insufficient rules would leave the employer open to the charge of negligence.^(a) In this, as in other cases, common usage is in general accepted as conclusive. The absence of rules may be condoned if it appears that a customary method of carrying on work is actually sanctioned and approved by the employer and is understood by the employees as being binding upon them. A mere custom of employees, however, apart from the employer's approval or enforcement will not suffice.^(b)

Such rules and practices as are prescribed must be brought to the knowledge of the employee before he is considered to be bound by them, but it may be inferred from circumstances that this has been done. Express contracts with reference to the conditions of employment as affected by specified rules are conclusive as against an employee professing ignorance of such rules;^(c) but a mere agreement, though in writing, to study the rules and keep posted on them is applicable only to such rules as have been duly promulgated or which the employer has definitely undertaken to bring to the employee's knowledge.^(d) Continuance in service for a considerable length of time or the fact that printed copies of rules are furnished with directions that they be read are circumstances that will be construed against the employee in cases of claims based on alleged ignorance of rules.

Enforcement of rules is no less a duty than the promulgation of rules in so far as a reasonably careful supervision will accomplish it. Repeated and notorious violations will charge the employer with a knowledge of the insufficiency of the provisions made and the necessity of new regulations or of additional superintendence. In the absence of steps to secure the enforcement of rules thus violated it has been frequently held that the master has sanctioned their abrogation and that they are no longer binding. Their violation would not then be regarded as negligence, nor could the employer offer such rules as a defense.^(e)

^a Little Rock & M. R. Co. v. Barry (1898), 28 C. C. A. 644, 84 Fed. 944.

^b Abel v. Delaware & H. Canal Co. (1886), 103 N. Y. 581, 9 N. E. 325.

^c Sedgwick v. Illinois C. R. Co. (1887), 73 Iowa 158, 34 N. W. 790.

^d Carroll v. East Tennessee, V. & G. R. Co. (1889), 82 Ga. 452, 10 S. E. 163.

^e St. Louis, A. & T. R. Co. v. Triplett (1801), 54 Ark. 280, 15 S. W. 831; 16 S. W. 286.

Instructions and warnings.

Besides the general rules by which the conduct of business is determined, instructions may be necessary either in case of abnormal conditions or of the employment of inexperienced persons. The principle lying at the foundation of this duty is the same as in the case of providing appliances, viz, liability does not attach on account of the dangers of the situation, but for placing the employée in a situation of the hazards of which he is excusably ignorant. There is no legal necessity for the giving of instructions or warnings, therefore, where the employée's knowledge as to conditions and means of safety is equal to that of the employer, nor where, all the circumstances being considered, adequate knowledge can be attributed to him. On principles already adverted to, repair men, or those whose duty it is to make dangerous places safe, are not entitled to instruction so far as the dangers involved relate only to the appliances or places which engage their attention. A modification of this rule is to be found, however, in the fact that it is not a mere knowledge of conditions, but a comprehension of the dangers attendant thereon that must be shown in order to absolve the master from responsibility.^(a) Misrepresentations on the part of the employée as to age and experience have been held by some courts to relieve the master of the duty to instruct,^(b) while others deny such effect.^(c) Regarding the duty as one of "proper care," it would seem that the employer can not be absolved from the duty of disclosing dangers which are not obvious, by any statements whatever of those whom he may employ, though the circumstance of the employée's representations may be considered.

Inasmuch as persons of tender years are particularly unlikely to understand the risks attendant upon the use of dangerous machinery, the duty of instruction will be held to apply in cases of their employment when it would not be considered if the conditions related to adult employées. Experience and capacity are to be reckoned with in deciding as to the duty of instructing minors as well as adults, but where a person is too young to realize the dangers or to profit by the instructions given the employer is not freed from liability even by the giving of such instructions as would under ordinary conditions be sufficient.^(d)

Not every contingency is to be anticipated in the giving of instructions, but such only as are probable in the conduct of the business

^a *Coombs v. New Bedford Cordage Co.* (1860), 102 Mass. 572, 3 Am. Rep. 506.

^b *Steen v. St. Paul & D. R. Co.* (1887), 37 Minn. 310, 34 N. W. 113.

^c *Louisville & N. R. Co. v. Miller* (1900), 43 C. C. A. 436, 104 Fed. 124.

^d *Hickey v. Taufe* (1887), 105 N. Y. 26, 12 N. E. 286; *Pittsburg, C. & St. L. R. Co. v. Adams* (1880), 105 Ind. 151, 5 N. E. 187.

and while the servant keeps within the scope of his employment. Increased hazards of which the employer has or should have knowledge should be brought to the attention of even experienced workmen who are not in a situation to acquire timely knowledge for themselves. The instructions must be sufficiently definite and explicit to call attention to the specific dangers, and must be timely and adequately imparted to the person for whose benefit they are intended. What will amount to a sufficiency can not be determined by any set rule, but will vary with conditions. It has been held in a number of instances that a mere notice to be on one's guard is not sufficient, but that the particular danger and a probably safe way of avoiding it should be pointed out.^(a) It is obvious, however, that conditions may make the enforcement of this rule unnecessary or even impracticable, for the danger may be discoverable or avoidable by proper circumspection, or it may be of such nature that only the persons actually present can determine at the time how it may best be avoided.

A railroad employee rightfully on the track may expect warning of the approach of a train;^(b) also the crew of a freight train is entitled to warning if likely to meet unusual obstructions in a yard at night.^(c) Under the doctrine of the "last clear chance" this duty to warn is held to be such that, notwithstanding the previous negligence of the injured person, if, at the time the injury occurred, it might have been avoided by the exercise of reasonable care on the part of the defendant, he will be liable for the failure to exercise such care;^(d) while in a recent case in Missouri^(e) it was held that under the theory of the "humanitarian doctrine" of the employer's liability an employee, even if negligent, can recover where it was practicable for persons in charge of a train to avoid inflicting the injury on account of which the action is brought.

RESTRICTIONS OF EMPLOYEES' RIGHT TO RECOVER.

Efforts on the part of the employer to make his workmen insurers of their own safety by the adoption of rules or the requirement of contracts releasing the employer from liability will in general be discountenanced by the courts. Thus it has been held that a rule which required an employee not to attempt to use appliances unless he knew that they were in a proper condition imposed upon the servant one of the duties of the master, i. e., that of seeing that the implements furnished are in a reasonably safe state of repair, and such rule was de-

^a *Fox v. Peninsular White Lead & Color Works* (1891), 84 Mich. 676, 48 N. W. 203.

^b *Illinois C. R. Co. v. Mahan* (1896), 34 S. W. 16. (Ky.)

^c *McGraw v. Texas & P. R. Co.* (1898), 50 La. Ann. 466, 23 So. 461.

^d *Styles v. Receivers of Richmond & Danville R. Co.* (1896), 118 N. C. 1084, 24 S. E. 740.

^e *Johnson v. St. Joseph Terminal Co.* (1907), 101 S. W. 641.

clared void.^(a) A stipulation exempting a railroad company from liability for injuries caused employees by its negligence is void as against public policy.^(b) A contract executed subsequent to the employee's entrance on service, relieving the employer of liability, is void for want of consideration.^(c) In another case a lower court of the same State held a contract of like effect, though based on sufficient consideration, to be void as against public policy.^(d)

It has been held that an employer could not relieve himself by contract of a liability imposed by statute, although the statute itself made no reference to such contracts.^(e) An implied waiver of the benefits of a statute which requires frogs, etc., on railroads to be blocked or machinery to be guarded by continuance in service with knowledge that the law was not complied with, has been held not to be valid as a defense in an action for injuries resulting from the company's failure to so comply.^(f) There is, however, a strong list of cases on the other side.^(g) In Georgia^(h) and Pennsylvania⁽ⁱ⁾ express contracts limiting or denying the employee's right of action have been upheld. In the former State, a later statute declares such contracts void so far as they affect any liability fixed by law. Similar or more general statutes exist in a number of States.

Where the feature of relief benefits exists a new factor is introduced, and the rulings are quite uniform in favor of the contract. The terms of the contract are, in general, that the acceptance of benefits by the injured employee shall operate as a waiver of his right of action at law against the employer, and that if action is brought and is compromised or carried to judgment no claim shall lie against the fund. Such funds are usually maintained jointly by employers and employees, though the expense is not necessarily equally shared.

^a *Missouri, K. & T. R. Co. v. Wood* (1896), 35 S. W. 879. (Tex.)

^b *Lake Shore & M. S. Ry. Co. v. Spangler* (1886), 44 Ohio St. 471, 8 N. E. 467; *Little Rock & Ft. S. Ry. Co. v. Eubanks* (1887), 48 Ark. 469, 3 S. W. 898; *Richmond & D. Ry. Co. v. Jones* (1891), 92 Ala. 218, 9 So. 276; *Stone's Adm. v. Union P. R. Co.* (1907), 89 Pac. 715 (Utah); *Johnson v. Charleston & S. R. Co.* (1899), 55 S. C. 152, 32 S. E. 2; *Roesner v. Hermann* (1881), 8 Fed. 782.

^c *Purdy v. Rome, etc., Ry. Co.* (1891), 125 N. Y. 209, 26 N. E. 255.

^d *Runt v. Herring* (1892), 49 N. Y. 83, 126, 21 N. Y. Supp. 214.

^e *Kansas P. R. Co. v. Penvey* (1883), 29 Kans. 469, 11 Am. Rep. 639; *Torbell v. Rutland R. Co.* (1901), 73 Vt. 347, 51 Atl. 6.

^f *Narramore v. Cleveland, C. C. & St. L. Ry. Co.* (1896), 96 Fed. 298; *Davis Found Co. v. Pollard* (1902), 158 Ind. 607, 62 N. E. 492; *Western Turn. & Mfg. Co. v. Bloom* (1907), 99 Pac. 821. (Kans.)

^g *Denver & R. G. R. Co. v. Gannan* (1907), 90 Pac. 853 (Colo.); *St. Louis Cordage Co. v. Miller* (1903), 126 Fed. 495; *O'Maley v. South Boston Gas Light Co.* (1893), 158 Mass. 135, 32 N. E. 1119.

^h *Western & A. R. Co. v. Bishop* (1873), 50 Ga. 465.

ⁱ *Mitchell v. Pa. R.* (1853), 1. Am. Law Reg. 717.

The Pennsylvania supreme court^(a) held that an agreement to accept benefits, the acceptance to operate as a waiver of the right of action, was not contrary to public policy, inasmuch as it was not the signing of the contract prior to the injury (which would not in itself be effective) but the acceptance of benefits subsequent thereto that barred the action. Such a contract merely requires the employee to make his election whether to apply to the relief department or to sue.^(b) But if there is lack of mutuality, or the defendant company fails to show that it assumes a fair portion of the burden of paying the benefits, even the acceptance of such benefits will not bar a suit for damages.^(c) Nor will a partial payment of the agreed benefits avail as a bar to the action, though a full compliance with the terms of the contract would so operate.^(d)

A contract that purports to bind the members of the relief department by the decision of an "advisory committee," making such decision final and conclusive, is void, as it undertakes to defeat the constitutional right of appeal to the courts for the redress of wrong.^(e)

The agreement that claims on the benefit fund are forfeited by suit in which judgment is procured or a compromise is made was held valid in an Iowa case.^(f) But the supreme court of New Jersey ruled that "the judgment intended is one by which the claimant recovers some compensation for the loss alleged," and granted a new trial in a suit for the benefit where damages at law had not been secured.^(g)

A further variation in conditions is found in the case of persons not employees of the company causing the injury by its negligence or that of its employees, but who are being carried as a part of the contract of their employment. Such cases arise in the employment of express messengers, who, while not employees of the railroad company, are also not in the status of passengers. A contract between the express company and the railroad company over whose lines the former wishes to do business may contain a clause by which the express company agrees to hold the railroad company harmless from all liability for injuries to the employees of the former company while being transported, whether such injuries are caused by the negligence of the employees of the railroad company or not. Then by contract with its employees the express company may procure an agreement, as a condition of employment, that the applicant will assume all risks and make no claims for injuries however occasioned. A case involving such conditions was before the Supreme Court of the

^a *Johnson v. Philadelphia R. Co.* (1894), 163 Pa. St. 134, 29 Atl. 854.

^b *Owens v. Baltimore & O. R. Co.* (1888), 35 Fed. 715; *Leas v. Pennsylvania Co.* (1894), 10 Ind. App. 47, 37 N. E. 423.

^c *Chicago, B. & Q. R. Co. v. Miller* (1896), 76 Fed. 439 (C. C. A.).

^d *Pennsylvania Co. v. Chapman* (1905), 220 Ill. 428, 77 N. E. 248.

^e *Baltimore, etc., R. Co. v. Stankard* (1897), 56 Ohio St. 224, 46 N. E. 577.

^f *Donald v. Chicago, B. & Q. R. Co.* (1895), 93 Iowa 284, 61 N. W. 971.

^g *O'Reilly v. Pennsylvania R. Co.* (1903), 69 N. J. L. 110, 54 Atl. 233.

United States,^(a) where it was held that the position of an express messenger more nearly resembles that of an employee of the transporting railroad company than that of a passenger, and that his contract was a valid release of his employer and the railroad company from liability for injuries. Where the messenger is not aware of the contract between the companies he is not a party thereto and is not bound by its terms.^(b)

DUTIES NONDELEGABLE.

Considering the employer's duties as matter of personal obligation, it would be apparent that directions to a servant, or the employment of persons to perform these functions in the employer's stead, will not in itself relieve him of the responsibility; but if there be a defective discharge of such duty by the person employed for its performance, the employer is still liable and will not be allowed to screen himself behind his agent. In determining the question of the employer's liability, the relations of fellow-servants are involved, or rather the doctrine of vice-principals, and the decision will be found to turn largely on the point of whether the negligent employee was, with reference to the act occasioning the injury, a coemployee or whether he was the representative of the employer in that particular act.

The courts have, in general, held quite consistently to the view of the nondelegable quality of the duties enumerated above, their ruling being that as to them the employer can relieve himself only by performance. In some cases, however, it has been held that the appointment of an employee to the duty was a sufficient discharge of the obligation. Thus in a number of Massachusetts cases the rule seemed to be that the master is liable only in case of failure to supervise such servants as he has appointed to discharge what are in other jurisdictions classed as nondelegable duties.^(c) In a Pennsylvania case, also,^(d) it was held that the employment of competent inspectors and affording them reasonable opportunities for work was a sufficient discharge of the duty to inspect, unless reasonable diligence would have disclosed the defective manner in which the work was being done. In a recent case, however, it was held by the supreme court of Massachusetts^(e) that a showing that an employer had engaged competent engi-

^a *Baltimore & O. S. W. R. Co. v. Voigt* (1900), 176 U. S. 498, 20 Sup. Ct. 38.

^b *Brewer v. New York, etc., R. Co.* (1891), 124 N. Y. 59, 26 N. E. 324; *Chamberlain v. Pierson* (1898), 87 Fed. 420, 31 C. C. A. 157.

^c *Rogers v. Ludlow Mfg. Co.* (1887), 144 Mass. 198, 11 N. E. 77; *Lawless v. Connecticut River R. Co.* (1883), 136 Mass. 1.

^d *Railroad v. Hughes* (1888), 119 Pa. 301, 13 Atl. 286.

^e *Erickson v. American Steel and Wire Co.* (1906), 193 Mass. 119, 78 N. E. 761, citing *Moynihan v. Hills Co.* (1888), 146 Mass. 586, 16 N. E. 574; *Hooe v. Boston and Northern St. Ry. Co.* (1904), 187 Mass. 67, 72 N. E. 341.

neers to design, install, and inspect appliances did not relieve him from his original responsibility of using due care to provide safe appliances.

From the first and more generally accepted principle it follows that the employer's ignorance of the incompetency of his vice-principal is not a defense; nor is it sufficient that a competent superintendent actually gave the proper orders. Reasonable care must also be exercised to follow up the orders and enforce conformity thereto. It is hardly necessary to add that the failure to appoint any superintendent is no less negligence than the appointment of one who is incompetent.

Supplies.

An exception to the rule that the master is liable for injuries arising from furnishing unsafe appliances was noted above (p. 6), the exception being in the case of purchases obtained from reputable dealers or manufacturers.^(a) It would be carrying this principle of purchase but a step further for the employer to make provision for the supply of all instrumentalities by procuring them from independent contractors, and so evading responsibility for their imperfections; but only a few courts have sanctioned the doctrine of the nonliability of the employer to this extent.

In a Federal circuit court of appeals^(b) and in California,^(c) Georgia,^(d) Illinois,^(e) Missouri,^(f) New Hampshire,^(g) Rhode Island,^(h) and Texas,⁽ⁱ⁾ the employer's liability has been maintained in cases of injury arising from the neglect of independent contractors in the furnishing of appliances or the maintenance of a safe place, while in New York,^(j) Virginia,^(k) and New Jersey^(l) the opposite position has been taken. In Pennsylvania, in a somewhat recent case,^(m) the employer was held liable for the contractor's negligence, while an earlier decision⁽ⁿ⁾ released an employer who had contracted for appliances which proved inadequate.

^a Fuller v. New York, etc., R. Co. (1900), 175 Mass. 424, 56 N. E. 574.

^b Toledo Brewing and Malting Co. v. Bosch (1900), 41 C. C. A. 482, 101 Fed. 530.

^c Shea v. Pacific Power Co. (1905), 145 Cal. 680, 79 Pac. 373.

^d Central R. & Bkg. Co. v. Passmore (1892), 90 Ga. 203, 15 S. E. 760.

^e Pullman Palace Car Co. v. Laack (1892), 143 Ill. 242, 32 N. E. 235.

^f Herdler v. Buck Stove & Range Co. (1896), 130 Mo. 3, 37 S. W. 115.

^g Story v. Concord & M. R. Co. (1900), 70 N. H. 364, 48 Atl. 288.

^h Moran v. Corliss Steam Engine Co. (1899), 21 R. I. 386, 43 Atl. 874.

ⁱ Gulf, C. & S. F. R. Co. v. Delaney (1900), 22 Tex. Civ. App. 427, 55 S. W. 538.

^j Devlin v. Smith (1881), 25 Hun. 206, affirmed (1882), 89 N. Y. 470.

^k Norfolk & W. R. Co. v. Stevens (1899), 97 Va. 631, 34 S. E. 525.

^l Conway v. Furst (1895), 57 N. J. L. 645, 32 Atl. 380.

^m Philadelphia & R. R. Co. v. Trainor (1890), 137 Pa. 148, 20 Atl. 632.

ⁿ Ardesco Oil Co. v. Gilson (1870), 63 Pa. 146. Note also the attitude of the Massachusetts courts indicated by the cases cited in notes c and e on the preceding page.

Inspection and maintenance.

The duty of the maintenance of appliances and of inspecting their condition has been mentioned, an exception being made in the case of simple tools and appliances the condition of which was easily apparent to the user. In general the duty of inspection and maintenance is held to be nondelegable.^(a) The States in which the contrary view has been held are Alabama,^(b) Louisiana,^(c) Maryland,^(d) Massachusetts,^(e) Mississippi,^(f) New Jersey,^(g) Ohio,^(h) and Pennsylvania.⁽ⁱ⁾ In New York the position of the higher courts has not been altogether consistent,^(j) but seems generally to charge the employer with these duties.

A distinction that is sometimes made charges the employer with liability if the work of repair is done by a person specially delegated therefor and not engaged in using the apparatus. (See p. 50 below.) Another test that is sometimes used is found in the nature of the repairs themselves. If the repairs are to be of a permanent character, the duty of making them may be regarded as nondelegable; but if they are to be of a temporary character they may be intrusted to coemployees. The application of this rule depends on the facts and circumstances of each case, and can not here be gone into in detail.

Rules.

The duty to frame and promulgate rules and regulations is absolute, according to the courts of this country, the only exception noted being in the State of West Virginia,^(k) where it was held that the choice of competent servants to receive and transmit necessary orders relieved the master, and that it was not required of him personally to see that notice actually came to the knowledge of all affected thereby. In

^a *Hough v. Texas & P. R. Co.* (1870), 100 U. S. 213, 25 L. Ed. 612, quoting *Ford v. Fitchburg R. Co.* (1872), 110 Mass. 240, 14 Am. Rep. 598.

^b *Woodward Iron Co. v. Cook* (1900), 124 Ala. 349, 27 So. 455.

^c *Hugh v. New Orleans & C. R. Co.* (1851), 6 La. Ann. 495, 54 Am. Dec. 565.

^d *Shauck v. Northern C. R. Co.* (1866), 25 Md. 462.

^e *Kling v. Boston & W. R. Corp.* (1851), 9 Cush. 112; but see *Moynihan v. Hills Co.* (1888), 116 Mass. 586, 16 N. E. 574, and *Ford v. Fitchburg R. Co.*, note *a*.

^f *New Orleans, J. & G. N. R. Co. v. Hughes* (1873), 49 Miss. 258.

^g *Harrison v. Central R. Co.* (1865), 31 N. J. L. 293; modified in *Nord Deutscher Lloyd S. S. Co. v. Ingebregsten* (1895), 57 N. J. L. 402, 31 Atl. 619.

^h *Little Miami R. Co. v. Fitzpatrick* (1884), 42 Ohio St. 318.

ⁱ *Bemisch v. Roberts* (1891), 143 Pa. 1, 21 Atl. 998.

^j Cf. *Malone v. Hathaway* (1876), 64 N. Y. 5, 21 Am. Rep. 573, and *Lanng v. New York C. R. Co.* (1872), 49 N. Y. 521, 10 Am. Rep. 417.

^k *Oliver v. Ohio River R. Co.* (1896), 42 W. Va. 703, 26 S. E. 444.

Maryland^(a) and Mississippi^(b) it has been held that train dispatchers in giving orders were but fellow-servants with the train men, for whose negligence the employer was not responsible; but the general view corresponds with the rule given above.

Statutory duties.

As to duties prescribed by statute, it appears to be the rule that, apart from an express legislative declaration, they will be classed as delegable or nondelegable according to the common-law classification of such duties.

THE DEFENSES OF EMPLOYERS.

For a breach of duty to an employee resulting in injury an action will lie for the recovery of damages. Employers are not insurers, however, and are liable for the consequences, not of danger, but of negligence. Some duties are by statute made obligatory upon the employer to such an extent as practically to fix his liability in case of injuries entailed by their omission. Apart from such enactments, however, the employer may, in case of an action for damages, offer a defense based on the principle expressed in the maxim, "Volenti non fit injuria;" or he may undertake to prove the plaintiff's assumption of the risk, or his contributory negligence: or he may rely on the doctrine of common employment to relieve him from liability.

The principle of the maxim, "Volenti non fit injuria," is of general application, the meaning of the phrase as freely rendered being "That to which a person assents is not esteemed in law an injury." A clearer statement is that by an English judge, "One who has invited or assented to an act being done toward him can not, when he suffers from it, complain of it as a wrong." In a Massachusetts case the doctrine was thus expressed: "One who knows of a danger from the negligence of another, and understands and appreciates the risk therefrom and voluntarily exposes himself to it, is precluded from recovering for an injury which results from the exposure." In brief, the injured person has assumed the risk; and, apart from the contractual relation of employer and employee, there is a considerable class of cases in which this defense to an action for damages may be interposed. The invitation or assent is not necessarily or even commonly formal, but is inferable from conduct and conditions, often subsequent to the entrance upon the situation that gives rise to the circumstances to which the doctrine is applied.

^a *Wonder v. Baltimore & O. R. Co.* (1870), 32 Md. 411, 3 Am. Rep. 143.

^b *Millsaps v. Louisville, N. O. & T. R. Co.* (1891), 60 Miss. 423, 13 So. 696.

English courts have more definitely fixed the application of the principle than is the case in this country, where it has been fully discussed in comparatively few jurisdictions, but neither in England nor in America are the authorities agreed on its application to concrete cases nor on its relation to the doctrines of contractual assumption of risk and of contributory negligence. Many authorities hold that the rule of the maxim covers the ground of the usual defense of assumed risks under the employee's contract, besides its own field of noncontractual relations, while others regard the two defenses as distinct. The question of its relations to the doctrine of contributory negligence is briefly discussed below. It may be said here, however, that the distinction is not always maintained, and it is held by some courts that the person described as *volens* may be better described as negligent, or, rather, that the person making the voluntary choice may be none the less guilty of contributory negligence. In so far as the liability of employers is concerned it appears that the more general application of the rule in this country follows the same lines as are observed in connection with the doctrines of assumed risks under the contract of employment, and until the subject is more definitely adjudicated its separate consideration in an undertaking of this scope does not seem advisable.

ASSUMPTION OF RISKS.

When a contract of employment is entered upon, the law imports into the agreement an assumption by the employee of the ordinary risks incident to the employment, and of such other risks as may be known to and appreciated by him. This is said to be a term of the contract, express or implied from the circumstances of the employment.^(a) One seeking employment impliedly represents that he is capable therefor, and that he comprehends the ordinary risks.^(b) Another view of the defense is that it does not arise from the contract of employment, but from the status of the employer and employee as fixed by common law, and is over and above the contract, being imposed by law upon the parties thereto, regardless of their desires.^(c)

Knowledge.

The question of the employee's knowledge is in general controlling, but the knowledge may be either actual or imputed. A workman of mature years and ordinary intelligence, offering himself for employment, is presumed to know and appreciate the conditions and to

^a *Narramore v. Cleveland, C., C. & St. L. R. Co.* (1899), 96 Fed. 298, 37 C. C. A. 490.

^b *Wagner v. Chemical Co.* (1892), 147 Pa. 475, 23 Atl. 772.

^c *Denver & R. G. R. Co. v. Norgate* (1905), 141 Fed. 247; *Martin v. Chicago, R. I. & P. R. Co.* (1902), 118 Iowa 148, 91 N. W. 1034.

assume the risks ordinarily incident to the service and to have notice of all risks which, to one of his experience and capacity, are, or ought to be, open and obvious. He does not assume risks arising from conditions of which he was actually and excusably ignorant; nor is he required to use more than ordinary care to discover existing conditions.^(a)

There is, however, one class of cases in which the question of knowledge is not raised, and that is where the conditions complained of are the result of the employee's own choice or selection of a course of action. In such cases the risk is assumed irrespective of any implied term in his contract of service, the employee being held to be responsible for the proximate results of his own conduct.^(b)

Ordinary risks.

The determination of what are ordinary risks evidently becomes important in view of the fact that with regard to them the employer is relieved of all responsibility, even if the employee did use ordinary care, unless by reason of inexperience or minority he was not chargeable with having assumed such risks.^(c)

The courts have sometimes defined ordinary risks as those that pertain to the employment after the employer has discharged his duty as to safe place, appliances, etc., and which ordinary care on his part can not guard against. Under another conception the word "ordinary" is held to be construed in its usual sense. This may be taken to mean either that the risk is so obviously a normal incident of the employment that an intelligent observer would recognize it as such, and the dangers arising therefrom as constantly possible; or it may imply that the employment unavoidably and of necessity involves the risks, which is much the same as holding that the master's care can not obviate them.

These risks are such as arise from the negligence of fellow-servants, unless the employer was negligent in employing incompetent workmen; or from the nature of the instrumentalities used; or from the conditions, whether permanent or temporary, of the conduct and nature of the business. The master can not undertake, for instance, to make railroad labor or the manufacture of explosives as safe as many other employments, and the hazards of such industries are held to be assumed according to the standard for the industries themselves. In like manner works of construction and repair, in regard to which the master's liability was found to be modified, cast upon the em-

^a *Allen v. Boston & M. R. Co.* (1898), 69 N. H. 271, 39 Atl. 978; *Comben v. Belleville Stone Co.* (1897), 50 N. J. L. 226, 36 Atl. 473.

^b *Mellor v. Merchants' Mfg. Co.* (1890), 150 Mass. 362, 23 N. E. 100.

^c *Jones v. Mfg. & Invest. Co.* (1899), 92 Me. 565, 43 Atl. 512; *Goodes v. Boston & A. R. Co.* (1894), 162 Mass. 288, 38 N. E. 500.

ployee a correspondingly larger degree of risk, which, by this principle, he is held to assume. This rule applies only to employees actually engaged upon the work, and the risks assumed are those that arise only from the work in hand and not from defects in portions of the work already completed.^(a)

Extraordinary risks.

Risks which may be obviated by the exercise of reasonable care on the part of the employer are classed as extraordinary, and these the employee is held not to have assumed without a knowledge and comprehension of the dangers arising from the employer's negligence. If the dangers are patent or are brought to the knowledge of an employee, his entering upon or remaining in service is presumed to have waived his claim against the employer for resulting damages.^(b) In the first case he will be held to have made his contract in the light of existing conditions; and as to risks arising during employment it has been said that if a servant continues to use an appliance which he knows to be dangerous he does so at his own risk and not at that of his employer.^(c) It must appear, however, that the risk was actually appreciated. While a failure to notify the employer of discovered or known risks is construed as indicating the employee's willingness to continue to work while they exist, the risk is not thrown upon the employer by a mere notification not replied to by his promise to repair.^(d) If the alternative of continuing to work with the defective appliance or of leaving the employment is offered, and the employee continues to work, he will be held to have assumed the risk.^(e) A promise to repair can be relied upon only for a reasonable time, after which the risk will be upon the employee.

Forgetfulness caused by pressure of duties.

Temporary inadvertence or forgetfulness of dangerous conditions, even if occasioned by the urgency of the situation, is generally held not to relieve the employee from the burden of the assumed risk, though as to this element the courts are not agreed. In a number of New York cases allowance has been made for the forgetfulness of an employee whose attention was diverted from imminent danger by the pressure of his duties,^(f) while the United States circuit court of

^a *Evansville & R. R. Co. v. Maddux* (1893), 134 Ind. 571, 33 N. E. 315.

^b *Tuttle v. Detroit, G. H. & M. Ry.* (1887), 122 U. S. 189, 7 Sup. Ct. 1166.

^c *Washington & G. R. Co. v. McDade* (1890), 135 U. S. 554, 10 Sup. Ct. 1044.

^d *East Tennessee, V. & G. R. Co. v. Duffield* (1883), 12 Lea 63, 47 Am. Rep. 319.

^e *Leary v. Boston & A. R. Co.* (1885), 139 Mass. 580, 2 N. E. 115.

^f *Wallace v. Central Vermont R. Co.* (1893), 138 N. Y. 302, 33 N. E. 1069;

Fitzgerald v. New York C. & H. R. R. Co. (1899), 37 App. Div. 127, 55 N. Y. Supp. 1124, etc.

appeals^(a) and the supreme courts of Iowa^(b) and Rhode Island^(c) have given the idea recognition, though in no jurisdiction can the practice be said to be uniform. The prevalent rule seems to be that the employee is not allowed to deny his assumption of the risk on account of the rapidity of thought or action necessary to meet the exigencies of any occasion, if it is established that he had acquired before the accident a full comprehension of existing risks.

CONTRIBUTORY NEGLIGENCE.

When a risk involves such a degree of danger that a prudent man would not assume it, the defense to an action by an injured employee is not that the plaintiff by his contract assumed the risk, but that he was, by his conduct, guilty of contributory negligence. The line is not clearly drawn between the two defenses, nor is it always easy to do so, inasmuch as the facts in a given case may support either defense. The principles are distinct, however, as assumption of risk is an implied or actual agreement, entered into before the happening of the accident, to waive compensation from the employer for injuries resulting therefrom; or, it is an incident of the contract, read into it by the fixed rules of law. If, however, there has been contributory negligence, there is no reference to either contract or status to determine rights, but only to the conduct of the employee. If under all the attendant circumstances he fell short of reasonable and ordinary care, the defense of contributory negligence will lie against him.

The rule is announced by Cooley as follows: "If the plaintiff or party injured, by the exercise of ordinary care under the circumstances, might have avoided the consequences of the defendant's negligence, but did not, the case is one of mutual fault, and the law will neither cast all the consequences upon the defendant, nor will it attempt any apportionment thereof."^(d) The contributing negligence must be that of the party injured, that of a fellow-servant cooperating with the negligence of the master being no defense to the latter for injuries resulting from the combined negligence.

Comparative negligence.

In Illinois for a number of years a doctrine of comparative negligence prevailed, according to which the courts attempted to apportion the fault, and, if the preponderance of negligence seemed to be chargeable to the employer, to award damages in a corresponding

^a *West v. Southern P. Co.* (1898), 29 C. C. A. 219, 85 Fed. 392.

^b *Strong v. Iowa C. R. Co.* 1895, 94 Iowa 380, 62 N. W. 799.

^c *Disano v. New England Steam Brick Co.* (1898), 29 R. I. 452, 40 Atl. 7.

^d *Torta*, p. 674.

amount. The rule seems to have been first applied in an employer's liability case in Chicago and Northwestern Railway Company *v.* Sweeney (1869) (52 Ill. 325). This rule was continuously followed at least until 1886, (^a) but is at present denied in that State, (^b) and a negligent employee is now barred from recovery unless it appears that his employer was guilty of willful negligence in connection with the occasion of the injury. (^c)

Kansas has been classed by some writers as one of the jurisdictions in which this doctrine is favored, the supreme court of that State having held that where the negligence of the defendant is great and that of the plaintiff but slight, the latter may recover. (^d) This court has, however, repeatedly denied that it countenances the doctrine of comparative negligence, and it may be fairly doubted if more could be said than that the rule there followed is simply the common-law doctrine of contributory negligence somewhat peculiarly stated. The same may be said of Tennessee, where, if the negligence of the defendant was the efficient cause of the injury, the fact that the injured party was somewhat in default will not bar his recovery if it does not amount to a lack of ordinary care, even though he might have escaped by the use of extraordinary care. (^e) The negligence of the plaintiff will be taken into consideration, however, in mitigation of the damages to be awarded, and where the fault is equal, no damages will be allowed. The defendant, to be clear of negligence, must show compliance with all requirements of the law. (^f)

It may here be noted that the doctrine of comparative negligence was incorporated into the Federal employers' liability law of 1906, recently declared unconstitutional, though not on this ground, and is found in a number of other recent statutes; but in general the rule is as stated in the quotation from Cooley above.

Cause of injury.

The negligence of an employee will not be a bar to his action unless it is the actual and proximate cause of his injury. Conduct merely furnishing the occasion or condition of the injury does not amount to negligence. (^g) Even if the employee was guilty of negligence which may have contributed to the accident, yet if the employer by the exercise of ordinary care and diligence could have avoided its occurrence, the antecedent negligence of the employee has been held not to destroy his right of action. Still less will the negligence of the

^a Chicago & A. R. Co. *v.* Johnson, 116 Ill. 206, 4 N. E. 381.

^b City of Macon *v.* Holcomb (1903), 205 Ill. 643, 69 N. E. 79.

^c Chicago & A. R. Co. *v.* Myers (1901), 95 Ill. App. 578.

^d Wichita & W. R. Co. *v.* Davis (1887), 37 Kans. 743, 16 Pac. 78.

^e Nashville & C. R. Co. *v.* Carroll (1871), 6 Heisk. 347.

^f Louisville & N. R. Co. *v.* Burke (1868), 6 Coldw. 45.

^g *Smithwick v. Hall & U. Co.* (1890), 59 Conn. 261, 21 Atl. 92A.

servant operate as a defense where it is followed by willful or wanton negligence on the part of the master. Where injuries result in death, the right of the personal representative to sue, which does not exist under the common law, but is now given by statute in most States, is subject to the same limitations as would have been the right of the injured person if he had survived.

What negligence bars recovery.

What does and what does not constitute such negligence as to be a bar to an employee's claim for damages have not been consistently ruled upon by the courts. The test varies according to circumstances, the rule being that the servant must conduct himself as a prudent person would in a like position.

A servant engaging in work for which he is not qualified by previous experience, and incurring injury, is held to have been negligent. In some jurisdictions the master has not been made responsible even though he knew when he hired the employee that his inexperience made the labor abnormally hazardous, but such views are not generally accepted.

So also if the precautions appropriate to dangerous situations are omitted, or if an unnecessarily dangerous method of doing work is chosen where the employee has the power of choice, or if he assumes or remains in a position of unnecessary danger, he will be held to be guilty of contributing to his own injury. Inattention to surroundings, and going in the line of duty into a place of unusual danger without notifying those from whose reasonably anticipated acts harm might befall him, have the same effect. The fact that the presence of an employee in the place where the injury was received was not required for the performance of his duties will prevent recovery. Using an appliance for a purpose other than that for which it was intended, if suggestive of danger to a person of reasonable intelligence in the situation of the workman, will usually be a bar to successful action. The use of defective or otherwise unsuitable instrumentalities may be negligent, though if a showing of due care in the circumstances is made, and the danger was not great and obvious, an action for damages may be maintained.

Violation of orders or of specific valid rules of which the employee has notice, and the neglect of warnings with reference to any of the acts named above will usually be held to imply negligence as a matter of law.^(a) In Texas^(b) and New York,^(c) however, the violation

^a *Coops v. Lake Shore & M. S. R. Co.* (1887), 66 Mich. 488, 33 N. W. 541; *Louisville & N. R. Co. v. Woods* (1895), 105 Ala. 561, 17 So. 41.

^b *Ft. Worth & D. C. R. Co. v. Thompson* (1893), 2 Tex. Civ. App. 170, 21 S. W. 137.

^c *Gross v. Pennsylvania, P. & B. R. Co.* (1891), 42 N. Y. S. R. 808, 16 N. Y. Supp. 616.

NECESSITY, ETC.—Apparent necessity may justify an otherwise negligent action, unless obviously rash.^(a) A master whose rules or customary practice prescribe a certain mode of performing work is in some degree estopped from bringing in the defense of contributory negligence where an employee has been injured while conforming to such rule or custom, though to what extent has not been accurately determined. If the injured employee incurred his injury on account of conditions leading thereto which were outside of his power to control, this fact will tend to negative the charge of negligence; so also of his reliance on the presumption that tools and appliances are in good condition and that the work in each department will be prudently done. Minority is also frequently a defense to the charge of negligence, either absolute or partial, varying with the age and the mental and physical capacity of the individual. In connection with each of the above qualifications the remark made in a previous statement should be kept in mind, that where the emergency or other dangerous condition is the result of prior negligence of the injured employee, these mitigating or rebutting elements are of no avail against a charge of contributory negligence.

Local rules.

In a few States local doctrines have modified to a greater or less degree the customary rule as to contributory negligence and assumption of risks. Thus in Alabama,^(b) the fact of an employee's contributory negligence has been held not to be a bar to recovery where the injury was caused by the wanton or reckless conduct of a fellow-servant or other employee for whose conduct the employer was responsible. Georgia^(c) makes contributory negligence a ground for a reduction of the amount of damages to which the plaintiff would be otherwise entitled rather than a bar to complete recovery. To what extent this is the result of legislation will receive consideration below. The rule followed in Illinois has already been mentioned (pp. 23, 24). The language of the courts of this State in a number of cases is such that it can not be determined to what extent the doctrine of the assumption of risks is recognized, or rather, perhaps, what distinction is made between assumption of risks and contributory negligence. In Missouri the defense of assumption of risks has been in large measure disallowed. In a very recent case^(d) the State doctrine on this subject was designated by a court of that State as unique, in that "the servant assumes only such risks as are ordinarily inci-

^a Missouri Furnace Co. v. Abend (1883), 107 Ill. 44, 47 Am. Rep. 425.

^b Louisville & N. R. Co. v. York (1901), 128 Ala. 305, 30 So. 676.

^c Pierce v. Atlanta Cotton Mills (1887), 70 Ga. 782, 4 S. E. 381.

^d Obermeyer v. Chair Co. (1906), 120 Mo. App. 50, 96 S. W. 673.

dent to his employment, after the master has performed his whole duty to provide him a reasonably safe place to work and reasonably safe appliances with which to do this work;" while if the master is negligent in these respects and the servant knows, or by the exercise of ordinary care could have known, of the unsafe place or appliances, and yet continues in the service, he does not thereby assume the risk occasioned by the negligence of the master. Contributory negligence can be charged, however, if the danger was so great and obvious that a prudent man would not work under the circumstances, or if the work could not be done with reasonable safety by the use of caution.^(a)

The rule in Tennessee appears to be similar to that followed in Georgia, that if the employer's negligence occasioned injury to an employee who was himself negligent in the premises, the employee's negligence goes in mitigation of the damages, but does not excuse the employer.^(b) The wording and interpretation of statutes give rise to other differences, which will be considered under the head of statutory liability.

THE "FELLOW-SERVANT" RULE.

The remaining defense to an employee's action for damages is what is known as the "fellow-servant" rule, or the doctrine of common employment. According to this, where the employer has discharged his duties as to a safe place, safe and suitable appliances, competent fellow-servants, etc., he is not liable to an employee for the acts or negligence of any mere fellow-servant or coemployee, provided such coemployee does not represent the employer. Or, as it has been otherwise stated, "A master is not bound to indemnify one servant for injuries caused by the negligence of another servant in the same common employment as himself, unless the negligent servant was the master's representative." If, however, the negligence of a co-servant concurs with the negligence of an employer in causing the injury, the injured employee not contributing thereto, the employer will be liable in damages.

The well-known diversity, not to say confusion and contradictoriness of the rulings of the courts as to the application of this rule arises from the lack of precise and generally accepted definitions of the idea of common employment and of representation of the master. The relations of this doctrine to the other elements which determine employer's liability are such that practically all that has been

^a See also *Hamilton v. Rich Hill Coal Min. Co.* (1892), 108 Mo. 364, 18 S. W. 977.

^b *Nashville & C. R. Co. v. Carroll* (1871), 6 Heisk. 347.

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^c *Pierce v. Atlanta Cotton Mills* (1887), 79 Ga. 782, 4 S. E. 381.

^d *Obermeyer v. Chair Co.* (1906), 120 Mo. App. 59, 96 S. W. 673.

policy, as tending to make the employees more watchful over their own conduct and that of their fellows, thus benefiting employers, employees, and the public alike by the greater care with which they perform their duties.^(a) In close connection herewith is the claim that any marked enlargement of liability to capital would lead to the withdrawal of capital from industrial enterprise, thus reducing the opportunities of employment and inflicting damage upon the whole community.^(b)

Each of these reasons has been the subject of adverse criticism, and no one of them seems to give a satisfactory ground for excepting employees from the benefits of the doctrine of respondeat superior, or for compelling the employee to bear the burden of "pure accidents" which occur in the prosecution of undertakings the advantages of which are to be reaped by the employer. The last two reasons mentioned above have perhaps been most frequently relied on as supporting the customary rule, though no such results as are therein indicated have followed the adoption of statutes greatly enlarging the rights of employees to recover for injuries following upon industrial accidents.

The chief points requiring determination in any action involving the principles under consideration are those of common employment and of representative capacity. If it appears that the injuries complained of are the result of the negligence of a coemployee, the only hope of the plaintiff lies in showing that the negligent person was a vice-principal, representing the master at the time, and so devolving upon him a liability for the acts or omissions charged.

Common employment.

The first question, then, to be considered is what constitutes common employment. It was said in a leading case that, "prima facie, all who enter into the employ of a single master are engaged in a common service, and are fellow-servants,"^(c) but this broad statement will not answer as a conclusive test. Not only employment by a common master, but also engagement in the performance of duties that may reasonably be said to tend to the accomplishment of the same end is necessary to meet general acceptance by the courts; nor is it a sufficient answer to say that all serve the profit or convenience of a common employer. Where another servant than the plaintiff, employed for a purpose entirely different from his duties, has negligently caused the injury complained of, it may well be said that they are not fellow-servants. But even with this qualification the statement is not def-

^a Chicago, M. & St. P. R. Co. v. Ross, *supra*.

^b New Pittsburg Coal & C. Co. v. Peterson (1893), 136 Ind. 398, 35 N. E. 7.

^c Baltimore & O. R. v. Baugh, *supra*.

inite enough to be of much use in determining particular cases, and the expressions used by judges in passing on the question of common employment throw little light on the subject. "Engaged in the same general business," "the same general undertaking," or "in promoting one common object" are frequent modes of expression, though in other cases the somewhat more restricted phrases, "services having an immediate common object," or "working in the same place to subserve the same interests," are used. The question involves both law and facts, but where the latter are undisputed, the decision becomes simply a matter of law, and the trial jury will not pass upon it.

CONTEMPLATED RISKS.—A theory that has been adopted in many cases is that the service is common if the negligence of the delinquent servant was, in a fair and reasonable sense, one of the risks contemplated by the injured employee in undertaking or continuing in his employment.^(a) This is a reference of the case to the doctrine of assumed risks previously discussed, and involves the principles of knowledge, actual or presumptive. By this theory the relation of the duties of the injured and the negligent employees becomes the criterion, together with the question of the probability of the negligence of the one affecting the safety of the other. An injured employee's action will not be barred as matter of law by the single fact of service of a common master where the probabilities of injurious consequences from the delinquent servant's negligence were too remote to be reasonably foreseen;^(b) but mere accidental occurrences which no one could reasonably anticipate or provide against are outside the rule of liability on general grounds. That a knowledge of the conditions under which coemployees are mutually employed is influential here further appears from the frequent emphasis placed on the fact of proximity one to another in the places of their employment. In fact it was said in a Texas case^(c) that "the rule should be confined to those servants whose duties bring them into such juxtaposition that one would be enabled to observe the negligence of his fellows." But this was only as proposing a reasonable limitation on the fellow-servant doctrine, which, however, the court did not feel able to adopt in view of the great weight of authority to the contrary, declaring that the remedy lay alone with the legislature. Yet inasmuch as the question is not one of locality, but of likelihood of connected consequences, mere remoteness is not sufficient to negative the idea of co-service where the other elements are present. So also the fact that duties are diverse, or are performed in different departments, or under

^a Chicago, M. & St. P. R. Co. v. Ross, *supra*.

^b Northern P. R. Co. v. Hambly (1894), 154 U. S. 349, 14 Sup. Ct. 983.

^c St. Louis, A. & T. R. Co. v. Welch (1888), 72 Tex. 298, 10 S. W. 529.

the direction of different foremen is not conclusive. Probability of contact or of resultant danger from the negligence of an employee is a necessary element in the application of this theory, though at what point the line shall be drawn is often difficult to determine. A manufacturer's domestic servant is not in fellow-service with an employee in his factory, nor is the driver of a butcher's wagon a coemployee with workmen engaged in building an addition to the employer's premises. The distinction is not so easy, however, where the nature of the employments is not so diverse, and the fluctuations in the position of the courts above referred to are apparent in cases where this principle is involved. Thus in Indiana^(a) a bridge carpenter being conveyed to his place of work was held not to be a coservant with the engineer of the train on which he was riding, a decision which was followed by the Iowa courts in 1865;^(b) though apparently the rule had already been abrogated in Indiana,^(c) and subsequent rulings indicate that the plaintiff could not now recover in the latter State under the circumstances above set forth.

DEPARTMENTAL DOCTRINE.—A second theory, based on a different test from that of contemplated risk, is naturally suggested by the considerations indicated above. In the application of this theory the classification turns on the relation of employees in different departments of the employer's establishment or business, more or less segregated. In the courts in which it is adopted the general test is one of the identity or diversity of the departments in which the plaintiff and the delinquent employee were at work. Since, however, no satisfactory definition of the term "department" has yet been furnished, the test may be more accurately said to be one of consociation of duties, i. e., such a relation of the duties of the injured employee and those of the delinquent coemployee as that the former had a reasonable opportunity for protecting himself from injury by his own efforts. All courts would unite in ruling out the defense of coemployment in certain classes of cases, and there is a hopeless contrariety of views as to where this defense shall be allowed and where denied. Even in those States where the defense is most frequently based on what has been called the departmental doctrine, this test is not the only and final one, as it is found that while departments may be distinct, those employed therein may be thrown into such contact that fellow-service can not be denied, and vice versa. While, therefore, the two theories presented lead to real and wide differences of view, there is a class of cases where they approach, and the conclusions reached therein may be referred indifferently to the one reason or the other.

^a *Gillenwater v. Madison & I. R. Co.* (1854), 5 Ind. 339, 61 Am. Dec. 101.

^b *Donaldson v. Miss. & M. R. Co.*, 18 Iowa 280, 87 Am. Dec. 391.

^c *Slattery v. Toledo & W. R. Co.* (1864), 23 Ind. 81.

The jurisdictions in which consociation of duties has been more or less uniformly made the test of coservice are Georgia,^(a) Illinois,^(b) Kentucky,^(c) Louisiana,^(d) Missouri,^(e) Nebraska,^(f) Utah,^(g) Virginia,^(h) Washington,⁽ⁱ⁾ West Virginia,^(j) the Territory of Arizona,^(k) and such Federal Courts as have adopted the rule to conform to local practice. It is also followed in Tennessee,^(l) but is applied to railway service only. It will appear, however, from a review of the cases that, in some of the States named, the courts have at times manifested a preference for the theory of contemplated risks, which, as already seen, shows slight regard for departmental boundaries.

ELEMENTS OF TEST.—As stated above, the mere fact of difference of departments is not conclusive, though according to the theory under consideration it is matter of evidence. As the result of an analysis of a large number of cases in which this doctrine controls, the following elements are presented by a leading text writer^(m) as determinative of the rights of the injured employee:

a. Whether or not he had an opportunity of observing the extent to which the negligent servant was competent for the performance of his duties and the manner in which he habitually conducted himself.

b. Whether or not he was able to take appropriate measures to ward off a danger occasioned by an act already committed or about to be committed while the work was actually in progress.

c. Whether he could or could not lessen the risk of injury by exercising upon the negligent servant an influence calculated to promote caution and diligence on the part of the latter.

d. Whether or not he was able to protect himself by reporting delinquencies, thus securing the more careful supervision, or, if needful, the discharge of negligent employees.

^a *Cooper v. Mullins* (1860), 30 Ga. 116, 76 Am. Dec. 638; though the doctrine seems to be repudiated in this State (see *Brush E. L. & P. Co. v. Wells* (1900), 110 Ga. 192, 35 S. E. 365).

^b *Chicago & N. W. R. Co. v. Moranda* (1879), 93 Ill. 302, 34 Am. Rep. 168.

^c *Kentucky C. R. Co. v. Ackley* (1888), 87 Ky. 278, 8 S. W. 691.

^d *Dobson v. New Orleans & W. R. Co.* (1900), 52 La. An. 1127, 27 So. 670.

^e *Sullivan v. Missouri P. R. Co.* (1889), 97 Mo. 113, 10 S. W. 852.

^f *Omaha & R. V. R. Co. v. Krayenbuhl* (1896), 48 Nebr. 553, 67 N. W. 447.

^g *Armstrong v. Oregon Short Line & U. N. R. Co.* (1893), 8 Utah 420, 32 Pac. 693.

^h *Torlans v. Richmond & A. R. Co.* (1887), 84 Va. 192, 4 S. E. 339.

ⁱ *Uren v. Golden Tunnel Min. Co.* (1901), 24 Wash. 261, 64 Pac. 174.

^j *Madden v. Chesapeake & O. R. Co.* (1886), 28 W. Va. 610, 57 Am. Rep. 695.

^k *Hobson v. N. Mex. & A. R. Co.* (1886), 11 Pac. 545.

^l *Nashville & C. R. Co. v. Carroll* (1871), 6 Helsk. 347; *Coul Creek Min. Co. v. Davis* (1891), 90 Tenn. 711, 18 S. W. 387.

^m *Labatt, "Master and servant,"* p. 1390.

Not all these questions are likely to be raised in any single case, but the answer to the one or more present in a given instance may be found to be decisive of the rights of an injured servant, even to the extent of entirely ignoring so-called departmental classifications.

Representation of the employer.

No court goes so far as to assert without qualification that all employees of a common master, or even in the same department, are coemployees in such sense as to relieve the master of responsibility for the negligent acts of those who are the master's representatives, either permanently, or as to the matter in hand. But here again there are as irreconcilable differences as any that have been noted, and it will be possible only to present the different views taken by the various courts without attempting to summarize them or to bring them into harmony.

There are in general two grounds on which adjudications are based: One, the mere superiority in rank of the negligent employee, and the other, the nature of the injurious act, i. e., whether or not it was one which was connected with the discharge of the so-called non-delegable duties of the employer. Like other distinctions made in the applications of the fellow-servant rule, there are cases in which the decision might be reached by the use of either test, but in other cases the adoption of the one rule will be found to be decisive along lines not capable of being reached by the other unless by giving a special meaning thereto.

TEST OF RANK.—The representative of the employer is most frequently termed by the courts a vice-principal, though the actual functions of his employment and not the designation by which he is known while at work will be determinative in any case. This rule has been made to extend so far as to relieve the employer even when the injured employee in good faith regarded the negligent employee as his superior, not knowing of the latter's discharge from that position.^(a) On the other hand, a coservant intrusted temporarily with the duties of a vice-principal must be answered for by the employer no less than if he were permanently holding the position. Representation, however, must be actual. In a majority of the jurisdictions of the Union the mere fact of superiority of rank is not sufficient to charge the employer with liability for the negligence of the superior servant, though the negligence complained of may have been connected with the giving of orders.^(b) Nor do these courts consider that the adding on of the power to hire and discharge is sufficient

^a *Allen v. Goodwin* (1893), 92 Tenn. 385, 21 S. W. 760.

^b *Kimmer v. Weber* (1897), 151 N. Y. 417, 45 N. E. 860; *McLeau v. Blue Point G. M. Co.* (1876), 51 Cal. 235.

to convert a foreman of subordinate grade to the rank of vice-principal, as mere fear of discharge will not justify the assumption of undue risks.^(a) And this is true even when there is power of control.^(b) Thus it was said in a recent case that "a servant who sustains an injury from the negligence of a superior agent, engaged in the same general business, can not maintain an action against their common employer, although he was subject to the control of such superior agent, and could not guard against his negligence or its consequences."^(c) This rule is based on the theory that the contracting employee assumes the risk of his superior's negligence as one of the ordinary risks of his employment. This does not cover cases where the order directs a departure from the original scope of the servant's employment, such order being attributed, by an apparent suspension of the rule, to the master himself, so that he is held liable for any negligence connected therewith.^(d) The rule is also subject to restrictions resulting from the application of the doctrine of nonassignable duties, the duty of giving directions as to details of the conduct of work not being one for which the employer is regarded as personally responsible. This principle does not, except in a few States, extend to actual superintendents or managers of an employer's business; nor is it vital that such representative shall not be employed in part at actual labor, or that he shall receive a higher salary than his subordinates. No fixed rule is discoverable, but to render the master liable the employee "must be more than a mere foreman to oversee a batch of hands and direct their work under the supervision of the master."^(e) Or, as stated in another case, "he must have general power and control over the business, and not mere authority over a certain class of work or a certain gang of men."^(f)

SUPERIOR SERVANT DOCTRINE.—While such is the rule in the greater number of American jurisdictions, what is known as the "superior servant doctrine" has been adopted in a number of States. The form of this rule varies in different States, or even in the same court; and there is inconsistency in its application to different cases, resulting from an unwillingness on the part of some courts to carry it out to its logical conclusions, and from an indefiniteness as to the point where it shall cease to control. In the supreme court of Illinois^(g) it

^aAlaska Treadwell Gold Min. Co. v. Whelan (1897), 168 U. S. 86, 18 Sup. Ct. 40.

^bVitto v. Keogan (1897), 15 App. Div. 329, 44 N. Y. Supp. 1; Lehigh Valley Coal Co. v. Jones (1878), 86 Pa. 432; Vilter Mfg. Co. v. Otte (1907), 157 Fed. 230 (C. C. A.).

^cKeenan v. New York, L. E. & W. R. Co. (1895), 145 N. Y. 190, 39, N. E. 711.

^dChicago & N. W. R. Co. v. Bayfield (1877), 37 Mich. 205.

^eDobbie v. Richmond & D. R. Co. (1879), 81 N. C. 446, 31 Am. Rep. 512.

^fNew York, L. E. & W. R. Co. v. Bell (1886), 112 Pa. 400, 4 Atl. 50.

^gConsol. Coal Co. v. Wombacher (1890), 134 Ill. 57, 24 N. E. 627.

was said, "Where the negligent act of one servant causes injury to another as the result of the exercise of the authority conferred upon him by the master over the servant injured, the master is liable." In a Missouri case^(a) the following language was used: "Where the master appoints an agent with a superintending control over the work, and with power to employ and discharge hands and direct and control their movements in and about the work, the agent * * * stands in the place of the master." Various grounds are offered for this view, the most satisfactory one being that advanced in an early Ohio case,^(b) in which the duty of supervision and control was treated as nondelegable; or, as stated in a Missouri case,^(c) "the master, by appointing a foreman or other person to superintend the work, with power to direct the men under him how to do it, thereby devolves upon such person the performance of those duties personal to the master." The power to hire and discharge, while of evidential value, is not, under this doctrine, conclusive either for or against the injured employee, except, perhaps, in the States of North Carolina^(d) and Texas,^(e) where this test seems to be one of decisive importance. In addition to the States already named, the courts of Kansas,^(f) Kentucky,^(g) Louisiana,^(h) Missouri,⁽ⁱ⁾ Nebraska,^(j) Tennessee,^(k) and Utah^(l) seem to be committed to this doctrine, either formally or in effect.

STATUS OF MANAGER.—It has already been indicated that there are some States in which what may be called the "extreme view" of fellow-service is held, i. e., that even a general manager is a fellow-servant. This may be called the English as opposed to the American view, as it prevails where the rulings of the House of Lords are the precedent; while in by far the greater number of the States of this country there is a recognition of an actual superintendent or general manager as the master's representative, for whose acts the master is accountable. While the cases involving the question of vice-principalship in this form naturally disclose for the most part conditions of

^a *Stephens v. Hannibal & St. J. R. Co.* (1885), 86 Mo. 221.

^b *Cleveland, C. & C. R. Co. v. Keary* (1854), 3 Ohio St. 201. (See also *Little Miami R. Co. v. Stevens* (1851), 20 Ohio 415.)

^c *Miller v. Missouri P. R. Co.* (1892), 109 Mo. 350, 19 S. W. 58.

^d *Bryan v. Southern R. Co.* (1901), 128 N. C. 387, 38 S. E. 914.

^e *Bering Mfg. Co. v. Femelat* (1904), 79 S. W. 869.

^f *Walker v. Gillett* (1898), 59 Kans. 214, 52 Pac. 442.

^g *Southern R. Co. v. Barr* (1900), 21 Ky. L. Rep. 1615, 55 S. W. 900; but see *Cincinnati, N. O. & T. P. R. Co. v. Hill's Admr.* (1905), 89 S. W. 523.

^h *Faren v. Sellers* (1887), 39 La. Ann. 1011, 3 So. 363.

ⁱ *Hunt v. Desloge Consol. Lead Co.* (1904), 79 S. W. 710.

^j *Union P. R. Co. v. Doyle* (1897), 50 Nebr. 555, 70 N. W. 43.

^k *Louisville & N. R. Co. v. Lahr* (1888), 86 Tenn. 335, 6 S. W. 663.

^l *Tribay v. Brooklyn Lead Min. Co.* (1886), 4 Utah 468, 11 Pac. 612.

what may be considered permanent relationship, the same rule has been held to apply to persons occupying the position only temporarily; as, for instance, in the performance of specific undertakings, after the completion of which the representative would assume his customary rank as coemployee with his temporary subordinates. Both the scope and the reason of the rule are in part indicated in the opinion given in a New York case,^(a) in which it was held that where the "master withdraws from the management of the business, or the business is of such a nature that it is necessarily committed to agents, as in the case of corporations, the master is liable for the neglects and omissions of duty of the one charged with the selection of the other servants, in employing and selecting such servants, and in the general conduct of the business committed to his care." The States in which a superintendent seems to be considered as a coservant with other employees are Alabama,^(b) Massachusetts,^(c) Mississippi,^(d) and New Jersey,^(e) while in California, Indiana, Maine, Maryland, Missouri, New York, and Vermont are to be found cases indicative of a similar view; but from a general view of the decisions in these States it appears that this ruling can not be considered law. In Alabama, Massachusetts, and Mississippi the common-law rule has been modified by legislative enactment.

HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS.—On principle, a court that recognizes the manager of an entire business as the master's representative can not well refuse similar recognition to persons in charge of single branches of an undertaking, as in large industrial undertakings the head of such a branch is completely in control of the men under him, and the management of its affairs is as fully in his hands as if it were an independent business. Thus it has been held by the United States Supreme Court^(f) that there is a "clear distinction to be made in their relation to their common principal, between servants of a corporation exercising no supervision over others engaged with them in the same employment, and agents of the corporation clothed with the control and management of a distinct department in which their duty is entirely that of direction and superintendence." The limits of the application of this principle are not clearly marked. The courts making most frequent use of it are the Federal courts, and their position may be considered as fairly presented in the statement that it is only individuals who are in charge of separate branches and depart-

^a *Malone v. Hathaway* (1876), 64 N. Y. 5, 21 Am. Rep. 573.

^b *Moble & M. R. Co. v. Smith* (1877), 59 Ala. 245.

^c *Meehan v. Splers Mfg. Co.* (1899), 172 Mass. 375, 52 N. E. 518.

^d *Howd v. Mississippi C. R. Co.* (1874), 50 Miss. 178.

^e *Curley v. Hoff* (1899), 62 N. J. L. 758, 42 Atl. 731.

^f *Chicago, M. & St. P. R. Co. v. Ross* (1884), 112 U. S. 377, 5 Sup. Ct. 184.

ments of service, and have entire and absolute control therein that are properly to be considered, with respect to employees under them, as vice-principals. In the Supreme Court case just quoted from it was held that the conductor of a freight train was such a vice-principal, while in 1893 the same court ruled that the engineer of an engine running alone was not, although by the rules of the company he was in charge with the same authority as a conductor of a train.^(a) Later still this court excluded the conductor of a freight train from the operation of this principle,^(b) thus reversing the position taken fifteen years before on the facts involved, though not abrogating the rule as to vice-principalship. Such variations of position have added to the perplexities of the situation, not only as to the Federal courts, but as to State courts as well, and to attempt to determine or illustrate the present extent of the application of the doctrine of vice-principalship as tested by rank would be out of place in an undertaking of the present scope.

CHARACTER OF ACT AS TEST.—In cases in which vice-principalship is conceded there is yet a possible distinction as to the kind of acts for which the employer will be held responsible. In the first place it must obviously be a negligent act; and, secondly, it must be within the scope of the agent's authority and be connected with the proper business of his employment. Besides these points, as to which it is only necessary to establish the facts in order to determine their status, the question of the official or nonofficial quality of the acts considered may be raised.

In accordance with this view, a doctrine of dual capacity has been developed, according to which some acts of the employer's representative may be taken as those of a mere servant and not of such a nature as to make the employer responsible for negligence therein. In the courts adopting this doctrine, the negligent performance of the so-called "nondelegable" duties by one who is, by virtue of his rank, conceded to be a vice-principal casts a burden on the employer, while the same person may, as a coservant, perform an act of manual labor negligently, and to the injury of a fellow-workman, without devolving any liability therefor upon the employer. This doctrine of dual capacity seems to have been first applied in Rhode Island,^(c) though the leading case is one that was decided in New York in 1880.^(d) Other States adopting this theory (though not always without qualification) are Arkansas,^(e) Col-

^a *Baltimore & O. R. Co. v. Baugh*, 149 U. S. 368, 13 Sup. Ct. 914.

^b *New England R. Co. v. Conroy* (1899), 175 U. S. 323, 20 Sup. Ct. 85.

^c *Mann v. Oriental Print Works* (1875), 11 R. I. 152.

^d *Crispin v. Babbitt*, 81 N. Y. 516, 37 Am. Rep. 521.

^e *St. Louis, A. & T. R. Co. v. Torrey* (1893), 58 Ark. 217 S. W. 244.

orado,^(a) Idaho,^(b) Illinois,^(c) Indiana,^(d) Iowa,^(e) Massachusetts,^(f) Michigan^(g) (though in a somewhat earlier case^(h) it was said that a superintendent "stands in the place of the master in whatever he does in furtherance of the business and operations he has in charge"), Minnesota,⁽ⁱ⁾ Pennsylvania,^(j) Tennessee,^(k) Virginia,^(l) Washington,^(m) and Wisconsin.⁽ⁿ⁾ It has been recognized in the Federal courts also.^(o)

On the other hand are to be ranged those courts which do not consider that the character of a vice-principal shifts with the nature of his acts, holding as the better rule that the master is liable for the negligence of his representative whether the negligent act was done by his own hand or by another under his orders.^(p) This is apparently the position of the courts of Kansas,^(q) Kentucky,^(p) Nebraska,^(r) North Carolina,^(s) and Ohio.^(t) Federal cases supporting this view may also be found.^(u) In Missouri it was recently declared by the supreme court that the doctrine of dual capacity was fully established in that State,^(v) and a number of cases were cited in support of that view, beginning with *Harper v. Indianapolis and Saint Louis Railway Company* (1871) (47 Mo. 567, 4 Am. Rep. 358). But in the case of *Hutson v. Missouri Pacific Railway Company* (1892) (50 Mo. App. 300), it was held that the negligent performance by a section foreman of ordinary labor such as a coservant would engage in, resulting in injury to a workman in his gang, was the negligence of the employer: "There is no just or logical distinction between the act of the vice-principal in negli-

^a *Deep Min. & Drainage Co. v. Fitzgerald* (1895), 21 Colo. 533, 43 Pac. 210.

^b *Larsen v. Le Doux* (1905), 11 Idaho 49, 81 Pac. 600.

^c *Chicago & A. R. Co. v. May* (1883), 108 Ill. 288.

^d *Salem Stone & Lime Co. v. Chastain* (1894), 9 Ind. App. 453, 36 N. E. 910.

^e *Collingwood v. Illinois & I. Fuel Co.* (1904), 125 Iowa 537, 101 N. W. 283.

^f *McPhee v. New England Structural Co.* (1905), 188 Mass. 141, 74 N. E. 303.

^g *Page v. Battle Creek Pure Food Co.* (1905), 142 Mich. 17, 105 N. W. 72.

^h *Shumway v. Walworth & N. Mfg. Co.* (1894), 98 Mich. 411, 57 N. W. 251.

ⁱ *Soutar v. Minneapolis International Electric Co.* (1897), 68 Minn. 18, 70 N. W. 796.

^j *Ricks v. Flynn* (1900), 196 Pa. 263, 46 Atl. 360.

^k *National Fertilizer Co. v. Travis* (1899), 102 Tenn. 16, 49 S. W. 832.

^l *Southern R. Co. v. Manzy* (1900), 98 Va. 692, 37 S. E. 285.

^m *Sayward v. Carlson* (1890), 1 Wash. 29, 23 Pac. 830.

ⁿ *Klochinski v. Shores Lumber Co.* (1896), 93 Wis. 417, 67 N. W. 934.

^o *Reed v. Stockmeyer* (1896), 74 Fed. 186 (C. C. A.).

^p *Illinois C. R. Co. v. Josey's Admx.* (1901), 22 Ky. L. Rep. 1795, 61 S. W. 703.

^q *Consol. Kansas City Smelting & Ref. Co. v. Peterson* (1899), 8 Kan. App. 316, 55 Pac. 673.

^r *Crystal Ice Co. v. Sherlock* (1893), 37 Nebr. 19, 55 N. W. 294.

^s *Purcell v. Southern R. Co.* (1896), 119 N. C. 728, 26 S. E. 161.

^t *Berea Stone Co. v. Kraft* (1877), 31 Ohio St. 287, 27 Am. Rep. 510.

^u *Au v. New York, L. E. & W. R. Co.* (1886), 29 Fed. 72; *Hardy v. Minneapolis & St. L. R. Co.* (1888), 36 Fed. 657.

^v *Fogarty v. St. Louis Transfer Co.* (1904), 180 Mo. 490, 79 S. W. 984.

gently ordering a servant to do an imprudent thing and in doing the thing himself."^(a) In Texas also decisions in apparent conflict may be found, some^(b) denying the dual capacity theory, while a case of the same date^(c) supports it. Examples of lack of harmony could be adduced from other States also, and, as appears from the citations given, the rulings of the Federal courts are not uniform.

A Federal judge in a recent case^(d) declared that the test of rank used in the Ross case has been largely superseded in the Federal courts by the test of the character of the act, as followed in the Bough case.^(e) "The question is always," says the judge, "whether the negligence charged is the neglect of a primary and absolute duty of the master to the servant. If such be its character, no delegation of the performance of that duty to another, no matter how inferior his rank may be in the master's service, can relieve the liability of the master for its neglect." Some discussion was had in an earlier part of this chapter of these nondelegable duties, from which the employer can be relieved only by their performance. Courts differ in their classification of these duties; but where the character of the act and not the rank of the agent is the test of liability, a person charged with the performance of what is considered a nondelegable duty will be classed in respect of such act as the employer's representative. The attitude of the courts of several States and a somewhat general discussion of the duties of this class are to be found on pages 16 to 19 above, to which reference is suggested in lieu of a repetition of the statements there made. It may be added here, however, that where the negligent act as fellow-servant cooperates with one's negligence as vice-principal in producing an injury, the effect is to charge the employer with liability.^(f)

The rule that an employer who purchases appliances from a reputable manufacturer or dealer is not obligated to test or inspect the same is in effect an avoidance of the duty to see that appliances are reasonably safe; this is practically an exception to the general doctrine that such duty is nondelegable, and, as was noted above (page 7), it is not admitted in at least one State, and is modified in the Supreme Court.

The rulings of the courts as to the liability of the employer for the acts of an independent contractor are too contradictory to be summarized. The decisions of a few superior courts are indicated on

^a See further *Dayharsh v. Hannibal & St. J. R. Co.* (1891), 103 Mo. 570, 15 S. W. 554, and *Russ v. Wabash W. R. Co.* (1892), 20 S. W. 472.

^b *Sweeny v. Gulf, C. & S. F. R. Co.* (1892), 84 Tex. 433, 19 S. W. 555; *Texas & P. R. Co. v. Reed* (1895), 32 S. W. 118.

^c *Gulf, C. & S. F. R. Co. v. Schwabbe* (1892), 21 S. W. 706.

^d *Peters v. George* (1907), 154 Fed. 634.

^e See pages 38 and 39, above.

^f *Cody v. Longyear* (1908), 114 N. W. 735. (Minn.)

case. A complaint by an employee is in effect a declaration that he will no longer continue in service under the conditions of danger, while the promise of the employer, so long as its validity continues, is said to have established a new relation, the employer impliedly agreeing that the employee shall not be held to have assumed the risk.^(a)

Contributory negligence.

It follows from the giving of the promise that the question of negligence, which, apart from the promise, would have been decided adversely to the plaintiff as a matter of law, will be submitted to the jury, and that some reason other than mere continuance of work in the position where the injury was received must be presented in order to impute contributory negligence.^(b) If, however, the place was one of such open and imminent danger that a prudent man would not risk life or limb by continuing to work therein, the promise to repair is not sufficient to relieve of the charge of negligence a servant so continuing to work.^(c)

Local rules.

In a few jurisdictions a tendency to restrict the application of the above principles has been apparent, as in Massachusetts,^(d) where a repair hand was excluded from the benefits of a promise, though a mere attendant at a machine would not be; and in Wisconsin,^(e) where the doctrine was held to apply to tools and machinery but not to place of work; while in New York^(f) it has been held that the promise makes no change in the status of the employee in cases where the instrumentality is a simple one and its construction and defects are as well known to him as to his employer. The supreme court of Maine^(g) seems to have taken practically the same view as that held by the courts of New York in a comparatively recent case.

DIRECT ORDERS.

The fact that an employee was acting under direct orders at the time his injury was received is also influential in determining his right to recover where such order had been given. The order must be given by the employer or his representative acting with due authority, though it may reach the employee through an intermediary of equal rank, who is then simply the channel by which it reaches the employee affected. The order must be the cause of the action which resulted in

^a *Swift & Co. v. O'Neill* (1900), 187 Ill. 337, 58 N. E. 416.

^b *Hough v. Texas & P. R. Co.* (1879), 100 U. S. 213, 25 L. Ed. 612.

^c *Texas & N. O. R. Co. v. Bingle* (1895), 9 Tex. Civ. App. 322, 29 S. W. 674.

^d *Silvia v. Wampanoag Mills* (1900), 177 Mass. 194, 58 N. E. 590.

^e *Showalter v. Fairbanks* (1894), 88 Wis. 376, 60 N. W. 257.

^f *Marsh v. Chickering* (1886), 101 N. Y. 396, 5 N. E. 56.

^g *Conley v. Am. Exp. Co.* (1895), 87 Me. 352, 32 Atl. 985.

the injury, and it must be of itself negligent under existing circumstances. When these conditions are met, a presumption is raised in the employee's favor, either that he was excusably ignorant of the risks to which his obedience exposed him or that his action was in some degree coerced, so that the employer's customary defenses of assumed risk and of contributory negligence are proportionately, though not absolutely, negated. If the order does not direct exposure to other than the ordinary, assumed risks, no negligence can be charged to the master in connection therewith. Neither do the courts hold him negligent where he was ignorant, actually and without fault, of the dangers to which a servant would be exposed by obedience. But where the employer knew of the danger and failed to warn the servant, and still more where the servant was both ignorant and incapable, physically and mentally, of safely performing the work directed, the order will be held negligent and the employee will be entitled to recover for resulting injuries.

In connection with a direct order, or in response to some complaint or inquiry of the employee, an employer may give assurances of the employee's safety. This may be in the form of a statement that the work does not involve danger or that the workman will be protected in its performance. Where such an assurance is given by an authorized person, and it is negligently given, so that the employee is thereby induced to do work or to enter a place other than would probably have been the case apart from the assurance, the employee will not be, as a matter of law, chargeable with either an assumption of the risk or with contributory negligence if injury results. This rule is subject to the same qualifications, on grounds of the actual knowledge of the employee and his going into places of obvious danger, as have been set forth in other connections. Yet, inasmuch as the law regards the employer's knowledge of the conditions of the employment as superior to that of the employee, it considers his assurance of safety, especially when accompanied by an order to proceed, to be sufficient warrant for the employee to lay aside his scruples and perhaps to proceed with less vigilance than he would have otherwise exercised.

In Missouri^(*) it has been held that an authoritative assurance coupled with an order amounts to a guaranty of safety, though this is not in accord with the general principles controlling in employers' liability cases.

Assumption of risks.

As between the ordinary defenses of the employer, that of assumption of risks is less affected by the giving of direct orders, the general rule being that one who knows and appreciates the danger of a peril-

^{*} *Stalzer v. Jacob Dold Packing Co.* (1900), 84 Mo. App. 585.

ous undertaking, even though he engages in it unwillingly and in obedience to the orders of a superior, must bear the risk.^(a) If, however, the service involves a departure from the customary line of duty and involves dangers not obvious to a person of ordinary prudence and intelligence, the employee will not be held to have assumed the risk.

Contributory negligence.

The fact of an order is almost conclusive as against the defense of contributory negligence unless the danger was so manifest, glaring, or imminent that a prudent person would refuse to venture upon it. In general the employer will not be heard to declare that the doing of those acts the performance of which he commanded was negligence on the part of the servant who obeyed him therein.^(b) Even where the circumstances rendered an alternative disobedience justifiable, the act of obedience may not have been negligent, especially where an emergency prevented deliberation or an apparent duty demanded the performance of the act. As to the point that such an act was coerced rather than voluntary, the courts have not furnished many decisions. If the fact exists, it will be considered, though apart from cases involving minors the compulsion would have to be of an unusual kind to be of decisive weight. In no case will the fact of an order justify a negligent performance of the prescribed undertaking.

SCOPE AND COURSE OF EMPLOYMENT.

The principles controlling the liability of the employer have been considered only in their application to cases where the injury was received by a servant engaged in the duties for which he was specifically or impliedly hired. There is, however, a class of cases in which an injured employee's claim is based on injuries received while he was at a place or in an employment not contemplated in his contract of hiring.

Voluntary act of employee.

If the employee leaves his customary work voluntarily and goes where he has no right to be or undertakes to use machinery which it is not his business to use, he is no better than a trespasser to whom his master owes no duty.^(c) Acquiescence by the employer in the conduct of the employee may be construed, however, as extending the scope of employment to the new line of duties, carrying the corresponding mutual obligations. Where the act is for the employer's benefit it

^a *Ferren v. Old Colony R. Co.* (1887), 143 Mass. 197, 9 N. E. 608.

^b *Hawley v. Northern C. R. Co.* (1880), 82 N. Y. 370.

^c *Stagg v. Edward Western Tea & Spice Co.* (1902), 160 Mo. 489, 60 S. W. 391; *Green v. Brauerd & N. M. R. Co.* (1902), 88 N. W. 974, 85 Minn. 318.

may be decided as a matter of fact that it was reasonably a part of the employee's duty, though in the absence of both command and acquiescence recovery would be, to say the least, doubtful.

Act ordered by employer.

The case is different where there is a specific direction from the employer or other competent person ordering a temporary departure from the contractual lines of duty. The risks incident to the new employment are in a sense extraordinary, as they are outside of the regular line of duty and were not assumed under the contract relative thereto.

The elements necessary to a recovery in case of injury resulting from the undertaking of such work are that the departure from the regular employment should be substantial, that it should be in obedience to the orders of a competent person, and that the order given be negligent.^(a) The mere fact that the work was not that for which the employee contracted is not enough, since a command of the employer and obedience without objection by a person of mature years and ordinary capacity present in themselves no conditions of culpability. If, however, the master knew of some unfitness on the part of the servant or of some increased danger in the new situation of which the employee was uninformed, the giving of the order may be considered as negligent. In the absence of grounds on which to support the charge of negligence, workmen will generally be considered as assuming the risk of the new undertaking, in so far as they are known or are of that open and patent character that charges a person of ordinary intelligence with a knowledge of them.^(b) Some courts^(c) have differed from this view, however, and have in effect made the master giving such an order a guarantor of the safety of the conditions of the new work. The reason given is that the new order carries the employee beyond the contract of hiring, and so also away from his implied undertaking as to assumed risks. In the Adams and the Fort cases, the rule appears to be specially applicable on account of the youth or inexperience of the injured employee whereby he was not readily able to comprehend the risks. This condition does not appear in the Mann and the Lalor cases, however.

Contributory negligence is not ordinarily allowed as a defense to an employer giving orders for a departure from the usual line of serv-

^a Galveston Oil Co. v. Thompson (1890), 76 Tex. 235, 13 S. W. 60.

^b Felton v. Girardy (1900), 43 C. C. A. 439, 104 Fed. 127.

^c Pittsburgh, C. & St. L. R. Co. v. Adams (1886), 105 Ind. 151, 5 N. E. 187, citing Mann v. Oriental Print Works (1875), 11 R. I. 152; Union P. R. Co. v. Fort (1872), 17 Wall. 554; Lalor v. Chicago, B. & Q. R. Co. (1869), 52 Ill. 401, etc.

ice, the reason therefor being practically that given above where the question of obedience to direct orders was discussed, i. e., that a person will not be heard to say that it is negligence to carry out his own orders. One can not, however, enter upon a work involving obvious and extreme risks and claim the employer's protection in so doing, nor can he enter on work for which he knows himself to be essentially unfitted but as to which he makes no protest or objection. Still the presumption that the employer is better informed as to the conditions of the work and the necessary qualifications for doing it properly, and the rule of the customary duty of obedience to a superior, will serve to relieve the employé even in such cases.

Course of employment.

It may occur that an injured person received his injury under circumstances that raise the question whether or not the accident occurred as the result of his employment within its true bounds. Such a question arises, for instance, when an employee is being transported on a vehicle owned or operated by his employer. If the injury was received while he was being transported for the purpose of forwarding the undertaking for which he was engaged, it will be regarded as an incident of his employment, and the rules as to assumption of risks will control.^(a) The possible negligence of the employees engaged in operating a train on which a bridge gang is, according to custom, being conveyed to the place of its actual work is such a risk as would ordinarily be contemplated in accepting such employment. The same rule will apply to the negligence of other classes of employees, as track hands, if their negligence would not have furnished ground of action if the injured employee had been actually at work at the time of his injury.

If, however, the employee was traveling entirely for his own purposes, and was not at the time subject to the orders of his employer, the relations of master and servant will be held to be suspended, and the injured person will have the rights of a stranger. In a Pennsylvania case^(b) it was held that an employee who received transportation to and from the place of his employment as a part of his compensation was entitled to redress as a passenger in the event of an accident inflicting injury. The same view seems to have been taken by the supreme court of Washington,^(c) while in New York^(d) this ruling was condemned, and the fact of transportation being considered as part payment for his services was held not to take the case out

^a Shannon v. Union R. Co. (1906), 27 R. I. 475, 63 Atl. 488.

^b O'Donnell v. Allegheny Valley R. Co. (1868), 59 Pa. 239, 98 Am. Dec. 236.

^c Peterson v. Seattle Traction Co. (1901), 23 Wash. 643, 65 Pac. 543.

^d Vick v. New York C. & H. R. Co. (1884), 95 N. Y. 297, 47 N.Y. Rep. 76.

of the rule stated in the paragraph above. The courts of Kentucky,^(a) Massachusetts,^(b) Pennsylvania,^(c) and Tennessee^(d) have allowed recovery for injuries received by employees riding on trains or street cars at the close of the day's work or for meals without payment of fare, the view being taken that such transportation was not connected with the performance of their duties, which were at an end for the time, and that they had no connection with the operation of the vehicle on which they rode.

The variety of facts involved in cases presenting the question of course of employment is so great that it would practically require an enumeration of the decisions to present the attitude of the courts thereon. The general rule has been mentioned, i. e., that the employer is not liable for injuries incurred by employees going beyond the scope of their employment.^(e) They approximate the condition of volunteers, with whom they are sometimes classed. By the term "volunteers" is meant persons not in the service of the employer prior to their engaging, without authorization, in the employment at which they received the injury complained of, and their situation is in general no better than that of trespassers. They are held to have assumed the limitations of servants without acquiring the right to claim the performance of a master's duties toward them.^(f) They will be protected from wanton injuries at the hands of the regular employees, however,^(g) and the circumstances may be such that they will be held to warrant a service rendered at the invitation of persons not ordinarily authorized to hire employees so as to give to injured volunteers a right to recover.^(h) Or it might be said that the situation of the persons so employed is modified so that they are no longer regarded as volunteers, at least not as trespassers.

The reason for the rule as to volunteers is that no one can be subjected to the obligations of an employer, which are the result of contract, without his consent thereto, either express or implied. This being the case, the situation of a person undertaking to render service, either on his own motion or at the invitation of an unauthorized person, gains nothing from the fact that the danger was not appreciated. This prevents exceptions in behalf of minors, though

^a *Louisville & N. R. Co. v. Scott* (1900), 22 Ky. L. Rep. 30, 56 S. W. 674.

^b *Dickinson v. West End St. R. Co.* (1901), 177 Mass. 365, 59 N. E. 60.

^c *McNulty v. Pennsylvania R. Co.* (1897), 182 Pa. 479, 38 Atl. 524.

^d *Chattanooga Rapid Transit Co. v. Venable* (1900), 105 Tenn. 460, 58 S. W. 861.

^e Page 46, *supra*.

^f *Langan v. Tyler* (1902), 114 Fed. 716 (C. C. A.).

^g *Kentucky C. R. Co. v. Gastineau* (1885), 83 Ky. 119; *Evarts v. St. Paul, M. & M. R. Co.* (1894), 56 Minn. 141, 57 N. W. 459.

^h *Bradley v. New York C. R. Co.* (1875), 62 N. Y. 99; *Barstow v. Old Colony R. Co.* (1887), 143 Mass. 535, 10 N. E. 255.

in some jurisdictions they are not regarded as trespassers when they are too young to be charged with discretion, and thus a greater degree of caution must be exercised in their behalf.

DETAILS OF WORK.

A general limitation of the obligations of the employer is to be found in the rule that he is not bound to supervise the purely operative details of his employees' undertakings. He will not be responsible, therefore, for merely transitory dangers, "existing only on the single occasion when the injury was sustained, and due to no fault of plan or construction, or lack of repair, and to no permanent defect or want of safety in the defendant's works, or in the manner in which they had been ordinarily used."^a So, also, if the danger arises in the progress of the work and is one of the understood conditions of such progress, no liability attaches to the employer. Acts which are involved in the preparation or care of instrumentalities cast no responsibility upon the employer where such acts are a part of the work of the employees affected. If, however, the person caring for or preparing the agencies is not the one who uses them, the latter person will, according to a large number of cases, have an action for injuries resulting from the negligence of the first-named employee,^b though mere difference of employment does not imply such right. Other decisions, many of them subsequently overruled, make repair hands fellow-servants with the users of the instrumentalities.

The improper use of suitable instrumentalities, or failure to use those furnished, erroneous choice of methods of work, or improper orders and assignments of subordinates to duty are acts of a superior for which the employer will not in general be held responsible.^c In the same category are found the giving of signals, the transmission of orders, and the manipulation of instrumentalities (e. g., cars on railway tracks) during the progress of work.^d The adjustment of temporary structures and appliances used in the course of the work are within the rule of nonliability.

The reverse has been held where the appliance causing the injury was furnished by the employer himself, where there was an implied undertaking that the appliance furnished should be in a completed condition, where the employer failed to furnish suitable material for the preparation of an instrumentality, where the employee did not

^a *Meehan v. Spiers Mfg. Co.* (1899), 172 Mass. 375, 52 N. E. 518.

^b *Ford v. Fitchburg R. Co.* (1872), 110 Mass. 240, 14 Am. Rep. 598; *Hough v. Texas & P. R. Co.* (1879), 100 U. S. 213; *Gunter v. Graniteville Mfg. Co.* (1882), 18 S. C. 262, 44 Am. Rep. 573.

^c *Cullen v. Norton* (1891), 123 N. Y. 1, 26 N. E. 905.

^d *Martin v. Atchison, T. & S. F. R. Co.* (1897), 160 U. S. 399, 37 Sup. Ct. 603.

have free choice in the selection of materials, and where the danger resulted from conditions which might properly be classed as permanent.

In concluding this review of the common-law phases of the employer's liability it is hardly necessary to recur to the preliminary statements made as to the variant and contradictory interpretations promulgated by the same courts at different times and to the dissimilarity of views held by the courts of different States, since the importance of definite, unifying legislation must be obvious. In considering the statutes enacted on the subject, a considerable influence toward harmonizing the law will be found in the fact that a legislature enacting a statute copied from another State is assumed to take over also the construction and interpretation put upon the statute by the courts of the earlier enacting State prior to its adoption by the legislature of the later one. Apart from this fact, however, the diversities of interpretation of the common law reappear to affect the construction put upon statutes of independent enactment in the various States.

It was generally believed that a long step toward the harmonization of the law relating to the liability of common carriers for injuries to their employees was taken in 1906 in the enactment of a Federal statute applying to interstate commerce generally. This belief was based on the fact that such a statute would supersede all local statutes and rulings where it applied, and also because its construction by the Supreme Court of the United States, in any case that should come before it, would become the authoritative ruling in every jurisdiction on the point involved. By the ruling of the Supreme Court (*) this law was declared not constitutional. What State legislation has accomplished will appear in the main in the following portions of this article.

LIABILITY UNDER STATUTE LAW.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY LAWS.

The laws enacted in the United States for the purpose of determining the liability of the employer for injuries to his employees are of two principal classes, one relating in a more or less general and inclusive way to the subject of employment, the other confining itself to specified forms or groups of employment. The laws of both classes are reproduced in the following compilation, following which is a brief discussion of their application and judicial construction.

* Nos. 216, 222, October term, 1907. See pages 216-230, below. A bill intended to embody such provisions of this act as could be constitutionally enforced has been introduced, but has not at this date come up for consideration.

SAFETY APPLIANCE AND INSPECTION LAWS.

A body of laws that are related to those here considered prescribes the use of safety appliances on railways and in factories and regulates the operation of mines with a view to the safety of employees. These laws frequently contain a provision that violation of the statute shall entail a special liability upon the employer for injuries occasioned by such violation, or shall affect his defenses in actions for injuries. The violation of laws of this class is construed by the courts of some States only as evidence of negligence,^(a) by others as negligence per se.^(b) In the latter view, the defense of assumed risks is barred,^(c) and the party injured is not bound to show that he was in the exercise of due care to avoid an injury caused by a willful violation.^(d) None of these laws can properly be reproduced in the present connection; but their more important provisions, from the standpoint of their effect on the liability of the employer, will be noted.

RIGHT OF ACTION FOR INJURIES CAUSING DEATH.

In almost every jurisdiction in this country laws have been enacted which, while not employers' liability laws in form, have yet gone far to ameliorate the condition of the employee suffering under the hardship of the common-law rule that prohibits recovery of damages in cases where an injured person dies immediately as a consequence of his injury. Though this statute in itself does not affect the usual defenses of the employer in cases of accidental injury, it does give a new right to the heirs or personal representatives of a deceased employee, conferring upon them the same right of action that the injured person would have had had he survived. These laws are generally held to inure to the benefit of nonresident alien beneficiaries.^(e) The laws of the various States differ in some minor points, though they are alike modeled after an English act of 1846, known as "Lord Campbell's act." The States are not uniform in their rulings on the question as to whether or not punitive or exemplary damages are recoverable under their acts, but only such rights can be enforced as the statute provides. The amount recoverable is fixed

^a *Pitcher v. New York C. & H. R. R. Co.* (1891), 127 N. Y. 678, 28 N. E. 136; *Jupiter Coal Min. Co. v. Mercer* (1899), 84 Ill. App. 96.

^b *Collott v. American Mfg. Co.* (1897), 71 Mo. App. 163; *Lore v. Am. Mfg. Co.* (1901), 160 Mo. 608, 61 S. W. 678.

^c *Narramore v. Cleveland, etc., R. Co.* (1899), 96 Fed. 298; *United States Cement Co. v. Cooper* (1907), 82 N. E. 981. (Ind.) (See under Restrictions of employees' right to recover, page 14, above.)

^d *Pawnee Coal Co. v. Royce* (1900), 184 Ill. 402, 56 N. E. 1090.

^e *Mulhall v. Fallon* (1900), 176 Mass. 266, 57 N. E. 386; *Low Moor Iron Co. v. La Blanca's Admr.* (1906), 55 S. E. 532, 106 Va. 83.

by the statutes of some States, while others declare in the constitution of the State that the amount shall not be restricted. Persons properly classifiable as beneficiaries must be found to bring the action, the persons so named by the English act being the wife, husband, parent, and child of the deceased person. In a number of States the use of the words "personal representatives" implies a less restricted classification of beneficiaries. Of the same effect is the ruling in a case under the statute of Connecticut on this subject, that the ground of damages is not the loss to the relatives, but the personal injury to the deceased.^(a)

Laws governing the liability of employers either contain independent provisions conferring the right of action in cases of death from accidental injury or refer to the State statute providing for such action.

Owing to the fact that these laws are not to be regarded as employers' liability laws, and, further, that they are very similar in their principal features, no reproduction of them will be made beyond a presentation of the law of the District of Columbia (Code of 1901), which will serve as an example of this class of statutes:

SECTION 1301. Whenever by an injury done or happening within the limits of the District of Columbia the death of a person shall be caused by the wrongful act, neglect, or default of any person or corporation, and the act, neglect, or default is such as would, if death had not ensued, have entitled the party injured, or if the person injured be a married woman, have entitled her husband, either separately or by joining with the wife, to maintain an action and recover damages, the person who or corporation which would have been liable if death had not ensued shall be liable to an action for damages for such death, notwithstanding the death of the person injured, even though the death shall have been caused under circumstances which constitute a felony; and such damages shall be assessed with reference to the injury resulting from such act, neglect, or default causing such death, to the widow and next of kin of such deceased person: *Provided*, That in no case shall the recovery under this act exceed the sum of ten thousand dollars: *And provided further*, That no action shall be maintained under this chapter in any case when the party injured by such wrongful act, neglect, or default has recovered damages therefor during the life of such party.

SEC. 1302. Every such action shall be brought by and in the name of the personal representative of such deceased person, and within one year after the death of the party injured.

SEC. 1303. The damages recovered in such action shall not be appropriated to the payment of the debts or liabilities of such deceased person, but shall inure to the benefit of his or her family and be distributed according to the provisions of the statute of distribution in force in the said District of Columbia.

^a McElligott v. Randolph (1891), 61 Conn. 157.

Following is a compilation of the various laws in the United States regulating the liability of employers for injuries to employees, arranged alphabetically according to States and Territories:

ALABAMA.

CODE OF 1897.

Liability of employers for injuries to employees.

- Injury caused by— SECTION 1749. When a personal injury is received by a servant or employee in the service or business of the master or employer, the master or employer is liable to answer in damages to such servant or employee, as if he were a stranger, and not engaged in such service or employment, in the cases following:
- Defects; 1. When the injury is caused by reason of any defect in the condition of the ways, works, machinery, or plant connected with, or used in the business of the master or employer.
- Negligence of superintendent; 2. When the injury is caused by reason of the negligence of any person in the service or employment of the master or employer, who has any superintendence intrusted to him, whilst in the exercise of such superintendence.
- Or one in authority; 3. When such injury is caused by reason of the negligence of any person in the service or employment of the master or employer, to whose orders or directions the servant or employee, at the time of the injury, was bound to conform, and did conform, if such injuries resulted from his having so conformed.
- Obedience to rules or instructions; 4. When such injury is caused by reason of the act or omission of any person in the service or employment of the master or employer, done or made in obedience to the rules and regulations or by-laws of the master or employer, or in obedience to particular instructions given by any person delegated with the authority of the master or employer in that behalf.
- Negligence of person in charge of railroad signal, etc. 5. When such injury is caused by reason of the negligence of any person in the service or employment of the master or employer, who has the charge or control of any signal, points, locomotive, engine, switch, car, or train upon a railway, or of any part of the track of a railway.
- Exceptions. But the master or employer is not liable under this section, if the servant or employee knew of the defect or negligence causing the injury, and failed in a reasonable time to give information thereof to the master or employer, or to some person superior to himself engaged in the service or employment of the master or employer, unless he was aware that the master or employer, or such superior already knew of such defect or negligence; nor is the master or employer liable under subdivision 1, unless the defect therein mentioned arose from, or had not been discovered or remedied owing to the negligence of the master or employer, or of some person in the service of the master or employer, and intrusted by him with the duty of seeing that the ways, works, machinery, or plant, were in proper condition.
- Damages exempt. SEC. 1750. Damages recovered by the servant or employee, of and from the master or employer, are not subject to the payment of debts, or any legal liabilities incurred by him.
- Injury causing death. SEC. 1751. If such injury results in the death of the servant or employee, his personal representative is entitled to maintain an action therefor, and the damages recovered are not subject to the payment of debts or liabilities, but shall be distributed according to the statute of distributions.

COLORADO.

CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE 15.—*Contracts of employees waiving right to damages.*

SECTION 15. It shall be unlawful for any person, company or corporation to require of its servants or employees, as a condition of their employment or otherwise, any contract or agreement whereby such person, company or corporation shall be released or discharged from liability or responsibility on account of personal injuries received by such servants or employees while in the service of such person, company or corporation by reason of the negligence of such person, company or corporation, or the agents or employees thereof, and such contracts shall be absolutely null and void.

Contracts waiving right to damages.

MILLS' ANNOTATED STATUTES OF 1891 AND SUPPLEMENT OF 1904.

Liability of employers for injuries to employees.

SECTION 1511a. Where, after the passage of this act, personal injury is caused to an employee, who is himself in the exercise of due care and diligence at the time;

Injury caused by—

(1) By reason of any defect in the condition of the ways, works or machinery connected with or used in the business of the employer, which arose from or had not been discovered or remedied owing to the negligence of the employer, or of any person in the service of the employer, and intrusted by him with the duty of seeing that the ways, works and machinery were in proper condition; or

Defects;

(2) By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer, intrusted with or exercising superintendence whose sole or principal duty is that of superintendence;

Negligence of superintendent;

(3) By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer who has the charge or control of any switch, signal, locomotive engine or train upon a railroad, the employee, or in case the injury results in death the parties entitled by law to sue and recover for such damages shall have the same right of compensation and remedy against the employer, as if the employee had not been an employee of or in the service of the employer or engaged in his or its work.

Of person in charge of railroad signal, etc.

SEC. 1511b. The amount of compensation recoverable under this act, in case of a personal injury resulting solely from the negligence of a coemployee, shall not exceed the sum of five thousand dollars. No action for the recovery of compensation for injury or death under this act shall be maintained unless written notice of the time, place and cause of the injury is given to the employer within sixty days, and the action is commenced within two years from the occurrence of the accident causing the injury or death. But no notice given under the provisions of this section shall be deemed invalid or insufficient solely by reason of any inaccuracy in stating the time, place or cause of injury: *Provided*, It is shown that there was no intention to mislead, and that the party entitled to notice was not in fact misled thereby.

Damages.

Notice.

Limitation.

SEC. 1511c. Whenever an employee enters into a contract, either written or verbal, with an independent contractor, to do part of such employer's work, or whenever such contractor enters into a contract with a subcontractor to do all or a part of the work comprised in such contract or contracts with the employer, such contract or subcontract shall not bar the liability of the employer for injuries to the employees of such contractor or subcontractor, by reason of any defect in the condition of the ways, works, machinery or plant, if they are the property of the employer or furnished by him, and if such defect arose or had not been discovered or remedied through the negligence of the employer or of some person intrusted by him with the duty of seeing that they were in proper condition.

Contractors' employees.

CALIFORNIA.

DEERING'S CODES AND STATUTES, 1885.

CIVIL CODE.

Liability of employers for injuries to employees.

- Ordinary risks.** SECTION 1970 (as amended by chapter 97, Acts of 1907). An employer is not bound to indemnify his employee for losses suffered by the latter in consequence of the ordinary risks of the business in which he is employed, nor in consequence of the negligence of another person employed by the same employer in the same general business, unless the negligence causing the injury was committed in the performance of a duty the employer owes by law to the employee, or unless the employer has neglected to use ordinary care in the selection of the culpable employee:
- Superior servants.** *Provided, nevertheless,* That the employer shall be liable for such injury when the same results from the wrongful act, neglect or default of any agent or officer of such employer, superior to the employee injured, or of a person employed by such employer having the right to control or direct the services of such employee injured, and also when such injury results from the wrongful act, neglect or default of a coemployee engaged in another department of labor from that of the employee injured, or employed upon a machine, railroad train, switch signal point, locomotive engine, or other appliance than that upon which the employee [who] is injured is employed, or who is charged with dispatching trains, or transmitting telegraphic or telephonic orders upon any railroad, or in the operation of any mine, factory, machine shop, or other industrial establishment.
- Other departments, etc.**
- Knowledge.** Knowledge by an employee injured of the defective or unsafe character or condition of any machinery, ways, appliances or structures of such employer shall not be a bar to recovery for any injury or death caused thereby, unless it shall also appear that such employee fully understood, comprehended and appreciated the dangers incident to the use of such defective machinery, ways, appliances or structures, and thereafter consented to use the same, or continued in the use thereof.
- Injuries causing death.** When death, whether instantaneous or otherwise, results from an injury to an employee received as aforesaid, the personal representative of such employee shall have a right of action therefor against such employer, and may recover damages in respect thereof, for and on behalf, and for the benefit of the widow, children, dependent parents, and dependent brothers and sisters, in order of precedence as herein stated, but no more than one action shall be brought for such recovery.
- Waivers.** Any contract or agreement, express or implied, made by any such employee to waive the benefits of this section, or any part thereof, shall be null and void, and this section shall not be construed to deprive any such employee or his personal representative, of any right or remedy to which he is now entitled under the laws of this State.
- Contributory negligence.** The rules and principles of law as to contributory negligence which apply to other cases shall apply to cases arising under this section, except in so far as the same are herein modified or changed.
- Sec. 1971. An employer must in all cases indemnify his employees for losses caused by the former's want of ordinary care.
- [Various acts regulating the working of mines provide that violation thereof or willful failure to comply therewith renders persons so offending liable to all damages resulting because of such violation or failure. Acts of March 13, 1872; act of March 27, 1874; acts of 1893, chapter 74.]

DELAWARE.

[An act requiring air brakes to be used on passenger trains makes violators thereof liable in damages for injuries resulting from their violation. Acts of 1903, chapter 394.]

FLORIDA.

GENERAL STATUTES OF 1906.

Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.

SECTION 3148. A railroad company shall be liable for any damage done to persons, stock or other property, by the running of the locomotives, or cars, or other machinery of such company, or for damage done by any person in the employ and service of such company, unless the company shall make it appear that their agents have exercised all ordinary and reasonable care and diligence, the presumption in all cases being against the company.

Damage caused by operation of cars, etc.

SEC. 3149. No person shall recover damages from a railroad company for injury to himself or his property, where the same is done by his consent, or is caused by his own negligence. If the complainant and the agents of the company are both at fault, the former may recover, but the damages shall be diminished or increased by the jury in proportion to the amount of default attributable to him.

Negligence.

Comparative negligence.

SEC. 3150. If any person is injured by a railroad company by the running of the locomotives or cars, or other machinery of such company, he being at the time of such injury an employee of the company, and the damage was caused by negligence of another employee, and without fault or negligence on the part of the person injured, his employment by the company shall be no bar to a recovery. No contract which restricts such liability shall be legal or binding.

Negligence of fellow-servants.

Contracts.

GEORGIA.

CODE OF 1895.

Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.

SECTION 2297. Railroad companies are common carriers, and liable as such. As such companies necessarily have many employees who can not possibly control those who should exercise care and diligence in the running of trains, such companies shall be liable to such employees as to passengers for injuries arising from the want of such care and diligence.

Measure of liability.

SEC. 2321. A railroad company shall be liable for any damage done to persons, stock or other property, by the running of the locomotives, or cars, or other machinery of such company, or for damage done by any person in the employment and service of such company, unless the company shall make it appear that their agents have exercised all ordinary and reasonable care and diligence, the presumption in all cases being against the company.

Damages arising from operation of cars, etc.

SEC. 2322. No person shall recover damage from a railroad company for injury to himself or his property, where the same is done by his consent, or is caused by his own negligence. If the complainant and the agents of the company are both at fault, the former may recover, but the damages shall be diminished by the jury in proportion to the amount of default attributable to him.

Negligence.

Comparative negligence.

SEC. 2323. If the person injured is himself an employee of the company, and the damage was caused by another employee, and without fault or negligence on the part of the person injured, his employment by the company shall be no bar to his recovery.

Negligence of fellow-servants.

SEC. 2324 (as amended by act No. 102, page 63, Acts of 1896). The liability of receivers, trustees, assignees, and other like officers

Measure of liability of receivers.

operating railroads in this State, or partially in this State, for injuries and damages to persons in their employ, caused by the negligence of coemployees, or for injuries or damages to personal property, shall be the same as the liability now fixed by law governing the operation of railroad corporations in this State for like injuries and damages, and a lien is hereby created on the gross income of any such railroad while in the hands of any such receiver, trustee, or assignee, or other persons in favor of such injured employees or plaintiff, superior to all other liens against defendant under the laws of this State.

Liability of employers for injuries to employees.

- Negligence of fellow-servants.** SECTION 2610. Except in case of railroad companies, the master is not liable to one servant for injuries arising from the negligence or misconduct of other servants about the same business.
- Duty of employer.** SEC. 2611. The master is bound to exercise ordinary care in the selection of servants, and not to retain them after knowledge of incompetency; he must use like care in furnishing machinery equal in kind to that in general use, and reasonably safe for all persons who operate it with ordinary care and diligence. If there are latent defects in machinery, or dangers incident to an employment unknown to the servant, of which the master knows, or ought to know, he must give the servant warning in respect thereto.
- Assumption of risk.** SEC. 2612. A servant assumes the ordinary risks of his employment, and is bound to exercise his own skill and diligence to protect himself. In suits for injuries arising from the negligence of the master in failing to comply with the duties imposed by the preceding section, it must appear that the master knew or ought to have known of the incompetency of the other servant, or of the defects or danger in the machinery supplied; and it must also appear that the servant injured did not know and had not equal means of knowing such fact, and by the exercise of ordinary care could not have known thereof.
- Contracts waiving liability.** SEC. 2613. All contracts between master and servant, made in consideration of employment, whereby the master is exempted from liability to the servant arising from the negligence of the master or his servants, as such liability is now fixed by law, shall be null and void, as against public policy.
- Negligence of fellow-servants.** SEC. 3030. The principal is not liable to one agent for injuries arising from the negligence or misconduct of other agents about the same business; the exception in case of railroads has been previously stated.
- Degree of care.** SEC. 3830. If the plaintiff by ordinary care could have avoided the consequences to himself caused by the defendant's negligence, he is not entitled to recover. But in other cases the defendant is not relieved, although the plaintiff may in some way have contributed to the injury sustained.

ILLINOIS.

[An act requiring threshing machines, cornshellers, or any other machine driven by horsepower, to have the tumbling-rods or shafting boxed, makes the owner who fails to comply with the terms of the act liable in damages for injuries occasioned by such noncompliance. Annotated Statutes of 1896, chapter 70, section 4. So also of the act regulating the working of coal mines. Acts of 1899, act, page 300, section 33.]

The railroad safety appliance law of 1905 takes away the defenses of assumed risks and of contributory negligence where an employee is injured because of the company's noncompliance with the law, though the employee knew of it. Acts of 1905, act, page 350, section 9.]

INDIANA.

ANNOTATED STATUTES OF 1894—REVISION OF 1901.

Liability of employers for injuries to employees—Contributory negligence to be matter of defense only.

SECTION 359a. Hereafter in all actions for damages brought on account of the alleged negligence of any person, copartnership or corporation for causing personal injuries, or the death of any person, it shall not be necessary for the plaintiff in such action to allege or prove the want of contributory negligence on the part of the plaintiff, or on the part of the person for whose injury or death the action may be brought. Contributory negligence, on the part of the plaintiff, or such other person, shall be a matter of defense, and such defense may be proved under the answer of general denial: * * *

Actions for injuries, etc.

Contributory negligence.

Contracts of employees waiving right to damages.

SECTION 7082a. All contracts between employer and employee releasing the employer from liability for damages arising out of the negligence of the employer by which the employee is injured, or in case of the employee's death to his representatives, are against public policy, and hereby declared null and void.

Contracts void.

SEC. 7082b. All contracts between employer and employee releasing third persons, copartnerships or corporations from liability for damages arising out of the negligence of such third persons, copartnerships or corporations by which the employee of such employer is injured, or in case of the death of such employee, to his representatives, are against public policy and are hereby declared null and void.

Third persons.

SEC. 7082c. All contracts between an employee and a third person, copartnership or corporation in which it is agreed that the employer of such employee shall be released from liability for damages of such employee arising out of the negligence of the employer, or in case of the death of such employee, to his representatives, are against public policy and are hereby declared null and void: *Provided*, That nothing in this act shall apply to voluntary relief departments, or associations organized for the purpose of insuring employees. Nothing in this act shall be construed to revert back to contracts made prior to the passage of this act. Nor shall this act affect pending litigation: *Provided*, That nothing in any section of this act shall be so construed as to affect or apply to any contract or agreement that may be made between the employer and employee, or in case of death, his next of kin or his representative after an injury to the employee has occurred, but the provisions of this act shall apply solely to contracts made prior to any injury.

Contracts releasing from liability.

Insurance.

Contracts made after injury.

Liability of railroad companies, etc., for injuries to employees.

SECTION 7083. Every railroad or other corporation, except municipal, operating in this State, shall be liable for damages for personal injury suffered by any employee while in its service, the employee so injured being in the exercise of due care and diligence, in the following cases:

Injury caused by—

First. When such injury is suffered by reason of any defect in the condition of ways, works, plant, tools and machinery, connected with or in use in the business of such corporation, when such defect was the result of negligence on the part of the corporation, or some person intrusted by it with the duty of keeping such way, works, plant, tools or machinery in proper condition.

Defects;

Second. Where such injury resulted from the negligence of any person in the service of such corporation, to whose order or direction the injured employee at the time of the injury was bound to conform, and did conform.

Negligence of one in authority;

Obedience to rules; *Third.* Where such injury resulted from the act or omission of any person done or made in obedience to any rule, regulation or by-law of such corporation, or in obedience to the particular instructions given by any person delegated with the authority of the corporation in that behalf.

Negligence of person in charge of railroad signal, etc. *Fourth.* Where such injury was caused by the negligence of any person in the service of such corporation who has charge of any signal, telegraph office, switch yard, shop, roundhouse, locomotive engine or train upon a railway, or where such injury was caused by the negligence of any person, coemployee or fellow-servant engaged in the same common service in any of the several departments of the service of any such corporation, the said person, coemployee or fellow-servant, at the time acting in the place, and performing the duty of the corporation in that behalf, and the person so injured, obeying or conforming to the order of some superior at the time of such injury, having authority to direct; but nothing herein shall be construed to abridge the liability of the corporation under existing laws.

Measure of damages. *SEC. 7085.* The damages recoverable under this act, shall be commensurate with the injury sustained unless death results from such injury, when, in such case, the action shall survive and be governed in all respects by the law now in force as to such actions; *Provided,* That where any such person recovers a judgment against a railroad or other corporation, and such corporation takes an appeal, and, pending such appeal, the injured person dies, and the judgment rendered in the court below be thereafter reversed, the right of action of such person shall survive to his legal representative.

Contracts waiving rights. *SEC. 7087.* All contracts made by railroads or other corporations with their employees, or rules or regulations adopted by any corporation releasing or relieving it from liability to any employee having a right of action under the provisions of this act are hereby declared null and void. The provisions of this act however shall not apply to any injuries sustained before it takes effect, nor shall it affect in any manner any suit or legal proceedings pending at the time it takes effect.

[A provision of the act requiring steam railroads to be equipped with switch lights makes a company violating or failing to comply with the law liable to all persons and employees injured by reason of noncompliance, and takes away the defense of assumption of risk. Section 5173c.

A similar provision appears in a statute directing the equipment of railroad locomotives with engine brakes, the use of automatic couplers, and the placing of grab irons on cars. Acts of 1903, chapter 120.

So also of the safety appliance law of 1907. Acts of 1907, chapter 118; and the act regulating hours of labor of railroad employees. Acts of 1907, chapter 131.

The statute requiring fire escapes to be placed on factories, etc., makes owners who fail to comply with its terms liable in damages for the personal injury or death of any person occasioned by fire in a building not provided with fire escapes. Acts of 1903, chapter 222.

The statute regulating the working of coal mines gives a right of action against the operator of a mine for injuries occasioned by any violation of the act, or willful failure to comply with its provisions. Acts of 1905, chapter 50.]

IOWA.

CODE OF 1897 AND SUPPLEMENT OF 1902.

Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.

Injuries caused by negligence. *SECTION 2071.* Every corporation operating a railway shall be liable for all damages sustained by any person, including employees of such corporation, in consequence of the neglect of the agents, or by any mismanagement of the engineers or other employees.

ployees thereof, and in consequence of the willful wrongs, whether of commission or omission, of such agents, engineers or other employees, when such wrongs are in any manner connected with the use and operation of any railway on or about which they shall be employed, and no contract which restricts such liability shall be legal or binding.

Contracts restricting liability.

Nor shall any contract of insurance, relief, benefit, or indemnity in case of injury or death, entered into prior to the injury, between the person so injured and such corporation, or any other person or association acting for such corporation, nor shall the acceptance of any such insurance, relief, benefit, or indemnity by the person injured, his widow, heirs, or legal representatives after the injury, from such corporation, person, or association, constitute any bar or defense to any cause of action brought under the provisions of this section, but nothing contained herein shall be construed to prevent or invalidate any settlement for damages between the parties subsequent to injuries received.

Contracts of insurance, etc.

[The statute directing the use of power brakes and automatic couplers on railroad trains abrogates the defense of assumed risks in cases of injury to employees occasioned by failure to comply with the law. Section 2083.

Failure to conform with the requirements of the law regulating the working of mines is declared to be culpable negligence in cases of injury resulting therefrom. Section 2492.]

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 181.—*Liability of employers for injuries to employees—Assumption of risk.*

SECTION 1. In all cases where the property, works, machinery or appliances of an employer are defective or out of repair and the employee has knowledge thereof, and has given written notice to the employer, or to any person authorized to receive and accept such notice, or to any person in the service of the employer and intrusted by him with the duty of seeing that the property, works, machinery or appliances are in proper condition, of the particular defect or want of repair or when the employer or such other person has been notified in writing of such defect or want of repair by any person whose duty it is under the rules of the employer or the laws of the State to inspect such works, machinery or appliances, or any person who is subject to the risk incident to such defect or want of repair; no employee after such notice, shall by reason of remaining in the employment with such knowledge, be deemed to have assumed the risk incident to the danger arising from such defect or want of repair.

Notice by employee.

Risk not assumed.

KANSAS.

GENERAL STATUTES OF 1901.

Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.

SECTION 5858 (as amended by chapter 281, Acts of 1907). 1. Every railroad company organized or doing business in the State of Kansas shall be liable for all damages done to any employee of said company in consequence of any negligence of its agents, or by any mismanagement of its engineers or other employees, to any person sustaining such damage; *Provided*, That notice in writing that an injury has been sustained, stating the time and place thereof, shall have been given by or on behalf of the person injured to such railroad company within eight months after the occurrence of the injury; *Provided, however*, That where an action is commenced by the injured person within said eight months, it shall not be necessary to give said notice; *And provided further*, That where any person injured is in the hospital of or under the charge

Negligence of agents and employees.

of the railroad company causing the injury, or is prevented by the effects of said injury, the said eight months shall not begin to run until such injured person is discharged from said hospital or care of said railroad company or until such disability be removed: *Provided further*, That in case said injured person shall die, as a result of said injuries, within said eight months, it shall not be necessary to give said notice: *Provided further*, That said notice need not state whether or not suit is intended to be brought.

Service of
notice.

2. The service mentioned in section 1 hereof may be served by a written copy thereof, by the person injured or any one on his behalf, upon any person designated by the railroad in any county in which the action might be brought, as provided in section 4499 of the General Statutes of Kansas of 1901, or if no such person has been designated or appointed, as in said section provided, then upon any local superintendent of affairs, freight agent, agent to sell tickets or station keeper of such company or corporation in such county, or such service may be made by leaving a copy thereof at any depot or station of such company or corporation in such county, with the person in charge thereof or in the employ of such company or corporation, and such service shall be held and deemed complete and effectual. Proof of such service shall be made by the affidavit of the party making the same, or other persons knowing the facts.

[The statute requiring the installation of fire escapes on factories, and of safety devices in manufacturing establishments, authorizes an action for injuries or death resulting from disregard by the employer of the provisions of the act. Acts of 1903, chapter 356.]

* KENTUCKY.

[An act regulating the construction of railroad bridges and tunnels, and directing the use of air brakes on railroad trains and the blocking of frogs at switches, makes the company liable for injuries resulting from a failure or neglect to comply with the provisions of the law. Statutes of 1903, section 793.]

LOUISIANA.

REVISED CIVIL CODE—EDITION OF 1887.

Liability of employers for injuries to employees.

Negligence. ARTICLE 2316. Every person is responsible for the damage he occasions not merely by his act, but by his negligence, his imprudence, or his want of skill.

Acts of employees, etc. ART. 2317. We are responsible, not only for the damage occasioned by our own act, but for that which is caused by the act of persons for whom we are answerable, or of the things which we have in our custody. * * *

Liability of employers. ART. 2320. Masters and employers are answerable for the damage occasioned by their servants and overseers, in the exercise of the functions in which they are employed.

Teachers and artisans are answerable for the damage caused by their scholars or apprentices, while under their superintendence.

In the above cases, responsibility only attaches, when the masters or employers, teachers and artisans, might have prevented the act which caused the damages, and have not done it.

MARYLAND.

PUBLIC LOCAL LAWS—CODE OF 1888.

ARTICLE 1.—*Liability of operators, etc., of mines for injuries to employees.*

Law applies to whom. SECTION 195a (added by chapter 412, Acts of 1902). Any corporation, partnership, association, individual, individuals, engaged in the business of owning or conducting any coal mines, clay

mines in Allegany or Garrett counties, whether such owner or owners, operator or operators be residents of the State of Maryland or not, employing persons in the operation of mining coal or clay, shall be liable in law to any employee engaged in such occupation or to his legal representatives, in case of death, for the damage arising and flowing from any injury received by said employee through the negligence of said owner or operator or from the negligence of any agent or agents, employee or employees, and if the negligence causing such injury be found to consist of the joint or collective negligence of both the employer, his agent or agents, employee or employees, on the one hand, and of the negligence of the injured employee on the other hand, then it shall be the duty of the jury, or of the court sitting as a jury, to determine and ascertain as near as may be the proportion of such negligence of which each has been guilty, and having ascertained and determined such proportions of negligence causing the injury, it shall be the duty of the jury, or of the court sitting as a jury, to apportion the damages arising from said injury in like proportion or degree and award to the plaintiff or plaintiffs the proportion of damages suffered which it shall have been determined was the proportion of the defendant or defendants' negligence contributing to the injury complained of.

Who may claim benefit.

Negligence.

Comparative negligence.

[The statute regulating the operators of mines in Allegany and Garrett counties makes owners or operators who fail to comply therewith liable in damages for injury or death occasioned by such failure. Article 1 (revision of 1902), section 209n.]

MASSACHUSETTS.

REVISED LAWS OF 1902.

CHAPTER 106.—*Contracts of employees waiving right to damages.*

SECTION 16. No person shall, by a special contract with his employees, exempt himself from liability which he may be under to them for injuries suffered by them in their employment and resulting from the negligence of the employer or of a person in his employ.

Contracts forbidden.

CHAPTER 106.—*Liability of employers for injuries to employees.*

SECTION 71. If personal injury is caused to an employee, who, at the time of the injury, is in the exercise of due care, by reason of:

Injury caused by—

First, A defect in the condition of the ways, works or machinery connected with or used in the business of the employer, which arose from, or had not been discovered or remedied in consequence of, the negligence of the employer or of a person in his service who had been intrusted by him with the duty of seeing that the ways, works or machinery were in proper condition; or,

Defects;

Second, The negligence of a person in the service of the employer who was intrusted with and was exercising superintendence and whose sole or principal duty was that of superintendence, or, in the absence of such superintendent, of a person acting as superintendent with the authority or consent of such employer; or,

Negligence of superintendent;

Third, The negligence of a person in the service of the employer who was in charge or control of a signal, switch, locomotive engine or train upon a railroad;

Person in charge of railroad signal, etc.

The employee, or his legal representatives, shall, subject to the provisions of the eight following sections, have the same rights to compensation and of action against the employer as if he had not been an employee, nor in the service, nor engaged in the work, of the employer.

Status of employee.

A car which is in use by, or which is in possession of, a railroad corporation shall be considered as a part of the ways, works or machinery of the corporation which uses or has it in possession, within the meaning of clause one of this section, whether it is owned by such corporation or by some other company or person.

Definitions.

One or more cars which are in motion, whether attached to an engine or not, shall constitute a train within the meaning of clause three of this section, and whoever, as a part of his duty for the time being, physically controls or directs the movements of a signal, switch, locomotive engine or train shall be deemed to be a person in charge or control of a signal, switch, locomotive engine or train within the meaning of said clause.

Action for injury and death.

Sec. 72 (as amended by chapter 370, Acts of 1906). If the injury described in the preceding section results in the death of the employee, and such death is not instantaneous or is preceded by conscious suffering, and if there is any person who would have been entitled to bring an action under the provisions of the following section, the legal representatives of said employee may, in the action brought under the provisions of the preceding section, recover damages for the death in addition to those for the injury; and in the same action under a separate count at common law, may recover damages for conscious suffering resulting from the same injury.

Action for death.

Sec. 73. If, as the result of negligence of an employer himself, or of a person for whose negligence an employer is liable under the provisions of section seventy-one, an employee is instantly killed, or dies without conscious suffering, his widow or, if he leaves no widow, his next of kin, who, at the time of his death, were dependent upon his wages for support, shall have a right of action for damages against the employer.

Degree of negligence considered.

Sec. 74. If, under the provisions of either of the two preceding sections, damages are awarded for the death, they shall be assessed with reference to the degree of culpability of the employer or of the person for whose negligence the employer is liable.

Limit of damages.

The amount of damages which may be awarded in an action under the provisions of section seventy-one for a personal injury to an employee, in which no damages for his death are awarded under the provisions of section seventy-two, shall not exceed four thousand dollars.

The amount of damages which may be awarded in such action, if damages for his death are awarded under the provisions of section seventy-two, shall not exceed five thousand dollars for both the injury and the death, and shall be apportioned by the jury between the legal representatives of the employee and the persons who would have been entitled, under the provisions of section seventy-three, to bring an action for his death if it had been instantaneous or without conscious suffering.

The amount of damages which may be awarded in an action brought under the provisions of section seventy-three shall not be less than five hundred nor more than five thousand dollars.

Notice.

Sec. 75. No action for the recovery of damages for injury or death under the provisions of sections seventy-one to seventy-four, inclusive, shall be maintained unless notice of the time, place and cause of the injury is given to the employer within sixty days, and the action is commenced within one year, after the accident which caused the injury or death. Such notice shall be in writing, signed by the person injured or by a person in his behalf; but if from physical or mental incapacity it is impossible for the person injured to give the notice within the time provided in this section, he may give it within ten days after such incapacity has been removed, and if he dies without having given the notice and without having been for ten days at any time after his injury of sufficient capacity to give it, his executor or administrator may give such notice within sixty days after his appointment. A notice given under the provisions of this section shall not be held invalid or insufficient solely by reason of an inaccuracy in stating the time, place or cause of the injury, if it is shown that there was no intention to mislead, and that the employer was not in fact misled thereby. The provisions of section twenty-two of chapter fifty-one shall apply to notices under the provisions of this section.

Limitation.

SEC. 76. If an employer enters into a contract, written or verbal, with an independent contractor to do part of such employer's work, or if such contractor enters into a contract with a subcontractor to do all or any part of the work comprised in such contractor's contract with the employer, such contract or subcontract shall not bar the liability of the employer for injuries to the employees of such contractor or subcontractor, caused by any defect in the condition of the ways, works, machinery or plant, if they are the property of the employer or are furnished by him and if such defect arose, or had not been discovered or remedied, through the negligence of the employer or of some person intrusted by him with the duty of seeing that they were in proper condition.

Employees of contractors and subcontractors.

SEC. 77. An employee or his legal representatives shall not be entitled under the provisions of sections seventy-one to seventy-four, inclusive, to any right of action for damages against his employer if such employee knew of the defect or negligence which caused the injury, and failed within a reasonable time to give, or cause to be given, information thereof to the employer, or to some person superior to himself in the service of the employer who was intrusted with general superintendence.

Employee can not recover, when.

SEC. 78. An employer who shall have contributed to an insurance fund created and maintained for the mutual purpose of indemnifying an employee for personal injuries for which compensation may be recovered under the provisions of sections seventy-one to seventy-four, inclusive, or to any relief society formed under the provisions of sections seventeen, eighteen and nineteen of chapter one hundred and twenty-five, may prove in mitigation of the damages recoverable by an employee under the provisions of said sections, such proportion of the pecuniary benefit which has been received by such employee from any such fund or society on account of such contribution of said employer, as the contribution of such employer to such fund or society bears to the whole contribution thereto.

Employer contributing to insurance fund.

SEC. 79. The provisions of the eight preceding sections shall not apply to injuries caused to domestic servants or farm laborers by fellow-employees.

Exemptions.

[The law regulating the construction of buildings to be used as factories, etc., and their equipment with fire escapes and fire extinguishers, makes negligent owners, lessees, or occupants liable to any person injured for all damages caused by violation of its provisions. Chapter 104, section 50.]

The act directing the installation and use of safety appliances on railroads takes away from the negligent company the defense of assumed risks in cases of injury resulting from violations of the act, even though the injured employee knew of the violation. Chapter 111, section 209.]

MINNESOTA.

REVISED LAWS—1905.

Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.

SECTION 2042. Every company owning or operating, as a common carrier or otherwise, a railroad, shall be liable for all damages sustained within this State by any agent or servant thereof, without contributory negligence on his part, by reason of the negligence of any other servant thereof, and no contract, nor any rule or regulation of such company, shall impair or limit such liability. But this section shall not be so construed as to render any railroad company liable for damages sustained by any such agent or servant while engaged in the construction of a new road, or any part thereof, not open to public travel or use.

Acts of fellow-servants.

MISSISSIPPI.
CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE 7.—*Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.*

Negligence of superiors: SECTION 193. Every employee of any railroad corporation shall have the same right and remedies for any injuries suffered by him from the act or omission of said corporation or its employees, as are allowed by law to other persons not employees, where the injury results from the negligence of a superior agent or officer, or of a person having the right to control or direct the services of the party injured, and also when the injury results from the negligence of a fellow-servant engaged in another department of labor from that of the party-injured, or of a fellow-servant on another train of cars, or one engaged about a different piece of work. Knowledge by any employee injured, of the defective or unsafe character or condition of any machinery, ways, or appliances, shall be no defense to an action for injury caused thereby, except as to conductors or engineers in charge of dangerous or unsafe cars, or engines voluntarily operated by them.

Of fellow-servants. Where death ensues from any injury to employees, the legal or personal representatives of the person injured shall have the same right and remedies as are allowed by law to such representatives of other persons. Any contract or agreement, express or implied, made by any employee to waive the benefit of this section shall be null and void; and this section shall not be construed to deprive any employee of a corporation or his legal or personal representative, of any right or remedy that he now has by the law of the land. The legislature may extend the remedies herein provided for to any other class of employees.

Death.

Contracts waiving benefits.

CODE OF 1906.

Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.

Evidence. SECTION 1985. In all actions against railroad companies for damages done to persons or property, proof of injury inflicted by the running of the locomotives or cars of such company shall be prima facie evidence of the want of reasonable skill and care on the part of the servants of the company in reference to such injury. This section shall also apply to passengers and employees of railroad companies.

Acts of superiors: Sec. 4056. Every employee of a railroad corporation shall have the same rights and remedies for an injury suffered by him from the act or omission of the corporation or its employees as are allowed by law to other persons not employees, where the injury results from the negligence of a superior agent or officer, or of a person having the right to control or direct the services of the party injured, and also when the injury results from the negligence of a fellow-servant engaged in another department of labor from that of the party injured, or of a fellow-servant on another train of cars, or one engaged about a different piece of work. Knowledge by an employee injured of the defective or unsafe character or condition of any machinery, ways, or appliances, or of the improper loading of cars, shall not be a defense to an action for injury caused thereby, except as to conductors or engineers in charge of dangerous or unsafe cars or engines voluntarily operated by them. When death ensues from an injury to an employee an action may be brought in the name of the widow of such employee for the death of the husband, or by the husband for the death of his wife, or by [for] the death of a child, or in the name of the child for the death of an only parent, for such damages as may be suffered by them respectively by reason of such death, the damages to be for the use of such widow, husband, or child, ex-

Of fellow-servants.

Death.

cept that in case the widow should have children, the damages shall be distributed as personal property of the husband. The legal or personal representative of the person injured shall have the same rights and remedies as are allowed by law to such representatives of other persons. In every such action the jury may give such damages as shall be fair and just, with reference to the injury resulting from such death to the person suing. Any contract or agreement, expressed or implied, made by an employee to waive the benefit of this section shall be null and void; and this section shall not deprive an employee of a person, natural or artificial, or the legal or personal representatives of such person, of any right or remedy they now have by law.

Waiver.

[A statute that requires telltales or warning strings to be placed over railroad tracks at approaches to overhead bridges or other overhanging objects makes negligent companies liable for the injury or death of a person caused by striking such bridge, etc., even though the person so killed or injured was guilty of contributory negligence. Section 4051.]

MISSOURI.

REVISED STATUTES OF 1899.

Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.

SECTION 2873. Every railroad corporation owning or operating a railroad in this State shall be liable for all damages sustained by any agent or servant thereof while engaged in the work of operating such railroad by reason of the negligence of any other agent or servant thereof; *Provided*, That it may be shown in defense that the person injured was guilty of negligence contributing as a proximate cause to produce the injury.

Negligence of fellow-servants.

SEC. 2874. All persons engaged in the service of any such railroad corporation doing business in this State, who are intrusted by such corporation with the authority of superintendence, control, or command of other persons in the employ or service of such corporation, or with the authority to direct any other servant in the performance of any duty of such servant, or with the duty of inspection or other duty owing by the master to the servant, are vice-principals of such corporation, and are not fellow-servants with such employees.

Vice-principals defined.

SEC. 2875. All persons who are engaged in the common service of such railroad corporation, and who while so engaged, are working together at the same time and place, to a common purpose of same grade, neither of such persons being intrusted by such corporation with any superintendence or control over their fellow-employees, are fellow-servants with each other; *Provided*, That nothing herein contained shall be so construed as to make any agent or servant of such corporation in the service of such corporation a fellow-servant with any other agent or servant of such corporation engaged in any other department or service of such corporation.

Fellow-servants defined.

SEC. 2876. No contract made between any railroad corporation and any of its agents or servants, based upon the contingency of the injury or death of any agent or servant, limiting the liability of such railroad corporation for any damages under the provisions of this act, shall be valid or binding, but all such contracts or agreements shall be null and void.

Contracts limiting liability.

SEC. 2876a (added by act, page 138, Acts of 1905). Whenever the words "railroad companies" or "railroad corporation" shall be found in any section of this chapter it shall be taken and construed to include all companies, corporations, person or persons operating any railroad in this State, and wherever the word "railroad" occurs in any section in this chapter it shall be taken and construed to include all railroads operated in this State by whatever motive or power propelled, and shall include all railroads or

Definitions.

railways, commonly known as street railways, and all railroads operated by terminal companies or associations, known as "terminal railroads" or "railways" as well as all railways or railroads operated anywhere in the State, commonly known as electric railroads, whether they be wholly or in part in the city or country districts. Also all railroads within the country or city operated by what is commonly known as cable or motor power, or by horse power.

ACTS OF 1907.

Liability of mine operators for injury to employees.

(Page 251.)

Acts of fellow-servants. SECTION 1. Every person, company or corporation operating a mine or mines in this State, producing lead, zinc, coal or other valuable minerals, shall be liable for all damages sustained by any agent or servant thereof while engaged in operating such mine or mines, by reason of the negligence of any other agent or servant thereof; *Provided*, That it may be shown in defense that the person injured was guilty of negligence contributing as a proximate cause to produce the injury.

Vice-principals. SEC. 2. All persons engaged in the service of any such person, company or corporation doing business in this State, who are intrusted by such person, company or corporation with the authority of superintendence, control or command of other persons in the employ or service of such person, company or corporation, or with authority to direct any other servant in the performance of any duty of such servant, or with the duty of inspection or other duty owing by the master to the servant, are vice-principals of such person, company or corporation, and are not fellow-servants with such employees.

Fellow-servants. SEC. 3. All persons who are engaged in the common service of such person, company or corporation operating a mine or mines, and while so engaged are working together at the same time and place to a common purpose of the same grade, neither of such persons being intrusted by such person, company or corporation with any superintendence or control over their fellow-employees, are fellow-servants with each other.

Contracts limiting liability. SEC. 4. No contracts made between any person, company or corporation so operating such mine or mines and their agents or servants, based upon the contingency of the injury or death to any such agent or servant, limiting the liability of the employer for any damages under the provisions of this act, shall be valid or binding, but all such contracts or agreements shall be null and void.

Application of law. SEC. 4a. Nothing in this act shall be so construed as applying to or including the operation, construction or repairing of concentrating mills, flumes or tramways wholly above ground.

[The law regulating the working of mines provides that a right of action shall accrue to persons injured or to the heirs or dependents of persons killed because of a failure of the owner or operator to comply with its provisions. Revised Statutes, section 8820.

Laws requiring railroad companies to block switches, frogs, and guard rails, and also to provide automatic couplers, drive-wheel power brakes, and safety appliances on railroad trains take away from companies failing to comply with such laws the defense of contributory negligence in actions for damages where the employee is injured by the company's neglect in these particulars. In the latter law also the employee shall not be deemed to have assumed the risks occasioned by the company's neglect. Acts of 1907, act, page 181; act, page 182.]

NEVADA.

ACTS OF 1905.

CHAPTER 142.—*Right of action for personal injuries.*

SECTION 1. Whenever any person shall suffer personal injury by wrongful act, neglect or default of another, the person causing the injury shall be liable to the person injured for damages; and where the person causing such injury is employed by another person or corporation responsible for his conduct, such person or corporation so responsible shall be liable to the person injured for damages.

Negligent persons liable.

Employers.

SEC. 2. Such liability, however, where not discharged by agreement and settlement shall exist only in so far as the same shall be ascertained and adjudged by a State or Federal court of competent jurisdiction in this State in an action brought for that purpose by the person injured.

Determination of liability.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 214.—*Liability of employers for injuries to employees.*

SECTION 1. Every common carrier engaged in trade or commerce in the State of Nevada, and every mine and mill owner and operator actually engaged in mining, or in milling or reduction of ores, in the State of Nevada, shall be liable to any of its employees, or, in case of the death of such employee, to his personal representative for the benefit of his widow and children, if any, and if none, then for his next of kin, for all damages which may result from the negligence of the officers, agents, or employees of said common carrier or mine or mill operator, or by reason of any defect or insufficiency due to their negligence in its cars, engines, appliances, machinery, track, roadbed, ways or works, or to their negligent handling or storing of explosives.

Acts of employees.

Defects.

SEC. 2. In all actions hereinafter brought against any common carrier or mine or mill owner and operator to recover damages for personal injuries to or death of an employee, the fact that the employee may have been guilty of contributory negligence shall not bar a recovery where his contributory negligence was slight and the negligence of the employer, or its officers, agents, or employees was gross in comparison. All questions of negligence and contributory negligence shall be for the jury.

Comparative negligence.

SEC. 3. No contract of employment, insurance, relief benefit, or indemnity for injury or death, entered into by or on behalf of any employee, nor the acceptance of any insurance, relief benefit or indemnity by the person entitled thereto, shall constitute any bar or defense to any action brought to recover damages for personal injuries to, or death of such employee; *Provided, however,* That upon the trial of such action the defendant may set off therein any sum it has contributed toward any such insurance, relief benefit, or indemnity that may have been paid to the person entitled thereto.

Contracts not a bar.

NEW MEXICO.

COMPILED LAWS OF 1897.

Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.

SECTION 3216. Every corporation operating a railway in this Territory shall be liable in a sum sufficient to compensate such employee for all damages sustained by any employee of such corporation, the person injured or damaged being without fault on his or her part, occurring or sustained in consequence of any mismanagement, carelessness, neglect, default or wrongful act of any agent or employee of such corporation while in the exercise of

Lack of care in selecting employees.

CHAPTER 23.—*Liability of employers for injuries to employees.*

Acts of su- SECTION 1. Every company, corporation, or individual operating
perintendents, any mine, smelter, or mill for the refining of ores shall be liable
etc. for any damages sustained by any employees thereof within this
State, without contributing negligence on his part, when such
damage is caused by the negligence of any superintendent, fore-
man, shift boss, hoisting, or other engineer, or crane men.

Contracts not SEC. 2. No contract of insurance, relief, benefit, or indemnity in
a bar. case of injury or death, nor any other contract entered into be-
fore the injury, between the person injured and any of the em-
ployers named in this act shall constitute any bar or defense to
any cause or action brought under the provision of this act.

Death. SEC. 3. In case of the death of any such employees in conse-
quence of any injury or damages so sustained, the right of action
shall survive and may be prosecuted and maintained by its heirs,
or personal representatives.

NEBRASKA.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 48.—*Liability of railroad companies for injuries to em-
ployees.*

Acts of em- SECTION 1. Every railway company operating a railway engine,
ployees. car or train in the State of Nebraska shall be liable to any of its
employees, who at the time of injury are engaged in construction
or repair work, or in the use and operation of any engine, car or
train for said company, or, in the case of his death, to his per-
sonal representatives for the benefit of his widow and children,
if any, if none, then to his parents, if none, then to his next of
kin dependent upon him, for all damages which may result from
negligence of any of its officers, agents, or employees, or by rea-
son of any defects or insufficiency due to its negligence in its
cars, engines, appliances, machinery, track, roadbed, ways or
works.

Defects. SEC. 2. In all actions hereafter brought against any railway
Comparative company to recover damages for personal injuries to an employee,
negligence. or when such injuries have resulted in his death, the fact that
the employee may have been guilty of contributory negligence shall
not bar a recovery when his contributory negligence was slight
and that of the employer was gross in comparison, but damages
shall be diminished by the jury in proportion to the amount of
negligence attributable to such employee, all questions of negli-
gence and contributory negligence shall be for the jury.

Contracts SEC. 3. No contract of employment, insurance, relief benefit,
not a bar. or indemnity for injury or death hereafter entered into by or
on behalf of any employee nor the acceptance of any such in-
surance, relief benefit, or indemnity by the person entitled thereto,
shall constitute any bar or defense to any action brought to re-
cover damages for personal injuries to or death of such em-
ployee: *Provided, however,* That upon the trial of such action
against any railway company the defendant may set-off any sum
it has contributed toward any such insurance, relief benefit, or
indemnity that may have been paid to the injured employee or,
in case of his death, to his personal representatives.

[The statute directing the use of automatic couplers and power
brakes on railroad trains provides that employees injured because
of violation of the law shall not be considered as waiving rights
to recover damages by continuing in the service of the negligent
company. Compiled Statutes of 1881, Tenth Edition, section 1799.]

NEVADA.

ACTS OF 1905.

CHAPTER 142.—*Right of action for personal injuries.*

SECTION 1. Whenever any person shall suffer personal injury by wrongful act, neglect or default of another, the person causing the injury shall be liable to the person injured for damages; and where the person causing such injury is employed by another person or corporation responsible for his conduct, such person or corporation so responsible shall be liable to the person injured for damages.

Negligent persons liable.

Employers.

SEC. 2. Such liability, however, where not discharged by agreement and settlement shall exist only in so far as the same shall be ascertained and adjudged by a State or Federal court of competent jurisdiction in this State in an action brought for that purpose by the person injured.

Determination of liability.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 214.—*Liability of employers for injuries to employees.*

SECTION 1. Every common carrier engaged in trade or commerce in the State of Nevada, and every mine and mill owner and operator actually engaged in mining, or in milling or reduction of ores, in the State of Nevada, shall be liable to any of its employees, or, in case of the death of such employee, to his personal representative for the benefit of his widow and children, if any, and if none, then for his next of kin, for all damages which may result from the negligence of the officers, agents, or employees of said common carrier or mine or mill operator, or by reason of any defect or insufficiency due to their negligence in its cars, engines, appliances, machinery, track, roadbed, ways or works, or to their negligent handling or storing of explosives.

Acts of employees.

Defects.

SEC. 2. In all actions hereinafter brought against any common carrier or mine or mill owner and operator to recover damages for personal injuries to or death of an employee, the fact that the employee may have been guilty of contributory negligence shall not bar a recovery where his contributory negligence was slight and the negligence of the employer, or its officers, agents, or employees was gross in comparison. All questions of negligence and contributory negligence shall be for the jury.

Comparative negligence.

SEC. 3. No contract of employment, insurance, relief benefit, or indemnity for injury or death, entered into by or on behalf of any employee, nor the acceptance of any insurance, relief benefit or indemnity by the person entitled thereto, shall constitute any bar or defense to any action brought to recover damages for personal injuries to, or death of such employee: *Provided, however,* That upon the trial of such action the defendant may set off therein any sum it has contributed toward any such insurance, relief benefit, or indemnity that may have been paid to the person entitled thereto.

Contracts not a bar.

NEW MEXICO.

COMPILED LAWS OF 1897.

Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.

SECTION 3216. Every corporation operating a railway in this Territory shall be liable in a sum sufficient to compensate such employee for all damages sustained by any employee of such corporation, the person injured or damaged being without fault on his or her part, occurring or sustained in consequence of any mismanagement, carelessness, neglect, default or wrongful act of any agent or employee of such corporation while in the exercise of

Lack of care in selecting employees.

- their several duties, when such mismanagement, carelessness, neglect, default or wrongful act of such employee or agent could have been avoided by such corporation through the exercise of reasonable care or diligence in the selection of competent employees or agents, or by not overworking said employees or requiring or allowing them to work an unusual or unreasonable number of hours; and any contract restricting such liability shall be deemed to be contrary to the public policy of this Territory and therefore void.
- Overworking employees.** Sec. 3217. It shall be unlawful for any such corporation knowingly and willfully to use or operate any car or locomotive that is defective, or any car or locomotive upon which the machinery or attachments thereto belonging are in any manner defective, or shops or machinery and attachments thereof which are in any manner defective, which defects might have been previously ascertained by ordinary care and diligence by said corporation.
- Use of defective cars, etc.** If the employee of any such corporation shall receive any injury by reason of such defect in any car or locomotive or machinery or attachments thereto belonging, or shops or machinery and attachments thereof, owned and operated, or being run and operated by such corporation, through no fault of his own, such corporation shall be liable for such injury, and upon proof of the same in an action brought by such employee or his legal representatives, in any court of proper jurisdiction, against such railroad corporation for damages on account of such injury so received, shall be entitled to recover against such corporation any sum commensurate with the injuries sustained: *Provided*, That it shall be the duty of all the employees of railroad corporations to promptly report all defects coming to their knowledge in any such car or locomotive or shops or machinery and attachments thereof to the proper officer or agent of such corporation and after such report the doctrine of contributory negligence shall not apply to such employee.
- Damages.** Sec. 3218. Whenever the death of an employee shall be caused under circumstances from which a cause of action would have accrued under the provisions of the two preceding sections, if death had not ensued, an action therefor shall be brought in the manner provided by section three thousand two hundred and fifteen, and any sum recovered therein shall be subject to all of the provisions of said section three thousand two hundred and fifteen.
- Proviso.**
- Death.**

NEW YORK.

ACTS OF 1902.

CHAPTER 600.—*Liability of employers for injuries to employees.*

- Injuries caused by—** SECTION 1. Where, after this act takes effect, personal injury is caused to an employee who is himself in the exercise of due care and diligence at the time:
- Defective machinery;** 1. By reason of any defect in the condition of the ways, works or machinery connected with or used in the business of the employer which arose from or had not been discovered or remedied owing to the negligence of the employer or of any person in the service of the employer and intrusted by him with the duty of seeing that the ways, works or machinery were in proper condition;
- Negligence of superintendent.** 2. By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer intrusted with and exercising superintendence whose sole or principal duty is that of superintendence, or in the absence of such superintendent, of any person acting as superintendent with the authority or consent of such employer; the employee, or in case the injury results in death, the executor or administrator of a deceased employee who has left him
- Right of action.** surviving a husband, wife or next of kin, shall have the same right of compensation and remedies against the employer as if the employee has not been an employee of nor in the service of the employer nor engaged in his work. The provisions of law relating to actions for causing death by negligence, so far as the same

consistent with this act, shall apply to an action brought by an executor or administrator of a deceased employee suing under the provisions of this act.

Sec. 2. No action for recovery of compensation for injury or death under this act shall be maintained unless notice of the time, place and cause of the injury is given to the employer within one hundred and twenty days and the action is commenced within one year after the occurrence of the accident causing the injury or death. The notice required by this section shall be in writing and signed by the person injured or by some one in his behalf, but if from physical or mental incapacity it is impossible for the person injured to give notice within the time provided in said section, he may give the same within ten days after such incapacity is removed. In case of his death without having given such notice, his executor or administrator may give such notice within sixty days after his appointment, but no notice under the provisions of this section shall be deemed to be invalid or insufficient solely by reason of any inaccuracy in stating the time, place or cause of the injury if it be shown that there was no intention to mislead and that the party entitled to notice was not in fact misled thereby. The notice required by this section shall be served on the employer or if there is more than one employer, upon one of such employers, and may be served by delivering the same to or at the residence or place of business of the person on whom it is to be served. The notice may be served by post by letter addressed to the person on whom it is to be served, at his last known place of residence or place of business and if served by post shall be deemed to have been served at the time when the letter containing the same would be delivered in the ordinary course of the post. When the employer is a corporation, notice shall be served by delivering the same or by sending it by post addressed to the office or principal place of business of such corporation.

Sec. 3. An employee by entering upon or continuing in the service of the employer shall be presumed to have assented to the necessary risks of the occupation or employment and no others. The necessary risks of the occupation or employment shall, in all cases arising after this act takes effect be considered as including those risks, and those only, inherent in the nature of the business which remain after the employer has exercised due care in providing for the safety of his employees, and has complied with the laws affecting or regulating such business or occupation for the greater safety of such employees. In an action maintained for the recovery of damages for personal injuries to an employee received after this act takes effect, owing to any cause for which the employer would otherwise be liable, the fact that the employee continued in the service of the employer in the same place and course of employment after the discovery by such employee, or after he had been informed of, the danger of personal injury therefrom, shall not, as a matter of law, be considered as an assent by such employee to the existence or continuance of such risks of personal injury therefrom, or as negligence contributing to such injury. The question whether the employee understood and assumed the risk of such injury, or was guilty of contributory negligence, by his continuance in the same place and course of employment with knowledge of the risk of injury shall be one of fact, subject to the usual powers of the court in a proper case to set aside a verdict rendered contrary to the evidence. An employee, or his legal representative, shall not be entitled under this act to any right of compensation or remedy against the employer in any case where such employee knew of the defect or negligence which caused the injury and failed, within a reasonable time, to give, or cause to be given, information thereof to the employer, or to some person superior to himself in the service of the employer who had intrusted to him some general superintendence, unless it shall appear on the trial that such defect or negligence was known to such employer, or superior person, prior to such injuries to the employee.

Limitation.

Notice.

Assumed risks.

Knowledge of defect.

Failure to report.

Contribution
through insur-
ance fund.

SEC. 4. An employer who shall have contributed to an insurance fund created and maintained for the mutual purpose of indemnifying an employee for personal injuries, for which compensation may be recovered under this act, or to any relief society or benefit fund created under the laws of this State, may prove in mitigation of damages recoverable by an employee under this act such proportion of the pecuniary benefit which has been received by such employee from such fund or society on account of such contribution of employer, as the contribution of such employer to such fund or society bears to the whole contribution thereto.

Act con-
strued.

SEC. 5. Every existing right of action for negligence or to recover damages for injuries resulting in death is continued and nothing in this act contained shall be construed as limiting any such right of action, nor shall the failure to give the notice provided for in section two of this act be a bar to the maintenance of a suit upon any such existing right of action.

ACTS OF 1906.

CHAPTER 657.—*Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.*

SECTION 1. Chapter five hundred and sixty-five of the laws of eighteen hundred and ninety, * * * [relating to the organization, etc., of railroads] is hereby amended by adding thereto a new section, to be known as section forty-two-a, as follows:

Liability con-
tinued.

Section 42-a. In all actions against a railroad corporation, foreign or domestic, doing business in this State, or against a receiver thereof, for personal injury to, or death resulting from personal injury of any person, while in the employment of such corporation, or receiver, arising from the negligence of such corporation or receiver or of any of its or his officers or employees, every employee, or his legal representatives, shall have the same rights and remedies for an injury, or for death, suffered by him from the act or omission of such corporation or receiver or of its

Additional
liability.

or his officers or employees, as are now allowed by law, and, in addition to the liability now existing by law, it shall be held in such actions that persons engaged in the service of any railroad corporation, foreign or domestic, doing business in this State, or in the service of a receiver thereof, who are intrusted by such corporation or receiver, with the authority of superintendence, control or command of other persons in the employment of such corporation or receiver, or with the authority to direct or control any other employee in the performance of the duty of such employee, or who have, as a part of their duty, for the time being, physical control or direction of the movement of a signal, switch, locomotive engine, car, train or telegraph office, are vice-principals of such corporation or receiver, and are not fellow-servants of such injured or deceased employee. If an employee, engaged in the service of any such railroad corporation, or of a receiver thereof, shall receive any injury by reason of any defect in the condition of the ways, works, machinery, plant, tools or implements, or of any car, train, locomotive or attachment thereto belonging, owned or operated, or being run and operated by such corporation or receiver, when such defect could have been discovered by such corporation or receiver, by reasonable and proper care, tests or inspection, such corporation or receiver, shall be deemed to have had knowledge of such defect before and at the time such injury is sustained; and when the fact of such defect shall be proved upon the trial of any action in the courts of this State, brought by such employee or his legal representatives, against any such railroad corporation or receiver, on account of such injuries so received, the same shall be prima facie evidence of negligence on the part of such corporation or receiver. This section shall not affect actions or causes of action now existing; and no contract, receipt, rule or regulation, between an employee and a railroad corporation or receiver, shall exempt or limit the liability of such corporation or receiver from the provisions of this section.

Vice-princi-
pals.

Defects.

Contracts.

SEC. 3365-21. It shall be unlawful for any such corporation to knowingly or negligently use or operate any car or locomotive that is defective, or any car or locomotive upon which the machinery or attachments thereto belonging are in any manner defective. If the employee of any such corporation shall receive any injury by reason of any defect in any car or locomotive, or the machinery or attachments thereto belonging, owned and operated, or being run and operated by such corporation, such corporation shall be deemed to have had knowledge of such defect before and at the time such injury is so sustained, and when the fact of such defect shall be made to appear in the trial of any action in the courts of this State, brought by such employee, or his legal representatives, against any railroad corporation for damages, on account of such injuries so received, the same shall be prima facie evidence of negligence on the part of such corporation.

Use of defective machinery.

Evidence.

SEC. 3365-22. In all actions against the railroad company for personal injury to, or death resulting from personal injury, of any person, while in the employ of such company, arising from the negligence of such company or any of its officers or employees, it shall be held in addition to the liability now existing by law, that every person in the employ of such company, actually having power or authority to direct or control any other employee of such company, is not the fellow-servant, but superior of such other employee, also that every person in the employ of such company having charge or control of employees in any separate branch or department, shall be held to be the superior and not fellow-servant of employees in any other branch or department who have no power to direct or control in the branch or department in which they are employed.

Superior servants.

ACTS OF 1902.

Liabilities of employers for injuries to employees.

(Page 114.)

SECTION 1. An employer shall be responsible in damages for personal injury caused to an employee, who is himself in the exercise of due care and diligence at the time, by reason of any defect in the condition of the machinery or appliances connected with or used in the business of the employer, which arose from, or had not been discovered or remedied owing to the negligence of the employer, or of any person in the service of the employer, intrusted by him with the duty of inspection, repair, or of seeing that the machinery or appliances were in proper condition.

Injuries resulting from defective machinery, etc.

ACTS OF 1904.

Employers' liability—Assumption of risk.

(Page 547.)

SECTION 1. In any action brought by an employee, or his legal representative, against his employer, to recover for personal injuries, when it shall appear that the injury was caused in whole or in part by the negligent omission of such employer to guard or protect his machinery or appliances, or the premises or place where said employee was employed, in the manner required by any penal statute of the State or United States in force at the date of the passage of this act, the fact that such employee continued in said employment with knowledge of such omission, shall not operate as a defense; and in such action, if the jury find for the plaintiff, it may award such damages not exceeding, for injuries resulting in death, the sum of five thousand dollars, and for injuries not so resulting, the sum of three thousand dollars, as it may find proportioned to the pecuniary damages resulting

Failure to provide guards, etc.

or where such injuries have resulted in his death, the fact that the employee may have been guilty of contributory negligence shall not bar a recovery, where his contributory negligence was slight and that of the employer was gross in comparison, but the damages shall be diminished by the jury in proportion to the amount of negligence attributable to such employee. All questions of negligence and contributory negligence shall be for the jury.

Contracts not
a bar.

SEC. 3. No contract of employment, insurance, relief benefit or indemnity for injury or death entered into by or on behalf of any employee, nor the acceptance of any such insurance, relief benefit or indemnity by the person entitled thereto shall constitute a bar or defense to any action brought to recover damages for personal injuries to or death of such employee: *Provided, however,* That upon the trial of said action against any common carrier, the defendant may set off therein any sum it has contributed toward any such insurance, relief benefit or indemnity that may have been made to the injured employee, or in case of his death, to his personal representative.

Limitation.

SEC. 4. No action shall be maintained under this act unless commenced within one year from the time the cause of action accrued.

OHIO.

BATES'S ANNOTATED STATUTES—THIRD EDITION.

Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees, etc.

Contracts
waiving claims
for damages.

SEC. 3365-20. It shall be unlawful for any railroad or railway corporation or company owning and operating, or operating,

* * * a railroad in whole or in part in this State, to adopt or promulgate any rule or regulation for the government of its servants or employees, or make or enter into any contract or agreement with any person engaged in or about to engage in its service, in which, or by the terms of which, such employee in any manner, directly or indirectly, promises or agrees to hold such corporation or company harmless, on account of any injury he may receive by reason of an accident to, breakage, defect or insufficiency in the cars or machinery and attachments thereto belonging, upon any cars so owned and operated, or being run and operated by such corporation, or company being defective, and any such rule, regulation, contract or agreement shall be of no effect. It shall be

Compelling
to join relief
society.

unlawful for any corporation to compel or require directly or indirectly an employee to join any company association whatsoever, or to withhold any part of an employee's wages or his salary for the payment of dues or assessments in any society or organization whatsoever, or demand or require either as a condition precedent to securing employment or being employed, and said railroad or railway company shall not discharge any employee because he refuses or neglects to become a member of any society or organization. And if any employee is discharged he may, at any time within ten days after receiving a notice of his discharge, demand

Reason for
discharge.

the reason of said discharge, and said railway or railroad company thereupon shall furnish said reason to said discharged employee in writing. And no railroad company, insurance society or association, or other person shall demand, accept, require, or enter into any contract, agreement, stipulation with any person about to enter, or in the employ of any railroad company whereby

Waiving
claims for dam-
ages.

such person stipulates or agrees to surrender or waive any right to damages against any railroad company, thereafter arising for personal injury or death, or whereby he agrees to surrender or waive in case he asserts the same, any other right whatsoever, and all such stipulations and agreements shall be void, and every corporation, association or person violating or aiding or abetting in the violation of this section shall for each offense forfeit and pay to the person wronged or deprived of his rights hereunder the sum not less than fifty dollars (\$50) nor more than five hundred dollars (\$500) to be recovered in a civil action.

Sec. 3365-21. It shall be unlawful for any such corporation to knowingly or negligently use or operate any car or locomotive that is defective, or any car or locomotive upon which the machinery or attachments thereto belonging are in any manner defective. If the employee of any such corporation shall receive any injury by reason of any defect in any car or locomotive, or the machinery or attachments thereto belonging, owned and operated, or being run and operated by such corporation, such corporation shall be deemed to have had knowledge of such defect before and at the time such injury is so sustained, and when the fact of such defect shall be made to appear in the trial of any action in the courts of this State, brought by such employee, or his legal representatives, against any railroad corporation for damages, on account of such injuries so received, the same shall be prima facie evidence of negligence on the part of such corporation.

Use of defective machinery.

Evidence.

Sec. 3365-22. In all actions against the railroad company for personal injury to, or death resulting from personal injury, of any person, while in the employ of such company, arising from the negligence of such company or any of its officers or employees, it shall be held in addition to the liability now existing by law, that every person in the employ of such company, actually having power or authority to direct or control any other employee of such company, is not the fellow-servant, but superior of such other employee, also that every person in the employ of such company having charge or control of employees in any separate branch or department, shall be held to be the superior and not fellow-servant of employees in any other branch or department who have no power to direct or control in the branch or department in which they are employed.

Superior servants.

ACTS OF 1902.

Liabilities of employers for injuries to employees.

(Page 114.)

SECTION 1. An employer shall be responsible in damages for personal injury caused to an employee, who is himself in the exercise of due care and diligence at the time, by reason of any defect in the condition of the machinery or appliances connected with or used in the business of the employer, which arose from, or had not been discovered or remedied owing to the negligence of the employer, or of any person in the service of the employer, intrusted by him with the duty of inspection, repair, or of seeing that the machinery or appliances were in proper condition.

Injuries resulting from defective machinery, etc.

ACTS OF 1904.

Employers' liability—Assumption of risk.

(Page 547.)

SECTION 1. In any action brought by an employee, or his legal representative, against his employer, to recover for personal injuries, when it shall appear that the injury was caused in whole or in part by the negligent omission of such employer to guard or protect his machinery or appliances, or the premises or place where said employee was employed, in the manner required by any penal statute of the State or United States in force at the date of the passage of this act, the fact that such employee continued in said employment with knowledge of such omission, shall not operate as a defense; and in such action, if the jury find for the plaintiff, it may award such damages not exceeding, for injuries resulting in death, the sum of five thousand dollars, and for injuries not so resulting, the sum of three thousand dollars, as it may find proportioned to the pecuniary damages resulting

Failure to provide guards, etc.

from said injuries; but nothing herein shall affect the provisions of section 6135 of the Revised Statutes.

Nothing herein contained shall be construed as affecting the defense of contributory negligence, nor the admissibility of evidence competent to support such defense.

[The statute regulating the working of mines gives a right of action for injuries or death occasioned by any violation of the act or any willful failure to comply with its provisions. An. Stat., section 301.

A railroad company whose superintendent or station agent has received notice of a defective coupler or brake is liable for injuries occasioned by such defect after the expiration of twenty-four hours after the notice has been received. An. Stat., section 3365f.

A statute directing the use of self-cleaning ash dump pans on railroad locomotives denies to companies neglecting to comply with the law the defense of contributory negligence or of assumed risks in actions for personal injury to or death of any engineer or fireman occasioned by such negligence. Acts of 1906, page 46.

A statute directing the installation of power or train brakes and of automatic couplers on railway trains provides that in actions for injuries or death caused by failure to observe the law the defenses of assumed risks and contributory negligence will not be allowed. Acts of 1906, act, page 75.]

OKLAHOMA.

CONSTITUTION OF 1907.

ARTICLE IX.—*Liability of employers for injuries to employees.*

Fellow-serv-
ice not a de-
fense.

Death.

SECTION 36. The common law doctrine of the fellow-servant, so far as it affects the liability of the master for injuries to his servant, resulting from the acts or omissions of any other servant or servants of the common master, is abrogated as to every employee of every railroad company and every street railway company or interurban railway company, and of every person, firm, or corporation engaged in mining in this State; and every such employee shall have the same right to recover for every injury suffered by him for the acts or omissions of any other employee or employees of the common master that a servant would have if such acts or omissions were those of the master himself in the performance of a nonassignable duty; and when death, whether instantaneous or not, results to such employee from any injury for which he could have recovered under the above provisions, had not death occurred, then his legal or personal representative, surviving consort or relatives, or any trustee, curator, committee or guardian of such consort or relatives, shall have the same rights and remedies with respect thereto, as if death had been caused by the negligence of the master. And every railroad company and every street railway company or interurban railway company, and every person, firm, or corporation engaged in underground mining in this State shall be liable under this section, for the acts of his or its receivers.

Nothing contained in this section shall restrict the power of the legislature to extend to the employees of any person, firm, or corporation, the rights and remedies herein provided for.

ARTICLE XXIII.—*Contributory negligence and assumption of risk.*

Questions
for jury.

SECTION 6. The defense of contributory negligence or of assumption of risk shall, in all cases whatsoever, be a question of fact, and shall, at all times, be left to the jury.

OREGON.

ACTS OF 1903.

Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.

(Page 20.)

SECTION 1. Every corporation operating a railroad in this State, whether such corporation be created under the laws of this State, or otherwise, shall be liable in damages for any and all injury sustained by any employee of such corporation as follows: When such injury results from the wrongful act, neglect, or default of an agent or officer of such corporation, superior to the employee injured, or of a person employed by such corporation having the right to control or direct the services of such employee injured, or the services of the employee by whom he is injured; and also when such injury results from the wrongful act, neglect, or default of a coemployee engaged in another department of labor from that of the employee injured, or of a coemployee on another train of cars, or of a coemployee who has charge of any switch, signal point, or locomotive engine, or who is charged with dispatching trains or transmitting telegraphic or telephonic orders. Knowledge by an employee injured of the defective or unsafe character or condition of any machinery, ways, appliances, or structures of such corporation shall not of itself be a bar to recovery for any injury or death caused thereby. When death, whether instantaneous, or otherwise, results from an injury to any employee of such corporation received as aforesaid, the personal representative of such employee shall have a right of action therefor against such corporation, and may recover damages in respect thereof. Any contract or agreement, express or implied, made by any such employee to waive the benefit of this section, or any part thereof, shall be null and void, and this section shall not be construed to deprive any such employee, or his personal representative, of any right or remedy to which he is now entitled under the laws of this State. Company liable, when.

SEC. 2. The rules and principles of law as to contributory negligence which apply to other cases shall apply to cases arising under this act, except in so far as the same are herein modified or changed. Contributory negligence.

[Employees whose failure to comply with the factory inspection law causes injury to employees are liable to such employees in damages. Acts of 1907, chapter 158, section 8.]

PENNSYLVANIA.

ACTS OF 1907.

ACT No. 329.—*Liability of employers for injuries to employees.*

SECTION 1. In all actions brought to recover from an employer for injuries suffered by his employee, the negligence of a fellow-servant of the employee shall not be a defense, where the injury was caused or contributed to by any of the following causes; namely, Fellow-servant not a defense, when.

Any defect in the works, plant, or machinery, of which the employer could have had knowledge by the exercise of ordinary care; the neglect of any person engaged as superintendent, manager, foreman, or any other person in charge or control of the works, plant, or machinery; the negligence of any person in charge of or directing the particular work in which the employee was engaged at the time of the injury or death; the negligence of any person to whose orders the employee was bound to conform, and did conform, and, by reason of his having conformed thereto, the injury or death resulted; the act of any fellow-servant, done

in obedience to the rules, instructions, or orders given by the employer, or any other person who has authority to direct the doing of said act.

Vice-principals. SEC. 2. The manager, superintendent, foreman, or other person in charge or control of the works, or any part of the works, shall, under this act, be held as the agent of the employer, in all suits for damages for death or injury suffered by employees.

PORTO RICO.

REVISED STATUTES—1902.

Liability of employers for injuries to employees.

Injury caused by— SECTION 322. Where, after the passage of this act, personal injury is caused to an employee who is himself in the exercise of due care and diligence at the time;

Defective machinery; 1. By reason of any defect in the condition of the ways, works, or machinery, connected with, or used in the business of the employer, which arose from or had not been discovered or remedied owing to the negligence of the employer or of any person in the service of the employer and intrusted by him with the duty of seeing that the ways, works, or machinery, were in proper condition; or

Negligence of superintendent; 2. By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer intrusted with the exercising of superintendence whose sole or principal duty is that of superintendence; or

Person in charge of locomotive, etc. Who may sue. 3. By reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer who has charge of, or physically controls, any signal switch, locomotive engine, car or train in motion, whether attached to an engine or not, upon a railroad, the employee, or, in case the injury results in death, his widow or children, or both of them, and if there be no such widow and children, then his parents (provided that said parents were dependent upon such employee for support) may maintain an action for damages against the employer, pursuant to the provisions of this act.

Damages. SEC. 323. When an employee receives a personal injury under any of the conditions enumerated in section 1 hereof [sec. 322], he may bring an action against his employer before the proper district court, to recover damages for such injury. The damages so recovered shall not exceed the sum of two thousand dollars, and in assessing the amount of such damages the court shall take into consideration the degree of culpability of the employer, or of the person for whose negligence the employer is liable hereunder, the sums expended by the employee for medical attendance, for drugs, medicines and similar necessary expenses, and the loss of wages while recovering from the injury; the court shall also take into consideration the physical pain and suffering caused by the injury. If the injury be of such character as to permanently impair the earning capacity of the employee, the court shall include in the damages awarded an allowance for such loss. In case the injury results in a temporary impairment of his earning capacity, the court, in addition to pain and suffering and the expenditures for medical services and drugs, shall take into consideration the average rate of wages which, under ordinary conditions, he might have earned if not injured.

Survival of action. SEC. 324. In case of the death of the employee before the termination of the action so brought against the employer, it may be continued in the name of his widow or children, and if there be no such widow or children, then in the name of his parents, if they, or either of them, were dependent upon such employee for support at the time of the injury. If it shall appear in any action so continued in the name of the widow, children or parents of a deceased injured employee that the death was the result of the injury, damages shall be assessed by the court in a sum not to exceed three thousand dollars; and the court shall estimate such damages in accordance with:

Limit of damages.

CODE OF 1902.

CIVIL CODE.

Rights and remedies of employees on street railways.

SECTION 2848. Every employee of any street railway doing business in this State shall have the same rights and remedies for an injury suffered by any person from the acts or omission of said corporation, or its employees, as are provided by the constitution for employees of railroad corporations.

What remedies apply.

ACTS OF 1903.

ACT No. 48.—*Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees—Relief departments.*

SECTION 1. From and after the approval of this act, when any railroad company has what is usually called a relief department for its employees, the members of which are required or permitted to pay some dues, fees, moneys or compensation to be entitled to the benefits thereof, upon the death or injury of the employee, a member of such relief department, such railroad company is hereby required to pay to the person entitled to same, the amount it was agreed the employee or his heirs at law should receive from such relief department; the acceptance of which amount shall not operate to estop or in any way bar the right of such employee, or his personal representative, from recovering damages of such railroad company for injury or death caused by the negligence of such company, its agents or servants, as now provided by law; and any contract, or agreement to the contrary, shall be ineffective for that purpose.

Settlement required at death, etc.

Benefit not a bar to action for damages.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

REVISED CODES OF 1903.

CIVIL CODE.

Liability of employers for injuries to employees.

SECTION 1449. An employer is not bound to indemnify his employee for losses suffered by the latter in consequence of the ordinary risks of the business in which he is employed, nor in consequence of the negligence of another person employed by the same employer in the same general business, unless he has neglected to use ordinary care in the selection of the culpable employee.

Ordinary risks.

Sec. 1450. An employer must in all cases indemnify his employee for losses caused by the former's want of ordinary care.

Want of care.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 219.—*Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.*

SECTION 1. Every common carrier engaged in trade or commerce in the State of South Dakota shall be liable to any of its employees, or in case of his death, to his personal representative for the benefit of his widow and children, if any, if none, then for his parents, if none, then for his next of kin dependent upon him, for all damages which may result from the negligence of any of its officers, agents or employees, or by reason of any defect or insufficiency due to its negligence in its cars, engines, appliances, machinery, track, road-bed, ways or works.

Acts of employees.

Defects.

Sec. 2. In all actions hereafter brought against any common carrier to recover damages for personal injuries to an employee, or where such injuries have resulted in his death, the fact that

Comparative negligence.

Knowledge of defect a bar. SEC. 329. No employee, or his widow or children, or either of them, or his parents, if there be no such widow or children, shall be entitled under this act to any right of compensation or remedy against the employer in any case where such employee knew of the defect or negligence which caused the injury, and failed within a reasonable time to give, or cause to be given, information thereof to the employer, or to some person superior to himself in the service of the employer who had intrusted to him some general superintendence.

Contribution to insurance fund. SEC. 330. Any employer who shall have contributed to an insurance fund created and maintained for the mutual purpose of indemnifying an employee for personal injuries for which compensation may be recovered under this act, or who has insured the said employee in any insurance company against the accidents of labor, shall be entitled to have deducted from the sum which he shall have to pay as compensation under the provisions of this act, the amount that shall have been received by the person injured, or by his widow, or children, or both of them, or by the parents, if there be no such widow and children, from the aforesaid fund or from the insurance company, by reason of the same accident.

Exceptions. SEC. 331. This act shall not apply to injuries caused to domestic servants, or farm laborers, by fellow employees.

RHODE ISLAND.

[The statute directing the equipment of certain buildings, including factories, with fire escapes, and the guarding of elevator shafts, etc., makes owners and lessees liable in damages for injuries or death caused by a failure to comply with its provisions. General Laws of 1896, chapter 108, sections 8 and 16.]

SOUTH CAROLINA.

CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE 9.—*Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.*

Negligence of superior; SECTION 15. Every employee of any railroad corporation shall have the same rights and remedies for any injury suffered by him from the acts or omissions of said corporations or its employees as are allowed by law to other persons not employees, when the injury results from the negligence of a superior agent or officer, or of a person having a right to control or direct the services

Of fellow-servants in another department. of a party injured, and also when the injury results from the negligence of a fellow-servant engaged in another department of labor from that of the party injured, or of a fellow-servant on another train of cars, or one engaged about a different piece of work.

Knowledge of defective machinery. Knowledge by any employee injured of the defective or unsafe character or condition of any machinery, ways or appliances shall be no defense to an action for injury caused thereby, except as to conductors or engineers in charge of dangerous or unsafe cars or

Injury causing death. engines voluntarily operated by them. When death ensues from any injury to employees, the legal or personal representatives of the person injured shall have the same right and remedies as are

Contract waiving rights. allowed by law to such representatives of other persons. Any contract or agreement, expressed or implied, made by any employee to waive the benefit of this section shall be null and void; and this section shall not be construed to deprive any employee of a corporation, or his legal or personal representative, of any remedy or right that he now has by the law of the land. The general assembly may extend the remedies herein provided for to any other class of employees.

CODE OF 1902.

CIVIL CODE.

Rights and remedies of employeess on street railways.

SECTION 2848. Every employee of any street railway doing business in this State shall have the same rights and remedies for an injury suffered by any person from the acts or omission of said corporation, or its employees, as are provided by the constitution for employees of railroad corporations.

What remedies apply.

ACTS OF 1903.

ACT No. 48.—*Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employeess—Relief departments.*

SECTION 1. From and after the approval of this act, when any railroad company has what is usually called a relief department for its employees, the members of which are required or permitted to pay some dues, fees, moneys or compensation to be entitled to the benefits thereof, upon the death or injury of the employee, a member of such relief department, such railroad company is hereby required to pay to the person entitled to same, the amount it was agreed the employee or his heirs at law should receive from such relief department; the acceptance of which amount shall not operate to estop or in any way bar the right of such employee, or his personal representative, from recovering damages of such railroad company for injury or death caused by the negligence of such company, its agents or servants, as now provided by law; and any contract, or agreement to the contrary, shall be ineffective for that purpose.

Settlement required at death, etc.

Benefit not a bar to action for damages.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

REVISED CODES OF 1903.

CIVIL CODE.

Liability of employers for injuries to employeess.

SECTION 1449. An employer is not bound to indemnify his employee for losses suffered by the latter in consequence of the ordinary risks of the business in which he is employed, nor in consequence of the negligence of another person employed by the same employer in the same general business, unless he has neglected to use ordinary care in the selection of the culpable employee.

Ordinary risks.

SEC. 1450. An employer must in all cases indemnify his employee for losses caused by the former's want of ordinary care.

Want of care.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 219.—*Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employeess.*

SECTION 1. Every common carrier engaged in trade or commerce in the State of South Dakota shall be liable to any of its employees, or in case of his death, to his personal representative for the benefit of his widow and children, if any, if none, then for his parents, if none, then for his next of kin dependent upon him, for all damages which may result from the negligence of any of its officers, agents or employees, or by reason of any defect or insufficiency due to its negligence in its cars, engines, appliances, machinery, track, road-bed, ways or works.

Acts of employeess.

Defects.

SEC. 2. In all actions hereafter brought against any common carrier to recover damages for personal injuries to an employee, or where such injuries have resulted in his death, the fact that

Comparative negligence.

VIRGINIA.

CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE 12.—*Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.*

Acts of fellow-servants.

Negligence of superintendent.

Persons in another department, etc.

Injuries causing death.

Contracts waiving rights.

Provisions not restrictive.

SECTION 162. The doctrine of fellow-servant, so far as it affects the liability of the master for injuries to his servant resulting from the acts or omissions of any other servant or servants of the common master, is, to the extent hereinafter stated, abolished as to every employee of a railroad company, engaged in the physical construction, repair or maintenance of its roadway, track or any of the structures connected therewith, or in any work in or upon a car or engine standing upon a track, or in the physical operation of a train, car, engine, or switch, or in any service requiring his presence upon a train, car, or engine; and every such employee shall have the same right to recover for every injury suffered by him from the acts or omissions of any other employee or employees of the common master, that a servant would have (at the time when this constitution goes into effect), if such acts or omissions were those of the master himself in the performance of a nonassignable duty: *Provided*, That the injury, so suffered by such railroad employee, result from the negligence of an officer, or agent, of the company of a higher grade of service than himself, or from that of a person, employed by the company, having the right, or charged with the duty, to control or direct the general services or the immediate work of the party injured, or the general services or the immediate work of the coemployee through, or by, whose act or omission he is injured; or that it result from the negligence of a coemployee engaged in another department of labor, or engaged upon, or in charge of, any car upon which, or upon the train of which it is a part, the injured employee is not at the time of receiving the injury, or who is in charge of any switch, signal point, or locomotive engine, or is charged with dispatching trains or transmitting telegraphic or telephonic orders therefor; and whether such negligence be in the performance of an assignable or nonassignable duty. The physical construction, repair or maintenance of the roadway, track or any of the structures connected therewith, and the physical construction, repair, maintenance, cleaning or operation of trains, cars or engines, shall be regarded as different departments of labor within the meaning of this section. Knowledge, by any such railroad employee injured, of the defective or unsafe character or condition of any machinery, ways, appliances or structures, shall be no defense to an action for injury caused thereby. When death, whether instantaneous or not, results to such an employee from any injury for which he could have recovered, under the above provisions, had death not occurred, then his legal or personal representative, surviving consort, and relatives (and any trustee, curator, committee or guardian of such consort or relatives) shall, respectively, have the same rights and remedies with respect thereto as if his death had been caused by the negligence of a coemployee while in the performance, as vice-principal, of a nonassignable duty of the master. Every contract or agreement, express or implied, made by an employee, to waive the benefit of this section, shall be null and void. This section shall not be construed to deprive any employee, or his legal or personal representative, surviving consort or relatives (or any trustee, curator, committee or guardian of such consort or relatives), of any rights or remedies that he or they may have by the law of the land, at the time this constitution goes into effect. Nothing contained in this section shall restrict the power of the general assembly to further enlarge, for the above-named class of employees, the rights and remedies hereinbefore provided for, or to extend such rights and remedies to, or otherwise enlarge the present rights and remedies of, any other class of employees of railroads or of employees of any person, firm or corporation.

CODE OF 1904.

Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.

SECTION 1294k. Every corporation operating a railroad in this State, whether such corporation be created under the laws of this State or otherwise, shall be liable in damages for any and all injuries sustained by any employee of such corporation as follows: When such injury results from the wrongful act, neglect, or default of an agent or officer of such corporation superior to the employee injured, or of a person employed by such corporation having the right to control or direct the services of such employee injured, or the services of the employee by whom he is injured; and also when such injury results from the wrongful act, neglect, or default of a coemployee engaged in another department of labor from that of the employee injured, or of a coemployee on another train of cars, or of a coemployee who has charge of any switch, signal point, or locomotive engine, or who is charged with dispatching trains or transmitting telegraphic or telephonic orders. Knowledge of any employee injured of the defective or unsafe character or condition of any machinery, ways, appliances, or structures of such corporation shall not of itself be a bar to recovery for any injury or death caused thereby. When death, whether instantaneous or otherwise, results from any injury to any employee of such corporation received as aforesaid, the personal representative of such employee shall have a right of action therefor against such corporation, and may recover damages in respect thereof. Any contract or agreement, express or implied, made by any such employee to waive the benefit of this section or any part thereof shall be null and void, and this section shall not be construed to deprive any such employee, or his personal representative, of any right or remedy to which he is now entitled under the laws of this State. The rules and principles of law as to contributory negligence, which apply to other cases, shall apply to cases arising under this act, except in so far as the same are herein modified or changed.

[An act directing the erection of talltales or danger signals at the approaches to bridges over railroads, tunnels, etc., makes failure to provide such devices ground for a right of action where injury or death results from such failure. Section 1294d, subsection 36.]

WASHINGTON.

[An act requiring frogs, switches, and guard rails to be blocked and guarded makes companies failing to do so liable in damages to parties injured because of such failure. Acts of 1890, chapter 35, section 2.

Employers whose failure to comply with the factory inspection law causes injury to employees are liable to such employees in damages. Acts of 1905, chapter 84, section 8.]

WISCONSIN.

ANNOTATED STATUTES OF 1898.

Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employees.

SECTION 1816 (as amended by chapter 254, Acts of 1907). Every railroad company shall be liable for damages for all injuries whether resulting in death or not, sustained by any of its employees, subject to the provisions hereinafter contained regarding contributory negligence on the part of the injured employee:

1. When such injury is caused by a defect in any locomotive, engine, car, rail, track, roadbed, machinery or appliance used by its employees *in and about the business of their employment.*

Liability for negligence of superintendent.

Persons in another department, etc.

Injuries causing death.

Contracts waiving rights.

Contributory negligence.

Injuries caused by—

Defects;

- Negligence of coemployees.** 2. When such injury shall have been sustained by any officer, agent, servant or employee of such company, while engaged in the line of his duty as such and which such injury shall have been caused in whole or in greater part by the negligence of any other officer, agent, servant or employee of such company, in the discharge of, or by reason of failure to discharge his duties as such.
- Comparative negligence.** 3. In every action to recover for such injury the court shall submit to the jury the following questions: First, whether the company, or any officer, agent, servant or employee other than the person injured was guilty of negligence directly contributing to the injury; second, if that question is answered in the affirmative, whether the person injured was guilty of any negligence which directly contributed to the injury; third, if that question is answered in the affirmative, whether the negligence of the party so injured was slighter or greater as a contributing cause to the injury than that of the company, or any officer, agent, servant or employee other than the person so injured; and such other questions as may be necessary.
- Recovery, when.** 4. In all cases where the jury shall find that the negligence of the company, or any officer, agent or employee of such company was greater than the negligence of the employee so injured, and contributing in a greater degree to such injury, then the plaintiff shall be entitled to recover, and the negligence, if any, of the employee so injured shall be no bar to such recovery.
- Questions for jury.** 5. In all cases under this act the question of negligence and contributory negligence shall be for the jury.
- Contracts, etc., not a bar.** 6. No contract or receipt between any employee and a railroad company, no rule or regulation promulgated or adopted by such company, and no contract, rule or regulation in regard to any notice to be given by such employee shall exempt such corporation from the full liability imposed by this act.
- Definitions.** 7. The phrase "railroad company," as used in this act, shall be taken to embrace any company, association, corporation or person managing, maintaining, operating, or in possession of a railroad in whole or in part within this State whether as owner, contractor, lessee, mortgagee, trustee, assignee or receiver.
- Pleading statute.** 8. In any action brought in the courts in this State by a resident thereof, or the representative of a deceased resident, to recover damages in accordance with this act, where the employee of any railroad company owning or operating a railroad extending into or through this State and into or through any other State or States shall have received his injuries in any other State where such railroad is owned or operated, and the contract of employment shall have been made in this State, it shall not be competent for such railroad company to plead or prove the decisions or statutes of the State where such person shall have been injured as a defense to the action brought in this State.
- Exemptions.** 9. The provisions of this act shall not apply to employees working in shops or offices.

[A statute directing railroad companies to block or guard all frogs in their tracks makes failure to comply with the law ground for action in damages in cases where injury results from such failure, even though the failure or violation occurs through the negligence of some other agent or employee. Section 1809b.

The law requiring dangerous machinery to be guarded takes away the defense of assumed risks in cases where employees are injured as a result of the employer's failure to comply with the law. Supp. 1906, section 1636j.

A statute providing for the erection of trestles at the approaches to bridges, etc., over railroads, takes away from companies neglecting or refusing to comply with the law the defense of assumption of risk in cases where employees are injured on account of the lack of such trestles. Supp. 1906, section 1809L.]

WYOMING.

CONSTITUTION.

ARTICLE 10.—*Limitation and waiver of right to damages.*

SECTION 4. No law shall be enacted limiting the amount of damages to be recovered for causing the injury or death of any person. Any contract or agreement with any employee waiving any right to recover damages for causing the death or injury of any employee shall be void. Damages for injuries.

ARTICLE 19.—*Contracts of employees waiving right to damages.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any person, company or corporation, to require of its servants or employees as a condition of their employment, or otherwise, any contract or agreement, whereby such person [.] company or corporation shall be released or discharged from liability or responsibility, on account of personal injuries received by such servants or employees, while in the service of such person, company or corporation, by reason of the negligence of such person, company or corporation, or the agents or employees thereof, and such contracts shall be absolutely null and void. Contracts waiving right to damages.

[In an article on the operation of mines the constitution contains a provision granting a right of action for injuries or death occasioned because of violations by the employer of the provisions of the constitution or of laws passed in pursuance thereof. Article 9, section 4.]

UNITED STATES.

[The so-called safety-appliance law, which prescribes the use of automatic couplers, power brakes, etc., on railroad trains engaged in interstate commerce, provides that employees injured by the use of any locomotive, car, or train in violation of the act shall not be deemed to have assumed the risk, even though he knew of the unlawful use. Compiled Statutes of 1901, page 3174, section 8.

For the liability law of 1906, which was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court, see pages 216 and 217, below.]

CONSTRUCTION OF STATUTE LAWS.

In the following summary of opinions use has been made almost exclusively of the opinions of Federal courts and of the State courts of final resort. As appears from an examination of the statutes reproduced above, some of them, as Arizona and Connecticut, are nothing more than a restatement of the common law and require no consideration here. The general statutes of North Dakota (sections 5392, 5544, 5545) and South Dakota (sections 1449, 1450) are also examples of this class of laws,^(*) though in each of these States is to be found legislation affecting the liability of railroad companies.

Prior to 1907 the California law (sections 1970, 1971) had been similar to that of the Dakotas, all three having been taken from the draft of law prepared by the New York code commission, of which David Dudley Field was the leading member. The amended form of section 1970 introduces the superior servant and departmental

^{*} Elliot v. Chicago, M. & St. P. R. Co. (1889), 5 Dak. 523, 41 N. W. 758.

doctrines, stating the latter in such form as apparently to modify to a considerable degree the defense of coemployment. It also excepts from the class of fellow-servants certain designated groups or grades of employees. These amendments bring the section in the particulars specified within the class of laws which follow the English liability law, and would doubtless be construed as are similar provisions of such laws in other States. No case under the amended section has yet been reported from the California courts.

The law of Georgia also (sections 2610-2613, 3030) is in effect a restatement of the common law, though section 2613 declares contracts waiving the servant's rights as fixed by law to be null and void, in so far abrogating the common-law doctrine of this State. Railroads are exempted from the scope of these sections.

As stated in the first part of this discussion, the principles of the common law as construed in the various States will apply in the construction and application of statutes. Within the bounds of the statute it, of course, controls, but the common-law doctrines and definitions in use in the State are influential, subject to the rule that the adoption by a State of the statute of another State gives to the construction put upon the law by the courts of the State of earlier enactment an important influence as indicating the true intent of the legislature in adopting such law. These constructions and rulings are not conclusive, but are entitled to great weight.^(a)

Whether or not the provisions of a statute can be waived by a contract entered into prior to the happening of the accident causing the injuries for which damages are claimed has been generally decided in the negative.^(b) The laws prohibiting such contracts have received countenance in a number of cases.^(c) In the Indiana and Iowa citations it was necessary to decide on the constitutionality of this particular provision of the statute. In the Mumford case the clause prohibiting contracts limiting liability was held applicable to a provision in a contract of employment limiting the time within which actions to recover damages for injuries might be brought, the provision being condemned as contrary to law. In the Quinn case

^a Birmingham R. & Electric Co. v. Allen (1893), 99 Ala. 359, 13 So. 8; Colorado Milling & Elevator Co. v. Mitchell (1899), 26 Colo. 284, 58 Pac. 28.

^b See page 14, above.

^c Quinn v. New York, N. H. & H. R. Co. (1900), 175 Mass. 150, 55 N. E. 891; Pierce v. Van Dusen (1897), 78 Fed. 693; Minneapolis & St. L. R. Co. v. Herriek (1888), 127 U. S. 210, 8 Sup. Ct. 1176; Pittsburg, C. & St. L. R. Co. v. Montgomery (1898), 152 Ind. 1, 49 N. E. 582; Powell v. Sherwood (1901), 162 Mo. 605, 63 S. W. 485; Mumford v. Chicago, R. I. & P. R. Co. (1905), 128 Iowa 685, 104 N. W. 1135; Kansas P. R. Co. v. Peavey (1883), 29 Kan. 160, 44 Am. Rep. 630, approved in Western Furn. & Mfg. Co. v. Bloom (1907), 90 Pac. 821. (Kans.) Per contra, see Shaver v. Pennsylvania Co. (1896), 71 Fed. 931.

it was held that the statute was not contravened by an agreement in the contract of employment by which the employee undertook to make a careful examination of the place of work so that he might understand its dangers.

An agreement with the employer that the acceptance of benefits from a relief fund will act to prevent recovery in suits at law is not a violation of a provision forbidding contracts waiving a right to recover.^(a) "It is nothing more or less than a contract for a choice between sources of compensation where but a single one existed; and it is the final choice—the acceptance of one against the other—that gives validity to the transaction."^(b)

Double recovery will not be allowed, the provision of such contracts that prosecution of a suit to judgment or a compromise bars all claims to the benefit fund, fixing the status of any claimant thereunder. Thus a widow who sued as administratrix and recovered damages for the death of her husband for the benefit of their children was held barred under the contract, as the court ruled that the judgment accrued to her benefit as well.^(c) But her receipt of benefits from the fund as widow does not bar subsequent action as administratrix for the benefit of a child or children.^(b) A statute of Georgia, however, requires railroad companies to pay the agreed benefit on the death of an employee from accident, with the provision that the acceptance of such benefit shall not be a bar to action.

While express messengers may at common law waive their right of action against both their employer and the transporting company, such a contract was declared void as against the railroad under the Iowa statute forbidding contracts of employees waiving their rights to sue for damages.^(d)

LAWS FOLLOWING THE BRITISH STATUTE.

The common law was construed much more unfavorably to the employee in England than in this country, a fact which led to such an amount of agitation for a statutory change that a liability law was enacted in 1880, taking effect January 1, 1881. This law, while of comparatively small present importance in Great Britain on account of the later "Compensation Acts," has had a considerable influence in this country, both its form and its judicial construction having been adopted more or less fully in a number of jurisdictions

^a *Pittsburg, C., C. & St. L. R. Co. v. Cox* (1896), 55 Ohio St. 497, 45 N. E. 641; *Johnson v. Charleston & S. R. Co.* (1899), 55 S. C. 152, 32 S. E. 2.

^b *Pittsburg, C., C. & St. L. R. Co. v. Moore* (1899), 152 Ind. 345, 53 N. E. 290.

^c *Baltimore & O. R. Co. v. Ray* (1905), 36 Ind. App. 430, 73 N. E. 942.

^d *O'Brien v. Chicago N. W. R. Co.* (1902), 116 Fed. 502.

of the United States. These are, in the order of time, Alabama (1884-85), Massachusetts (1887), Colorado (1893), Indiana (1893: applicable only to railroads and other corporations, except municipal), New York (1902), and Porto Rico (1902). The Pennsylvania liability law of 1907 also embodies in a less formal manner the principal provisions of the act in so far as they relate to the defense of fellow-service.

The form of the Massachusetts law as it appears in the foregoing compilation is the result of a number of amendments, while the original Colorado statute (sections 1511a-1511e) is in some measure affected by the absolute abrogation of the fellow-servant doctrine by an act of the legislature of 1901 (sections 1511f, 1511g).

These laws (except those of Pennsylvania and Porto Rico, under which no action has been reported as yet) have all stood the test of constitutionality, except that of Indiana, as to which it has been ruled that the inclusion of other corporations than those engaged in railway service, while partnerships and individual employers are exempt, is unwarrantable and unconstitutional.^(a) Under this construction, therefore, the law applies to railroads exclusively.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF CONSTRUCTION.

The rule that statutes in derogation of the common law will be strictly construed has generally been modified, in respect of the acts in hand, in favor of a liberal construction, in order that the purpose of the acts may be accomplished.^(b) In the Alabama case cited the court said: "Being in derogation of the common law, the inference is that the terms of the act clearly import the changes intended, and their operation will not be enlarged by construction further than may be necessary to effectuate the manifest ends. Notwithstanding, a narrow and restrictive view of the act should not be taken. In its construction the court should consider its objects, have regard to the intentions of the legislature, and take a broad view of its provisions, commensurate with the proposed purposes."

In general it may be said that the effect of the act is not to create new causes of action nor to abrogate the general principles of common law. The determination of the relationship of the parties as employer and employee is unchanged.^(c) Volunteers and servants going out of their scope of employment are therefore not aided by the laws;^(d) nor, unless specifically included (as is done in the Colo-

^a *Bedford Quarries Co. v. Bough* (1907), 80 N. E. 529.

^b *Ryalls v. Mechanics' Mills* (1889), 150 Mass. 190, 22 N. E. 796; *Hunt v. Conner* (1901), 26 Ind. App. 41, 59 N. E. 50; *Mobile & B. R. Co. v. Holborn* (1888), 84 Ala. 133, 4 So. 146.

^c *Alabama G. S. R. Co. v. Carroll* (1892), 97 Ala. 126.

^d *Propst v. Georgia P. R. Co.* (1888), 83 Ala. 518, 3 So. 764; *Meller v. Merchants' Mfg. Co.* (1890), 150 Mass. 362, 23 N. E. 190.

rado and Massachusetts statutes), do the acts embrace subcontractors or their employees.^(a) Employees of receivers were held to be within the protection of the Indiana law.^(b)

The acts do not attempt to codify the whole law on the subject, and they leave open some common-law defenses and some common-law liabilities.^(c) A plaintiff seeking relief for injuries may find it under the common law rather than under the statute, as in some States the latter makes certain requirements as to notice, etc., and limits the amount recoverable, and one suing under the act must show that his case falls within its provisions.^(d) The acts are frequently referred to as "fellow-servant laws," the principal feature being the abrogation as to the classes of employees enumerated, and under the conditions specified, of the defense of common employment,^(e) so that the question of the importance or weight of this defense may decide whether an action should be brought under the statute or the common law. The defenses of assumed risks and of contributory negligence are at the most only modified, and are not taken away from the employer by these acts. The supreme court of Alabama allowed recovery under the liability law for the death of an employee resulting from the wanton negligence or willful wrong of an engineer, holding that even though the injured party may have been negligent, his negligence would be a defense only in connection with a purely negligent act of the employee inflicting the injury; but where the wrong was intentional, negligence on the part of the injured employee would not defeat recovery.^(f) In the same case the theory that damages under this act are punitive was denied, the court ruling that they are compensatory only.

In no State are the common-law rights of an injured employee abrogated, and the requirement as to notice of action need not be given unless the suit is for damages recoverable only under the act. Thus in a New York case^(g) it was held that the act only regulates procedure relative to the new or extended liability granted thereby; but the requirement as to timely giving of notice must be strictly observed.^(h) The contents thereof need not be formally complete, however, if they are sufficient in fact to furnish substantial notice.⁽ⁱ⁾ Where the statute contains a provision limiting the time within which

^a *Scarborough v. Alabama M. R. Co.* (1891), 94 Ala. 497, 10 So. 316.

^b *Hunt v. Conner*, *supra*.

^c *Ryalls v. Mechanics' Mills*, *supra*.

^d *Coffee v. N. Y. etc. R. Co.* (1891), 155 Mass. 21, 28 N. E. 1128.

^e *Louisville & N. R. Co. v. York* (1901), 128 Ala. 305, 30 So. 676.

^f *Gmaehle v. Rosenberg* (1904), 178 N. Y. 147, 70 N. E. 411.

^g *Vegliann v. Morse* (1893), 160 Mass. 143, 35 N. E. 451.

^h *Brick v. Bosworth* (1894), 162 Mass. 334, 39 N. E. 36.

action thereunder may be brought, it must be strictly observed, as, like notice, it is a condition imposed on the enforcement of a new remedy.

SPECIFIC PROVISIONS OF THE ACTS.

Defects in condition of ways, works, etc.

The principal purpose of this clause seems to have been to lay a foundation for the abrogation of the English fellow-service doctrine, and it does not greatly affect the rights of the employee at common law as it is construed in the United States.^(a) The duty of providing and maintaining safe and suitable appliances here devolves on the employer, and is nondelegable. The condition of the place is the matter to be considered, and not the question of the employer's personal negligence as distinguished from that of an employee to whom he may have committed the duty of attending thereto. In other words, the employer is liable for defects, and it is not necessary, under this section, to aver that he was negligent.^(b) As at common law, however, the defect must be the proximate cause of the injury,^(c) and mere accident affords no ground of action.

The ground of action is, in all the States in the list under consideration with one exception, an injury caused by a defect in the condition of the instrumentality, following the phraseology of the English law. The exception is Pennsylvania, where the word "condition" is omitted, and the defect is to be in the works, plant, or machinery. The significance of this omission has not been determined by the Pennsylvania courts, but has been discussed in a Massachusetts case,^(d) where it was held that a defect in the condition of machinery meant, not a defect that interfered with the working capacity, but one that affected the safety of employees. An English judge stated that the use of the word "condition" gave a broader meaning to the phrase than it would otherwise have, "but I do not think it is very much wider."^(e) Not every accidental or temporary condition is included, but the defect must affect the permanent or quasi-permanent condition of the employer's establishment.^(f)

The phrase "connected with or used in the business of the employer" is broad enough to include instrumentalities which the employer does not own, but which are, as a matter of fact, being used

^a Ryalls v. Mechanics' Mills, *supra*.

^b Lynch v. Allen (1893), 160 Mass. 248, 35 N. E. 550.

^c Southern R. Co. v. Guyton (1899), 122 Ala. 231, 25 So. 34.

^d Willey v. Boston E. L. Co. (1897), 168 Mass. 40, 46 N. E. 395.

^e McGiffin v. Palmer's S. & I. Co. (1882), 10 Q. B. Div. 5.

^f O'Connor v. Neal (1891), 153 Mass. 281, 26 N. E. 857; Kansas City, etc., R. Co. v. Burton (1892), 97 Ala. 240, 12 So. 88.

by him in the conduct of his business.^(a) But no liability attaches where the employer has not the control of the agency causing the injury, as where he was a mere licensee using occasionally the track of a connecting railroad.^(b) "The defect must be one which the employer has a right to remedy if he discovers it."^(c)

What constitutes a defect is not defined by the acts themselves, and recourse is had to the principles of common law in making the determination. As already intimated, it depends on the question of suitability for the intended use rather than on any unrelated quality of completeness. An unsuitableness of ways, works, or machinery for work intended to be done by means of them is a defect, although they are perfect of their kind, in good repair, and suitable for some work done in the employer's business other than the work in doing which their unsuitableness caused the injury complained of.^(d) That the employer is not bound to procure the latest or best obtainable devices follows from the rules of common law, as does the fact that he is not liable where the employee fails to observe such precautions as a prudent man would observe in like circumstances of danger, or where by his own choice he diverts the instrumentality from its intended use to another use.

The expression as to knowledge of the defect practically brings the employer within the doctrine of the common law, which does not impute liability unless there is actual or constructive knowledge of the conditions occasioning the injury.^(e)

The provision of the acts relating to the reporting of defects by the employee is not found in the Indiana and Pennsylvania laws. In the former State, however, the injured employee must be "in the exercise of due care and diligence," which is practically a statement of the conditions required for an action at common law, and would presumably be required in a suit under the Pennsylvania statute.

Failure to report known defects, unless the employer was known to have knowledge thereof otherwise, is a bar to action for resultant injuries;^(f) or in other words, the statute does not exclude the application of the maxim, "Volenti non fit injuria."^(g) This is therefore in accordance with the common-law rule that an employee accepts the risks of known and appreciated dangers. At common law, failure to report is held not the breach of a duty but an added reason

^a *Coffee v. New York, etc., R. Co.*, supra.

^b *Trask v. Old Colony R. Co.* (1892), 156 Mass. 298, 31 N. E. 6.

^c *Engel v. New York, etc., R. Co.* (1893), 160 Mass. 260, 35 N. E. 547.

^d *Geloneck v. Steam Pump Co.* (1896), 165 Mass. 202, 43 N. E. 85.

^e *Louisville & N. R. Co. v. Campbell* (1892), 97 Ala. 147, 12 So. 574; *Coffee v. New York, etc., R. Co.*, supra.

^f *Mobile & B. R. Co. v. Holborn*, supra.

^g *O'Mahley v. South Boston Gaslight Co.* (1893), 158 Mass. 135, 32 N. E. 1119.

why an employee may not, under such circumstances, recover. The status of an employee who has given the required notice is not well settled. An English case^(a) favored the position that an employee having given such notice was secure in his rights to recover, though later cases have left room for a consideration of the doctrine of *volenti non fit injuria*.^(b)

Negligence of employees exercising superintendence.

Each of the laws of the group under consideration has a clause setting forth the liability of the employer for injury caused by the negligence of a person in authority over the injured employee, by reason of which the injury was inflicted. The scope of these provisions varies, and the test of rank is not uniformly held to, the Alabama law, for instance, allowing specifically for a dual capacity, while the Colorado law on its face only requires that the negligent act be that of a person whose sole or principal duty is that of superintendence. The Pennsylvania law enumerates as within the class of persons for whose acts the employer is liable, foremen and other persons in charge of works, plant, or machinery, and persons in charge of the particular work in which the employee was engaged at the time of his injury.

In the construction given by the courts it seems to be pretty uniformly established that the act complained of must itself be one of superintendence, and that the mere fact that it was the act of a person usually engaged in superintendence is not conclusive.^(c)

An action may be brought, however, even where the injury resulted from the negligence of a superintendent while he was engaged in manual labor, assisting the plaintiff in his work,^(d) and the fact that he labors occasionally or even a considerable portion of the time does not necessarily take away the employers' responsibility for him as a superintendent;^(e) but the negligence must be in the matter of his duty as superintendent, and not as a laborer, to make the employer liable under this provision.

Who are superintendents is variously indicated, so far as the acts go. Persons whose sole or principal duty is superintendence; or, further,

^a *Thomas v. Quartermaine* (1887), 18 Q. B. Div. 685, 56 L. J. Q. B. N. S. 340.

^b *Yarmouth v. France* (1887), 19 Q. B. Div. 687, 57 L. J. Q. B. N. S. 7; *Smith v. Baker* (1891), A. C. 325, 60 L. J. Q. B. N. S. 683.

^c *Whittaker v. Bent* (1897), 167 Mass. 588, 46 N. E. 121; *Dantzier v. De Bardeleben C. & I. Co.* (1893), 101 Ala. 309, 14 So. 10; *Louisville, N. A. & C. R. Co. v. Southwick* (1896), 16 Ind. App. 486, 44 N. E. 263; *Gallagher v. Newman* (1908), 190 N. Y. 444, 83 N. E. 480. No case on this point from Colorado is at hand, but in view of the similarity of the provisions of the laws, the courts of that State would probably agree with the rulings of the Massachusetts courts.

^d *Kansas City, M. & B. R. Co. v. Burton* (1892), 97 Ala. 240, 12 So. 88; *Joseph v. George C. Whitney Co.* (1900), 177 Mass. 176, 58 N. E. 639.

^e *Riou v. Rockport Granite Co.* (1898), 171 Mass. 162, 59 N. E. 525; *Crowley v. Cutting* (1896), 165 Mass. 436, 43 N. E. 197.

persons acting as such with authority in their absence; or, as in Alabama, a person who has "any superintendence" intrusted to him, are designated. The terms used in the Pennsylvania law are noted above; the Indiana law omits the clause as to superintendents.

The difficulty of determining the point of superintendence of course arises only when the case involves a person below the rank of a general superintendent or manager. The foreman of a small gang of freight handlers,^(*) and the foreman of a section gang on a railroad^(†) have been held to be within the Massachusetts act. In general it is a matter for the jury and must be determined by the facts in the particular case. The fact that he is not expected or required to labor with his hands,^(‡) or that he receives higher wages than his associates^(§) is evidence, but is not conclusive. Mere reputation as foreman, however, or the fact that he occasionally gives orders, will not be sufficient to charge the employer.^(¶)

That the employer's liability is enlarged by this clause was recognized in a New York case,^(††) in which it was said that "it is clear that it [the act of 1902] has given an additional cause of action where it prescribes that the master shall be liable for the negligence of the superintendent or any person acting as such. At common law, while the master was liable for the fault of his alter ego to whom he intrusted the whole management of the work, with the power to employ and discharge servants, he was not liable for the negligence of foremen merely as such."

As to the phrasing of the Alabama law its supreme court has said that it was the apparent intent of the legislature to make the common employer liable when the injury complained of is caused by one who has any superintendence intrusted to him, whether or not he is engaged in manual labor.^(§§) The negligent act must, however, be one of superintendence.^(¶¶)

That the negligent superintendent need not be the superintendent of the injured employee is held in an Alabama case.^(§§§) The negligence of a conductor running his train in disobedience to orders, thereby causing the death of a fireman on another train, was held, in a case under the New York law,^(†††) to be the act of a person not in su-

* *Mahoney v. New York & N. E. R. Co.* (1894), 160 Mass. 573, 36 N. E. 588.

† *Davis v. New York, N. H. & H. R. Co.* (1893), 159 Mass. 532, 34 N. E. 1070.

‡ *Prendible v. Connecticut R. Mfg. Co.* (1893), 160 Mass. 131, 35 N. E. 675; *Carrol v. Wilcutt* (1895), 163 Mass. 221, 39 N. E. 1016.

§ *O'Brien v. Look* (1898), 171 Mass. 36, 50 N. E. 458.

¶ *O'Brien v. Rideout* (1894), 161 Mass. 170, 36 N. E. 792; *Kulight v. Overman Wheel Co.* (1890), 174 Mass. 455, 54 N. E. 890.

†† *Gmaehle v. Rosenberg*, *supra*. See also *Harris v. Baltimore M. & E. Works* (1907), 188 N. Y. 141, 80 N. E. 1028.

††† *Dantzler v. De Bardeleben C. & I. Co.*, *supra*.

§§ *Kansas City, M. & B. R. Co. v. Burton*, *supra*.

§§§ *Crosby v. Lehigh Valley R. Co.* (1905), 137 Fed. 765 (C. C. A.).

perintendence, that duty devolving on the train dispatcher, whose proper orders had been disobeyed. No damages were allowed therefore under the act of 1902, though it seems probable that under the act of 1906 (chap. 657), recovery could be had.

Negligence of employees giving orders.

The laws of Alabama, Indiana, and Pennsylvania follow the English act in containing a clause mentioning injuries caused by the negligence of an employee giving orders to which the injured employee was bound to conform, and did conform, and making the employer liable if injuries resulted from the fact of his having so conformed. This clause is a recognition of the "superior servant" doctrine discussed in the first part of this article, and is independent of and in addition to the provisions relating to the negligence of superintendents.^(a) It "distinguishes employees of a superior rank—employees clothed with authority and responsibility of the employer."^(b) The question of engaging in manual labor is of little or no importance here, the test being one of actual authority, of orders within the scope of that authority, the obligation to obey, and the connection between obedience and the injury complained of. The first two of these three points practically fall within the scope of the principle of law that the acts of an employee outside the scope of his employment entail no obligation on the employer. This applies to the giving of orders as well as the carrying of them out. An Indiana case^(c) apparently holds that in the absence of specific authority to do so, a superintendent or foreman can not appoint a temporary substitute to act in his absence and to have such authority as to bind the employer for the negligence of such substitute. The question at once arises as to whether the injured employee was bound to obey the temporary foreman's orders, or would disobedience be excused by the common employer on the ground of the lack of proper authority. If employers generally would not so excuse disobedience, as seems most probable, then to deny to the injured employee the right of action would seem unjust. Apart from this statute, however, the Indiana courts have held that foremen or bosses were, in general, fellow-servants of the workmen who were obliged to conform to their orders.^(d) An employee who complies with the request of a person in charge of work, but not in control of him personally, has no redress against the employer in

^a Kansas City, M. & B. R. Co. v. Burton, *supra*.

^b Louisville, N. A. & C. R. Co. v. Wagner (1899), 153 Ind. 420, 53 N. E. 927.

^c Hodges v. Standard Wheel Co. (1898), 152 Ind. 680, 52 N. E. 391; same case (1899), 54 N. E. 383.

^d Brazil, &c., Coal Co. v. Cain (1884), 98 Ind. 282; Indiana Car Co. v. Parker (1885), 100 Ind. 181.

case of resulting injury.^(a) But where there is authority, the employer is liable even though the order is to do an act prohibited by his rules, on the ground that the employee is not supposed to decide as to the right or wrong of the act when obeying his actual superior;^(b) but not if he knows the act is outside the scope of the superior's authority.^(c)

The requirement that there must be a causal connection between the negligent order and the injury complained of is in accord with the principles of liability already sufficiently discussed. The order itself may be given explicitly, or it may be inferable from circumstances;^(d) but the latter ground will not extend to acts done in the discharge of general service, and growing out of the usual course of the plaintiff's employment.^(e)

Acts in obedience to rules, etc.

The same States as named above, Alabama, Indiana, and Pennsylvania, have enacted a provision similar to that of the English act covering the acts and omissions (though the latter word is not found in the Pennsylvania statute) of any employee of the common employer, done or made in accord with rules and regulations of the employer, or with special instructions given by an authorized person. The proviso of the English act that restricts recovery to cases where there is an impropriety or defect in the rules, etc., is not found in the American enactments. It is probably not to be assumed, however, that the omission is significant of any different effect on the employer's liability than if they had been inserted, as to do so would entail liability without fault, and would tend to make the employer an insurer of the employee's safety, so long as he conformed to rules or instructions.^(e) The law of Pennsylvania speaks of the act of a fellow-servant instead of "any person in the employ," etc., which is but the adoption of the construction of the Indiana law, where it was said that the language of the law was broad enough to include acts or omissions of the injured employee himself, but that it would be unjust to so read the law, as this would practically make the employer liable for pure accident.^(e) The act was therefore construed as applying only to acts or omissions of fellow-servants. The omission of enjoined duties or disobedience to rules is not within the scope of this clause.^(f) The clause seems to add little or nothing to the

^a *Propst v. Georgia P. R. Co.* (1888), 83 Ala. 518, 3 So. 764.

^b *Marley v. Osborn* (1894), 10 Times L. R. 388.

^c *Bunker v. Midland R. Co.* (1883), 47 L. T. N. S. 476.

^d *Mobile & O. R. Co. v. George* (1891), 94 Ala. 199, 10 So. 145.

^e *Dixon v. W. U. Tel. Co.* (1895), 68 Fed. 630 (Indiana statute).

^f *Laughran v. Brewer* (1897), 113 Ala. 509, 21 So. 415; *Baltimore & O. S. W. & C. v. Little* (1897), 149 Ind. 167, 48 N. E. 862.

employers' duty, under the common law, to maintain a proper system and to make and enforce suitable rules. The same doctrines as to knowledge of rules, condoning systematic or continuous violation, and of action in emergencies, as are set forth in connection with the discussion of that phase of the common law, are applicable here.

Acts of certain employees on railroads

All the laws of this group except those of Pennsylvania and New York enumerate certain classes of employees on railroads for whose negligence the employer is held liable in a different degree from that fixed by common law. In New York there is a separate section of later enactment which provides for practically the same classes of employees as are named in the English statute, which is in the main followed by the other States, though there is some variety in the language used.

The provisions of this clause are additional to those contained in the clause fixing liability for the negligent acts of superiors, and taken in connection therewith present a practical abrogation of the doctrine of fellow-service as a defense in cases of injury occurring by the negligence of those engaged in the operation of railroads.

It was said in an Alabama case (^a) that the act in no wise relieves an employer from the common-law duty of using reasonable care in selecting employees; it increases his liability, rather, and makes him responsible for injuries sustained by an employee in consequence of the negligent act of employees of the designated classes, and that without reference to the care and diligence used in their selection.

Persons in charge or control include those who have the actual physical control of the instrumentalities named as well as those who are intrusted with work of a directive nature. Since, however, superintendence is included in the other clauses, it is understood that this provision relates rather to employees not included in them.^(b) The control may be only temporary,^(b) and the negligent manual operation may be performed under the direction of others.^(c) Who is in charge of an engine, train, or other instrumentality at any particular time is a question of fact, to be determined by the circumstances of the particular case.^(d) Nor need the duty be considered to rest entirely upon one person, since different duties may be assigned to different persons and each be charged with the conduct of the train.^(e)

^a *Culver v. Alabama M. R. Co.* (1895), 108 Ala. 330, 18 So. 827.

^b *Birmingham R. & E. Co. v. Baylor* (1893), 101 Ala. 488, 13 So. 793.

^c *Welch v. New York, etc., R. Co.* (1900), 176 Mass. 393, 57 N. E. 668.

^d *Louisville & N. R. Co. v. Richardson* (1893), 100 Ala. 232, 14 So. 209; *Shea v. New York, N. H. & H. R. Co.* (1890), 173 Mass. 177, 53 N. E. 396.

^e *Haysler v. Great Western R. Co.* (1881), 72 Law T. 129; *Caron v. Boston & A. R. Co.* (1895), 164 Mass. 523, 42 N. E. 112.

But a superior who is actually present can not devolve the discharge of his duties upon an inferior so as to make the employer responsible for the latter's negligence.^(a)

The words "signals" and "signal points" have been variously defined. The term "signals" includes mechanical devices^(b) and torpedoes,^(c) as well as signals transmitted by flags, lanterns, etc.^(d) The Wisconsin courts have decided that an interlocking system used to prevent collisions is not a signal.^(e) As to the Alabama law, court ruled that the comma between the words "signal" and "points" was not properly there, and construed the words as a phrase referring to apparatus and not to locality.^(f) The English use of the word "points" instead of the term "switch" used in the United States has not been followed. Of the laws mentioned under this general head only those of Alabama and California contain the word "point." In that of the latter State the phrase "switch signal point" occurs, while the Porto Rican law speaks of a "signal switch." How these terms would be defined by the courts does not appear as yet. Switches are mentioned in a number of the laws, but in the Indiana law the only reference thereto is in the phrase "switch yard." The court refused to accept the suggestion that the legislative intent was to separate the words by a comma and so give them distinct meanings.^(g) The same court held that a switch target, moving automatically with the opening and closing of the switch, is not a signal within the meaning of the act, but that it meant only signals complete within themselves and not subsidiary parts of other devices.^(h)

The laws generally refer to locomotives or locomotive engines, that of Alabama separating the word "locomotive" from the word "engine" by a comma. The question therefore arose whether a stationary engine employed to move cars by means of a rope or cable came within the meaning of the act, but it was held that such an engine was not an engine on the track of a railway, and so was not included.⁽ⁱ⁾ A pile driver used on the tracks of a railroad and geared to move by the application of its own power to the axle of the wheels on which it rests is not a locomotive under this act.^(j) Attempts to make this clause cover the operation of railways on

^a *Louisville & N. R. Co. v. Goss* (1903), 137 Ala. 319, 34 So. 1007.

^b *Cogbill v. Louisville & N. R. Co.* (1907), 44 So. 683. (Ala.)

^c *Cowen v. Ray* (1901), 108 Fed. 320, 47 C. C. A. 352.

^d *Richmond & D. R. Co. v. Jones* (1891), 92 Ala. 218, 9 So. 276.

^e *Chicago, St. P., M. & O. R. Co. v. Chicago, M. & St. P. R. Co.* (1902), 113 Wis. 161, 89 N. W. 180.

^f *Baltimore & O. S. W. R. Co. v. Little* (1897), 149 Ind. 167, 48 N. E. 862.

^g *Chicago, I. & L. R. Co. v. Barker* (1908), 83 N. E. 369.

^h *Whitley v. Zenida Coal Co.* (1899), 122 Ala. 118, 26 So. 124.

ⁱ *Jarris v. Hitch* (1903), 161 Ind. 217, 67 N. E. 1057.

which electricity is used as a motive power have not received the sanction of the courts.^(a)

Some of the statutes speak of charge or control of a train, others of a car or train, upon a railway. The latter phrase would seem to be explicit, though the Alabama courts hold that the word "car" is applicable also to hand cars.^(b) Where the word "train" only is used, the question arises as to what constitutes a train. In a Massachusetts case it was held that a number of cars detached from the locomotive, and moving under the impetus given by the locomotive before being detached, formed a train within the meaning of the act.^(c) The present law of that State is explicit on this point.

A dummy railroad has been held to be within the act,^(d) as is also a temporary track used by a city for hauling gravel.^(e) A locomotive in a roundhouse is not "on the track of a railway."^(f)

In the fourth subdivision of section 7083 of the Indiana law, recovery is allowed for injuries on condition that the injured person was "obeying or conforming to the order of some superior at the time of such injury, having authority to direct." The attempt has been made to defeat by means of this clause the claims of employees who were injured while in the exercise of their routine duties, on the ground that they were not at the time working under orders; but this contention has not been allowed, the ground being taken that firemen, engineers, and workmen of like employments, were of necessity subordinates, and that action in the line of duty could only be action under the orders of superiors.^(g)

All the laws of this group provide directly or by reference for the recovery of damages where death follows the injuries received. A number of them provide also for the assessment of damages proportioned to the degree of the negligence of the employer or of the employee for whose acts he is liable. This is not to be confused with the doctrine of comparative negligence embodied in a number of recent laws relating to railway employment.

THE COLORADO LAW OF 1901.

This law (sections 1511f, 1511g) is the first enactment of a legislature in a jurisdiction where the common law prevails to entirely

^a *Fallon v. West End St. R. Co.* (1898), 171 Mass. 249, 50 N. E. 536; *Indianapolis & G. R. T. Co. v. Andis* (1904), 33 Ind. App. 625, 72 N. E. 145.

^b *Kansas City, M. & B. R. Co. v. Crocker* (1892), 95 Ala. 412, 11 So. 262.

^c *Caron v. Boston & A. R. Co.*, supra.

^d *Birmingham R. & E. Co. v. Baylor* (1893), 101 Ala. 488, 13 So. 793.

^e *Coughlin v. Cambridge* (1896), 166 Mass. 268, 44 N. E. 218.

^f *Perry v. Old Colony R. Co.* (1895), 164 Mass. 296, 41 N. E. 289.

^g *Cincinnati, H. & D. R. Co. v. Thiebaud* (1900), 114 Fed. 918 (C. C. A.), citing *Pittsburg, etc., R. Co. v. Montgomery* (1898), 152 Ind. 1, 40 N. E. 582.

abolish the defense of coservice. Its scope and effect were set forth in a recent case (^a) in which the supreme court of the State maintained the constitutionality of the law. In the course of its opinion the court stated that the act in question renders the employer liable for damages resulting from injuries to or death of an employee, caused by the negligence of a coemployee in the same manner, and to the same extent, as if the negligence causing the injury or death was that of the employer. Whether or not the employer is liable under this act must be determined by each particular case based on its provisions. It does not deprive him of any defense to the liability thereby imposed which, under the established rules of law, could be regarded as sufficient except his own lack of negligence. "For the purpose of providing for the safety and protection of employees in the service of a common employer, the law-making power has the undoubted authority to abrogate the exception to the general rule of respondeat superior in favor of the employer, and make him liable to one of his employees for damages caused by the negligence of another employee while acting within the scope of his employment, regardless of the fact that such employees are fellow-servants."

Thus, far-reaching as this law is in its particular field, the defenses of assumed risks and contributory negligence remain unaffected, nor is the employee in any way protected from the consequences of pure accident.

STATUTES AFFECTING EMPLOYMENT ON RAILROADS.

A very considerable number of States have laws applying specifically to the business of railroading, some of them applying to all employees, and some only to those engaged in the operation of the road. These laws range in effect from the slightest possible deviation from the principles of the common law to a complete abrogation of the defense of fellow-service, and important changes in those of contributory negligence and of assumed risks.

The most conspicuous instance of a statute that leaves the employee in practically the same status as is fixed by the common law is that of New Mexico, which, apart from the doubtful exception as to the application of the doctrine of contributory negligence after the employee has given notice of defects, would seem to better in no way the condition of an injured employee seeking damages for accidental injuries.

The constitutionality of laws relating to railroads only has been repeatedly decided in their favor in the face of contentions that they are discriminatory, not affording railroads equal protection with other

^a *Vindicator Consol. Gold Min. Co. v. Firstbrook* (1906), 36 Colo., 499, 86 Pac. 313.

Such legislation does not infringe upon the clause of the fourteenth amendment requiring equal protection of the laws, because it is special in its character. When legislation applies to particular bodies or associations, imposing upon them additional liabilities, it is not open to the objection that it denies to them the equal protection of the laws, if all persons brought under its influence are treated alike under the same conditions. The hazardous character of the business of operating a railway would seem to call for special legislation with respect to railroad corporations, having for its object the protection of their employees as well as the safety of the public. The business of other corporations is not subject to similar dangers to their employees, and no objections, therefore, can be made to the legislation on the ground of its making an unjust discrimination. It meets a particular necessity, and all railroad corporations are, without discrimination, made subject to the same liabilities."

LAWS AFFECTING THE LIABILITY OF OPERATORS OF MINES.

Besides the States whose laws embrace the working of mines in enactments of wider inclusion, two, Maryland and Missouri, have statutes that relate only to mining.

The law of Maryland applies only in case of death. It abrogates the defense of *casus vicie*, and provides for a proportionate compensation where the negligence of the decedent cooperated with that of the employer or his agents or employees.

The Missouri law declares a liability for all damages sustained by workmen on account of the negligence of any other agent or employee, and does not affect the defense of contributory negligence. Vice-

STATES WHOSE LAWS ABROGATE THE DEFENSE OF COMMON EMPLOYMENT.

Some grouping of the States is possible on the basis of the scope and effect of their laws. In the first group may be placed those whose laws abrogate the defense of fellow-service, either as relates to all employees in the industries included within their purview, most frequently railroad service only; or to designated classes of employees, as those engaged in the use and operation of railroads.

ARKANSAS.

Arkansas falls in this class by virtue of the act of 1907, which applies to coal mining as well as to the operation of railroads, and entirely abrogates the defense of fellow-service. The law repeals conflicting acts, without specifying any. It seems probable that this expression would work the repeal of sections 6658-6660, which embody the superior servant and departmental doctrines, thus restricting but not abrogating the application of the rule of coservice. These sections are retained in this compilation, however, until a judicial decision determines the point.

FLORIDA.

The doctrine of comparative negligence, set forth in section 3149, is held^(a) not to apply to employees, who, by the next section, must be "without fault or negligence." If, however, the injury resulted from the performance of an act in which the injured employee had no part, the presumption is that he is free from fault, and that he may recover the same as if he were not an employee.^(a)

GEORGIA.

The legislature of Georgia was one of the first if not the first in the Union to enact a law of the class under consideration. Section 2297 of the Code of 1895 was enacted in 1855, and is applicable to cases of injury not connected with the running of trains as well as to those which are.^(b) Section 2321 is a statement of common-law principles;^(c) but taken with sections 2297 and 2323, an employee who is injured by the negligence of coemployees may, if himself without fault, recover damages, since the risks he assumes are not those occasioned by the incompetence or negligence of other employees.^(d) In order to clear itself, however, the company need only show that its

^a Florida C. & P. R. Co. v. Mooney (1898), 40 Fla. 17, 24 So. 148; Duval v. Hunt (1894), 34 Fla. 85, 15 So. 876.

^b Thompson v. Central R. & Bkg. Co. (1875), 54 Ga. 509.

^c Campbell v. Atlanta & R. Air Line R. Co. (1873), 53 Ga. 488.

^d Southern R. Co. v. Johnson (1901), 114 Ga. 329, 40 S. E. 235.

employees used ordinary and reasonable care, and it is not required to account for the accident.^(a) The provisions of the law are held to apply to employees on street railways.^(b)

The doctrine of comparative negligence expressed in section 2322 is construed as indicated for Florida, above, that State having followed Georgia in the enactment of its law. By section 3830, however, the legislature of Georgia has established a rule that permits recovery, even where the injured person has contributed by his negligence to the occasion of the accident that caused the injury. This section has been construed as applying to employees.^(c)

As already stated, the general liability law is a statement of the principles of the common law and is, in effect, but a declaration that, except as to railroad employees, the rules of that law control.

IOWA.

The Iowa statute has been held to cover the operations of a construction company running gravel trains while building a railroad,^(d) though the employees of independent contractors can not recover from a railroad company for injuries caused by the negligent acts of its employees.^(e) Without extending references, the following sentences from a recent case^(f) may be quoted as showing the construction adopted by the supreme court of the State:

"It has been construed as embracing within its protection all that class of employees whose employment 'exposes them to the peculiar dangers and perils attendant upon the use and operation of railroads.' Among others found to be entitled to recover have been the section hand, the section foreman, the shop hand, the clinker man, the detective, the gravel shoveler, and the snow shoveler, none of whom had any connection with the train service proper. The kind of labor in which the employee is engaged is not the test of his right of recovery so much as the fact whether, in the performance of that labor, he is, for the time being, exposed to the peculiar hazards which arise from or are connected with the use and operation of the road." Exposure to the risk of the operation of trains without necessarily being employed in the actual movement brings the employee within the protection of the law.^(g)

^a Georgia R. & Bkg. Co. v. Hicks (1895), 95 Ga. 301, 22 S. E. 613.

^b Savannah, T. & I. of H. R. v. Williams (1903), 117 Ga. 414, 43 S. E. 751.

^c Atlanta Cotton Factory Co. v. Speer (1883), 69 Ga. 137; Hill v. Callahan (1888), 82 Ga. 109.

^d McKnight v. Iowa & M. R. Const. Co. (1876), 43 Iowa 406.

^e Ney v. Dubuque & S. C. R. Co. (1866), 20 Iowa 347.

^f Jensen v. Omaha & St. L. R. Co. (1902), 115 Iowa 404, 88 N. W. 952.

^g Pyne v. Chicago, B. & Q. R. Co. (1880), 54 Iowa 223, 6 N. W. 281; Smith v. Humeston & S. R. Co. (1889), 78 Iowa 583, 43 N. W. 545.

The limiting words, "such wrongs," are held to refer to the "neglect" and "mismanagement" mentioned, as well as to the "willful wrongs" named subsequently.^(a) Nor does the fact that the negligent employee is subject to the control of the plaintiff bar the latter's right to recover.^(b)

KANSAS.

The statute of Kansas, down to the first proviso, is a practical copy of the earliest law of Iowa, which was somewhat broader in terms than the Iowa law now in force. The added matter relates only to procedure and does not affect the liability of the employer otherwise. The same general line of construction as adopted by the courts of that State is followed, though the benefits of the statute extend further than do those of the Iowa law, which the Kansas supreme court declared to apply only where the plaintiff or the negligent employee, or both of them, are engaged in the use and operation of a railroad at the time of the accident causing the injury.^(c) This restriction was held not to exist under the construction of the law of Kansas, and, in the case in hand, a section hand on whom a fellow-workman let a rail fall was allowed to recover damages.^(c)

The statute applies to "every railroad company" in the State, which term is construed as including only corporations (which is the word used in the Iowa statute), and partnerships or individuals engaged in railroading are held not to fall within its scope.^(d) The query at once arises, in view of the ruling of the Indiana and Mississippi courts that a law applying to corporations but not to firms and individuals engaged in the same lines of business is unconstitutional, how such a position is tenable.

No decision is at hand construing the provisions as to notice, added by amendments of 1903, 1905, and 1907, but according to the general rule previously set forth, they would demand strict observance as to time in order to bring a plaintiff within their terms, while a material rather than formal compliance as to contents of the notice would be required.^(e)

MINNESOTA.

The law of this State, like that of Kansas, is held to apply, not to all employees of railroad companies, nor alone to those engaged in the movement of trains, but to all who are exposed to and subject to injuries by the dangers peculiar to the use and operation of rail-

^a *Malone v. Burlington, C. R. & N. R. Co.* (1884), 65 Iowa 417, 21 N. W. 756.

^b *Houser v. Chicago, R. I. & P. R. Co.* (1882), 60 Iowa 230, 14 N. W. 778.

^c *Union P. R. Co. v. Harris* (1885), 33 Kan. 416, 6 Pac. 571.

^d *Beeson v. Busenbark* (1890), 44 Kan. 669, 25 Pac. 48.

^e Page 95, above.

roads.^(a) Employees of receivers are within its protection,^(b) as are those of a private corporation operating a logging railroad,^(c) or a narrow-gauge road used in stripping earth in mining operations.^(d) Work done in the construction of a yard for use in connection with a line in use by the public is not within the proviso that excepts new roads from the operation of the law.^(e) Street railways are not within its purview,^(f) though the operation of hand cars on steam roads is.^(g)

MISSOURI.

While sections 2875 and 2876 are devoted to definitions of vice-principals and fellow-servants, in much the same language as is used in statutes of the next class considered, section 2873 clearly removes the defense of fellow-service in actions for injuries without reference to the relative grades of the plaintiff and the negligent employee, if the injury is received while the plaintiff is engaged in the work of operating a railroad. This provision includes all work that is directly necessary for running trains over a track, embracing that of section hands.^(h) In the case cited a member of a section gang was injured by the negligence of other members of the gang in throwing timbers upon him while he was acting as watchman at a bridge over a street. The constitutionality of the law and its application to employees of a receiver of a railroad company were upheld in a recent case.⁽ⁱ⁾

The term "railroad corporation" used in this statute is taken to mean all companies, and individuals as well, owning or operating railroads.^(j) The act does not include street railways within its scope.^(k) The act of 1907 relating to mining has been, in the absence of decisions, sufficiently noticed.^(l)

MONTANA.

Chapter 1 of the acts of 1905 of this State presents a brief but comprehensive enactment abrogating the doctrine of fellow-service

^a *Pearson v. Chicago, M. & St. P. R. Co.* (1891), 47 Minn. 9, 49 N. W. 302.

^b *Mikkelson v. Truesdale* (1895), 63 Minn. 137, 65 N. W. 260.

^c *Schus v. Powers-Simpson Co.* (1902), 85 Minn. 447, 89 N. W. 68.

^d *Minnesota Iron Co. v. Kilne* (1905), 199 U. S. 593, 26 Sup. 159.

^e *Moran v. Eastern R. Co.* (1892), 48 Minn. 46, 50 N. W. 930.

^f *Funk v. St. Paul City R. Co.* (1895), 61 Minn. 435, 63 N. W. 1099.

^g *Steffenson v. Chicago, M. & St. P. R. Co.* (1891), 45 Minn. 355, 47 N. W. 1068.

^h *Callahan v. Railway Co.* (1902), 170 Mo. 473, 71 S. W. 208.

ⁱ *Powell v. Sherwood* (1901), 162 Mo. 605, 63 S. W. 485.

^j *Ib.*; citing section 2666, R. S.

^k *Sams v. St. Louis & M. R. Co.* (1903), 174 Mo. 53, 73 S. W. 686.

^l *See page 106, above.*

in cases of injuries negligently inflicted in connection with the use and operation of railroads. No case is at hand under this act, but its construction would doubtless be similar to that of the Iowa statute, the language of which it resembles.

Sections 2660 to 2662 make no addition to the provisions of the common law.

NEBRASKA.

The act of 1907 is a restricted law, applicable only to employees who, at the time of injury, are engaged in construction or repair work, or in the use and operation of an engine, car, or train. Within these limits the defense of coservice is abolished. The provision as to defects is practically a statement of the common-law liability, closely resembling the corresponding provisions in the English act and those following it, to the discussion of which reference may be made.^(a) The provision as to comparative negligence looks toward the alleviation of the hardships of those cases in which heretofore any contributing negligence has been a bar to recovery.

NEVADA.

The law of 1907 is much broader in its scope than that of Nebraska, noted above, in the inclusion of other industries than railroading, as well as of all employees in the included employments without restriction. In other respects the two laws are similar.

NORTH CAROLINA.

The law of this State is embodied in the Code of 1905, since, though printed as a private law, it is, by its contents and effect, a public statute, and is constitutional.^(b) It abolishes entirely the defense of coservice, so that questions of control or rank are immaterial.^(c) Where an injury is the result of a defective engine or appliance, the defense of assumed risks is taken away from the employer.^(d) In a case involving the application of the law to a private road owned and used by a lumber company, the act was held to apply,^(e) the court remarking that it would apply to a street railway as well.

NORTH DAKOTA.

The law of 1907 abrogates the defense of fellow-service in actions for injuries to employees of common carriers, and requires actions

^a See pages 96-98, above.

^b *Hancock v. Norfolk & W. R. Co.* (1899), 124 N. C. 222, 32 S. E. 679.

^c *Kimney v. North Carolina R. Co.* (1898), 122 N. C. 961, 30 S. E. 313.

^d *Coley v. North Carolina R. Co.* (1901), 128 N. C. 534, 39 S. E. 43.

^e *Hemphill v. Buck Creek Lumber Co.* (1906), 141 N. C. 487, 54 S. E. 420.

thereunder to be brought within one year from the time the cause of action accrued. In other respects it resembles the Nebraska statute.

OKLAHOMA.

The constitution of this State abrogates completely the defense of fellow-service where injuries occur to any employee of steam or electric railroad companies, of mine operators, or of the receivers of such employers. It also gives to the jury all questions as to assumed risks and contributory negligence.

SOUTH DAKOTA.

Chapter 219, Acts of 1907, is identical in its main provisions with the act of North Dakota of the same year.

TEXAS.

The law in its present form is a modification of an earlier statute, the changes being for the purpose of meeting judicial suggestions or rulings that the old law did not apply to receiverships nor to the operation of street railways. The present law names both as within its purview. The act resembles the law of Missouri in that while its first section entirely removes the defense of fellow-service in actions by certain classes of employees, succeeding sections are devoted to definitions of vice-principals and fellow-servants along the lines of the superior service and departmental doctrines. Under this law co-service was not allowed as a defense where a switchman was injured by the negligence of his foreman, the making up of a train being a part of the operation of a railroad.^(a) The operation of a hand car is held to be within the scope of the law.^(b) In another case involving the use of hand cars, however, the supreme court held the company liable for injuries to a member of a section gang who was carrying tools to the tool house, while other members were taking tools in on a hand car and ran against the plaintiff, causing the injuries complained of, not on the ground that the men were operating a car, but on the ground that they were engaged on a different piece of work.^(c) On the same ground a bridge gang of five men, divided into two gangs for the purpose of moving bales of cotton to allow the repair of the company's cotton platform at a station, were held not to be employed on the same piece of work, where each gang moved its own bale independent of the other.^(d) It will be observed that sections 2 and 3 relate to employees generally in the service of a railroad company, and are not restricted in their application, as is the first section.

^a Missouri, *K. & T. R. Co. v. Baker* (1900), 58 S. W. 964.

^b *Perez v. San Antonio & A. P. R. Co.* (1902), 67 S. W. 137; *Texas & P. R. Co. v. Smith* (1902), 114 Fed. 728 (C. C. A.)

^c *Long v. Chicago, R. I. & T. R. Co.* (1900), 94 Tex. 53, 57 S. W. 802.

^d *International & G. N. R. Co. v. Still* (1905), 88 S. W. 257.

The contention that a section foreman is a vice-principal under section 2 and that no recovery could be had on account of injuries received by him because of the negligence of the men under his control was not allowed as being against the provisions of section 1 that liability attaches for injuries received in connection with the operation of cars, the injury in the case in hand being caused by the negligent operation of a hand car.^(a) The private road of a lumber company is within the scope of the law.^(b) A laborer unloading telephone poles from a car moving on the track so as to distribute the poles at proper intervals was held to be employed in operating the cars.^(c) A railroad company is liable for the negligent acts of the foreman of a gang of men working in a yard, where the men under him followed his instructions which he assisted in carrying out, though his negligence consisted in the improper performance of an act of manual labor, he being despite this fact a vice-principal.^(d) The same ruling as to liability was made where a foreman of a section gang had failed of his duty to keep the track clear, leaving an obstacle which was hurled by a passing train against a member of his gang.^(e)

Accepting the cases given as illustrative of the scope of sections 2 and 3, it is evident that, taking them with section 1 of the act, the defense of common service is restricted to very narrow limits. The statute expressly declares that it does not modify the defense of contributory negligence. There is a later law (chapter 163, acts of 1905) which relates to the third principal defense in actions for injuries—that of assumed risks. As this applies only to suits by employees of the same classes as are embraced in the act of 1897, it will be noticed here.

A case^(f) arose under this act in which it was held that continuing in service while an instrumentality was retained that was being superseded by the employer by a safer device was a case within the scope of the act, and that the employee did not assume the risk. The question as to the constitutionality of the act was answered in the affirmative.

WISCONSIN.

The Wisconsin statute, in its amended form, presents essentially the same conditions as are found in the laws of North and South Dakota, and is one of the group of five States which last year embodied a provision as to comparative negligence in laws relating to employers' liability. The additions found in the Wisconsin statute

^a *Texas & P. R. Co. v. Smith*, supra.

^b *Lodwick Lumber Co. v. Taylor* (1905), 87 S. W. 358.

^c *Mounce v. Lodwick Lumber Co.* (1906), 91 S. W. 240.

^d *Missouri, K. & T. R. Co. v. Dean* (1905), 89 S. W. 797.

^e *Texas & P. R. Co. v. Carlin* (1903), 189 U. S. 354, 23 Sup. Ct. 585.

^f *El Paso & S. W. R. Co. v. Foth* (1907), 100 S. W. 171.

relate chiefly to pleading and an explicit statement of the classes of employees affected. Employees in shops and offices are excluded from the operation of the law, and the limitation of one year found in the Dakota statutes is omitted. Section 1816, prior to amendment, was held not to apply to logging railroads,⁹ and the same construction would probably be put on the present law.

STATES WHOSE LAWS MODIFY THE DEFENSE OF COMMON EMPLOYMENT.

Another group of States is made up of those whose laws, without abrogating the defense of coservice generally, modify it by incorporating into their statutes provisions as to the responsibility of the employer for the acts of superior servants or of those in different departments from the injured employee; or, in other words, stately adopting the "superior servant" and "departmental" doctrines which were set forth as being followed in certain jurisdictions under the common law.

CALIFORNIA.

The amended form of section 1970 of the civil code of California removes this State from the class of those whose statutes were a mere statement of the common law to the group under present consideration. There is, of course, no line of State decisions available for a determination of the classes of superiors or of departmental boundaries, as the amendment was enacted only last year. The construction of similar statutes in other States, however, and the lines indicated by the common-law decisions will be found suggestive. The provisions of the section extend by its terms to industries generally. The clauses on the subjects of ordinary risks and knowledge are but a statement of common-law principles.

MISSISSIPPI.

The provisions of section 4056 of the Code of 1906 and of section 193 of the State constitution are the same, except that the last sentence of the constitutional provision is not reproduced in the statute. In connection with this sentence it may be noted that the legislature undertook to enact a law (chapter 87, Acts of 1896; chapter 66, Acts of 1898) in accordance therewith, extending the application of the law to corporations generally. This was declared a violation of the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States on the ground that there was no proper classification of industries on the basis of their dangers or otherwise, and that it discriminated between

⁹ McKivergan v. Alexander & E. Lumber Co. (1905), 124 Wis. 60, 102 N. W. 372.

employing corporations and individuals engaged in similar lines of business.^(a)

In a case under the provisions of the constitution^(b) it was said that by the words, "superior agent or officer," were meant persons "of the sort well known as such, and any other person in the company's service, by whatever name, who may be intrusted with the right to control and direct the services of others according to his discretion and judgment—one to whom is committed the direction or control of others, for the accomplishment of some end dependent on his independent orders, born of the occasion, sprung from him as director, and not consisting of the mere execution of routine duties in pursuance of fixed rules by various employees, each charged with certain parts in the general performance." In this case it was held that a locomotive engineer was not the superior officer of a brakeman on the train. Nor was the foreman of a switch crew held to be the superior officer of the men under him within the meaning of the law where the work is the mere discharge of routine duties.^(c) In this case, the court said that under other circumstances the foreman might be the company's agent, so that the question seems to need adjudication for each particular case—a marked defect in this doctrine, as has already appeared. Departmental bounds are little if any easier of determination. Thus a locomotive fireman is clearly in a different department from a telegraph operator;^(d) but an action by a section hand, injured on account of the negligence of a draw tender at a bridge failed on the ground that the latter was not the plaintiff's superior, the question of difference of departments being apparently overlooked.^(e)

The employee of a construction company using cars in its work is not within the protection of the law.^(f)

OHIO.

Section 3365-20 is hardly classifiable as an employers' liability law in the sense in which such laws have been discussed here, since it relates chiefly to contracts limiting that liability as it exists at common law. The next section goes somewhat further, though it operates by changing the rules of evidence rather than by enlarging the duty of the employer.^(g) It does not affect the defenses of contributory negligence or assumed risks.^(g) The presumption of knowledge which is chargeable to the company by this section can

^a *Ballard v. Mississippi Cotton Oil Co.* (1903), 81 Miss. 507, 34 So. 533.

^b *Evans v. Louisville, N. O. & T. R. Co.* (1893), 70 Miss. 527, 12 So. 581.

^c *Fenwick v. Illinois C. R. Co.* (1900), 100 Fed. 247, 40 C. C. A. 369.

^d *Illinois C. R. Co. v. Hunter* (1893), 70 Miss. 471, 12 So. 482.

^e *Illinois C. R. Co. v. Bishop*, (1899), 76 Miss. 758, 25 So. 867.

^f *Bradford Const. Co. v. Heflin* (1906), 88 Miss. 314, 42 So. 174.

^g *Hesse v. Columbus, S. & H. R. Co.* (1898), 58 Ohio St. 167, 50 N. E. 35A.

be overcome only by actual proof and not by proof of facts that merely raise an opposite presumption.^(a) Thus it was held that the employment of a competent inspector was not evidence of the discharge of the duty of inspection sufficient to rebut the presumption of negligence arising from the fact of an injury occasioned by a defect.^(b)

ad The absence of a customary appliance comes under the statute the same as would a defective appliance.^(c)

Section 3365-22 embodies the superior servant doctrine, which prevailed in Ohio under the construction put upon the common law by the courts of that State,^(d) and also presents, in a modified and rather peculiar form, the departmental doctrine. The constitutionality of this section and its application to employees of receivers were maintained in a case that was before the United States circuit court of appeals.^(e) The law makes superior servants in any department the superior of an employee in a different department who has no power to direct or control in his own department. Thus a chief inspector of cars, having others under him, is the superior of a brakeman on a train;^(f) but a sole inspector, without subordinates, is the fellow-servant of a brakeman.^(g) An engineer on a locomotive, having control of his fireman, is not the fellow-servant of a brakeman on another train, who has control of no one.^(h) A train dispatcher is the superior of a locomotive engineer, but a telegraph operator, whose duty it is merely to transmit messages, is the fellow-servant of such engineer.⁽ⁱ⁾

The difficulty of construing and applying a law making provision for the superior servant doctrine and the uncertainties involved in the application of the principles of negligence and contributory negligence have been adverted to heretofore. They find a striking illustration in a long-contested case which arose under the provisions of this section, and which involves both these points.^(j) This was a case in which a locomotive fireman was killed by the negligence, as alleged, of the engineer on another train. The case was heard in the United States circuit court, and a judgment in favor of the plaintiff was rendered. The railroad company appealed to the court of appeals, which reversed the judgment on the ground that, on the face of the record, Kane had been guilty of contributory negligence. A

^a Columbus, H. V. & T. R. Co. v. Erick (1894), 51 Ohio St. 146, 37 N. E. 128.

^b Felton v. Bullard (1899), 94 Fed. 781.

^c Crumley v. Cincinnati, H. & D. R. Co. (1896), 12 Ohio C. C. 164.

^d See pages 36 and 37, above.

^e Pierce v. Van Dusen (1897), 78 Fed. 693, 24 C. C. A. 280.

^f Columbus, etc., R. Co. v. Erick, *supra*.

^g Felton v. Bullard, *supra*.

^h Cincinnati, H. & D. R. Co. v. Margrat (1894), 51 Ohio St. 130, 37 N. E. 11.

ⁱ Baltimore & O. R. Co. v. Camp (1895), 65 Fed. 952, 13 C. C. A. 233.

^j Kane v. Erie R. Co. (1906), 142 Fed. 682. (C. C. A.)

second trial in the circuit court was had, when the section under consideration was declared to be unconstitutional as contravening the provisions of section 2 of article 1 of the constitution of the State, which declares that government is instituted for the equal protection and benefit of the people. The court held that the provisions of the section benefited only such employees in each department as had no subordinates, and that by placing on each train a boy who should be under the charge and control of every other employee, the company could avoid liability for injuries to all other employees.

From this ruling Kane's administratrix appealed, bringing the case a second time to the court of appeals, which denied the premises of the circuit court, held the law constitutional, and remanded the case. On the third trial in the circuit court the right of recovery was denied on two grounds, one that though the negligent engineer was in charge of his fireman, he was himself subordinate to the conductor of his train, and was not therefore a superior servant within the meaning of the statute; the second ground was that Kane had been guilty of contributory negligence.

Coming to its third hearing in the court of appeals the case was reversed on both points. Superior servants were held to be not only those who had entire control of a branch or department, but the term includes those who may be in control of but a single employee. Three factors were held to be involved in a case like the present—a separate branch or department, a superior therein, and a subordinate in another branch or department. Separateness of departments is essential in this case, as an engineer, though the superior of his fireman, is a fellow-servant of a brakeman in the same train, though the brakeman is the superior of no one.⁽⁴⁾

Kane had been found guilty of contributory negligence in the first trial by the court of appeals because of his violation of a rule that was put in evidence by the company. Evidence was submitted at the third trial before the circuit court that the rule in question had been in fact abrogated, and it was on the weight of this evidence that the court of appeals reversed the court below on this point. The case was again remanded to the circuit court for proceedings not inconsistent with the opinion given by the court of appeals, but the results of such proceedings, if any, are not at hand.

OREGON.

The act of this State embodies the doctrines of superior service, of different departments, and of liability for the acts of designated classes of employees. The defenses of assumed risks and contribu-

⁴ *Railway Co. v. Shanower* (1904), 70 Ohio St. 166, 71 N. E. 279. (An engineer on one train and the brakeman on another are not fellow-servants. See *larger case, above.*)

tory negligence are affected by the clause as to knowledge of defects not being of itself a bar to actions for injuries.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

The constitutional provision as to liability presents practically the same features as are found in the law of Oregon. Engineers and conductors voluntarily operating cars or engines known to be unsafe are, by the statutes, outside of the protection of the clause as to knowledge. While an engineer on a locomotive is a vice-principal of his fireman, he is a fellow-servant of a brakeman on the same train.^(a) Section 2848 of the Civil Code gives to employees of street railway companies the same rights as are secured by the constitution of the State to railroad employees.

UTAH.

This State has enacted a law applying to every class of employment, embodying the superior servant and departmental doctrines. The act is constitutional.^(b) Whether miners in different tunnels are or are not fellow-servants is a question of fact for the jury.^(b) The statute charges the employer with liability for the negligent acts of vice-principals whether such acts were acts of superintendence or otherwise, and, if performed in the discharge of their duties as employees, whether committed while in the exercise of their authority or not.^(c)

VIRGINIA.

The section of the constitution relating to the liability of employers and the law on the same subject present features quite similar to the law of Oregon. It relates only to railroad employments, and enacts the superior servant and departmental doctrines, and fixes liability for the negligent acts of certain classes of employees. The rule of law that knowledge of defects would charge the employee with the assumption of risks is abrogated. The defense of contributory negligence is expressly retained, except in so far as modified by the provisions of the act.

The clause as to knowledge not being a bar to action was copied from the Mississippi constitution,^(d) and was held, in accordance with the construction placed thereon by the Mississippi Courts,^(e) not to destroy the defense of contributory negligence. Knowledge of defects was held to be still a factor in determining whether the employee acted with a proper degree of caution under the circumstances. Recklessness and carelessness are not licensed by this provision.^(e)

^a *Pagan v. Southern R. Co.* (1907), 59 S. E. 32.

^b *Dryburg v. Mercur Gold Min. & Mill Co.* (1898), 18 Utah 410, 55 Pac. 367.

^c *Southern Pacific Co. v. Schoer* (1902), 114 Fed. 466 (C. C. A.).

^d *Norfolk & W. R. Co. v. Cheatwood's Adm'rs.* (1905), 40 S. E. 483.

^e *Buckner v. Richmond & D. R. Co.* (1895), 72 Miss. 873, 18 So. 449.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY UNDER THE CIVIL LAW.

The articles of the Civil Code of Louisiana reproduced in the above compilation closely follow the Code Napoleon. As this law is applied in the jurisdictions unaffected by the English common law, it presents some differences therefrom, chiefly in favor of the employee. In dangerous employments the master is obligated to take "every precaution which can be taken" to prevent accidents—"to protect his employees by the best possible means, and even, to some extent, against their own imprudence." The defense of fellow-service is not accepted in such jurisdictions, and that of contributory negligence is modified so as to allow recovery in a proportionate amount unless the injured employee's negligence was the sole cause of his injury. Risks are held to be assumed as under the common law.

It can not be said, however, that these principles prevail in Louisiana, as its jurisprudence is affected by the general law of the country and especially by the decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States. The situation may be illustrated by a case^(a) in which damages were allowed for an injury to an employee. The court cited these articles of the Civil Code, holding that under them the plaintiff was entitled to recovery, "and likewise under the construction of the general law applicable to master and servant."

LAWS AFFECTING THE DEFENSES OF ASSUMPTION OF RISKS AND CONTRIBUTORY NEGLIGENCE.

The notes following the reproduced laws of a number of the States, and certain laws which, in other cases, stand as the only statutory modification of the common-law liability of the employer, are generally to the effect that where enactments relating to specified industries or employments are not complied with, a different degree of liability attaches, or one or both the defenses above named are withdrawn.

General laws affecting the defense of assumption of risks under designated conditions have been enacted by the legislatures of Iowa (Acts of 1907, chapter 181), and of Ohio (Acts of 1904, act, page 547). In the absence of judicial decisions on these statutes, it will be sufficient to point out their similarity to the Texas statute which was held constitutional in the *Foth* case.^(b) The numerous provisions as to restrictive contracts are sufficiently discussed in the early paragraphs of this section.^(c)

In concluding this discussion it may not be inappropriate to revert to the statement made in connection with the act of Colorado of 1901, that even the entire abrogation of the doctrine of fellow-service leaves

^a *James v. Rapides Lumber Co.* (1898), 23 So. 469.

^b See page 113, above.

^c See pages 92 and 93, above.

the employee to bear all the consequences of inevitable accident, or the "trade risk," as it is frequently called;^(a) also that laws effecting a modification of the doctrine are of small avail as affording certainty of relief since so much is dependent on the details of circumstance surrounding each case. Of this the case of *Kane v. Erie R. Co.*, noted above, is an instance; while of the law of Texas, which abrogates entirely for certain classes of employees and restricts closely for others this same defense, it may be said that it is the basis of an amount of litigation that is probably not surpassed by any law of its kind.

Statistics of 46,000 industrial accidents collated by the German imperial insurance office for 1897 show that 29.89 per cent of the accidents were due to fault or negligence of the injured employee, 16.81 per cent to that of the employer, 4.66 per cent to the joint negligence of the employer and the injured employee, 5.28 per cent to that of coemployees and outside parties, 1.31 per cent to the "Act of God," etc., and 42.05 per cent to inevitable accidents connected with the employment. The impossibility of securing to the workman the needed protection by a mere grant of right of action for injuries for which the employer can rightly be charged is evident from a consideration of these statistics, as well as from the discussion of the principles of law set forth above. The employer, who is the agent of the public in the matter of production and transportation, should be charged with the duty of so administering industrial undertakings that the burden of the trade risk shall fall on the industry at large, and not be concentrated on the weakest point—on the individual workman, disabled for service through the mere fact of his employment at the time and place of the occurrence of an inevitable accident, or on the widow and children of such workman, if the accident results fatally.

^aAn instruction to a jury is correct which states that if a plaintiff's injuries were the direct results of an accident incident to the business in which he was engaged, he can not recover. *Mobile & O. R. Co. v. George* (1891), 94 Ala. 199, 10 So. 145.

SUMMARY OF FOREIGN WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION ACTS.

By the term "workmen's compensation laws" are meant enactments which embody the principle that the workman is entitled to compensation for injuries received in the course of his employment. Such laws have been enacted in twenty-two foreign States.

Usually the injuries must cause disablement for a specified number of days or weeks before compensation becomes due. The employer may usually be relieved from the payment of compensation if he can prove that the injury was caused intentionally or by willful misconduct, or in some countries by the gross negligence of the injured person or during the performance of an illegal act.

The industries usually covered by the acts are manufacturing, mining and quarrying, transportation, building and engineering work, and other employments involving more or less hazard. In Belgium, France, and Great Britain the laws apply to practically all employments. In Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Italy, Luxemburg, Netherlands, Norway, Russia, Spain, and Sweden only workmen engaged in actual manual work, and in some cases those exposed to the same risks, such as overseers and technical experts, come within the operations of the law. On the other hand, in France, Great Britain, the British colonies, and Hungary the laws apply to salaried employees and workmen equally. Overseers and technical experts earning more than a prescribed amount are excluded in Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Luxemburg, and Russia. Employees of the state, provincial, and local administrations usually come within the provisions of the acts.

The entire burden rests upon the employer in all but four countries, Austria, Germany, Hungary, and Luxemburg, where the employees bear part of the expense. The laws in every case fix the compensation to be paid. Except in Sweden the compensation is based upon the wages of the injured person. It consists of medical and surgical treatment and periodical allowances for temporary disability, and annual pensions or lump-sum payments for permanent disability or death.

In most countries employers may contract with state or private insurance institutions for meeting the payments. In a number of countries such transfer is obligatory. Provision is usually made for the protection of beneficiaries in case of insolvency of employers.

The acts of nearly all of the countries are framed with the view of obviating the necessity for instituting legal proceedings. If disputes arise the acts specify the necessary procedure for settlement by special arbitration tribunals or by ordinary law courts.

The following summary gives the most important features of the workmen's compensation acts of all countries:

AUSTRIA.

Date of enactment. December 28, 1887, in effect November 1, 1889. Amendatory acts, March 30, 1888, April 4 and July 28, 1889, January 17, 1890, December 30, 1891, September 17, 1892, July 20, 1894, and July 12, 1902.

Injuries compensated. All injuries causing death or disability for more than three days received in the course of employment, unless caused intentionally.

Industries covered. Mining, quarrying, stonecutting, manufacturing, building trades, railways, transportation on inland waters, storage, theaters, chimney sweeping, street cleaning, building cleaning, sewer cleaning, dredging, well digging, structural iron working, etc.; agricultural and forestry establishments using machinery.

Persons compensated. All workmen and technical officials regularly employed, but in agriculture and forestry only employees exposed to machinery.

Government employees. Act applies to government employees unless an equal or more favorable compensation is provided by other laws.

Burden of payment. Medical and surgical treatment for twenty weeks and compensation for four weeks of disability paid by sick funds, to which employers contribute one-third and employees two-thirds. Compensation for disability after fourth week, and for death, paid by territorial insurance associations, to which employees contribute 10 per cent and employers 90 per cent.

Compensation for death:

- (a) Funeral expenses not to exceed 25 florins (\$10.15).
- (b) Pensions to members of family, not to exceed 50 per cent of earnings of deceased, to—
 - Widow, 20 per cent until death or remarriage; in the latter case a lump sum equal to three annual payments; to dependent widower, 20 per cent during disability.
 - Each legitimate child, 15 years of age or under, 15 per cent when one parent survives and 20 per cent when neither survives; to each illegitimate child, 15 years of age or under, 10 per cent; pensions of widow (or widower) and children reduced proportionately if they aggregate over 50 per cent.
- (c) When pensions to above heirs do not reach 50 per cent, dependent heirs in ascending line receive pensions, not to exceed 20 per cent of earnings of deceased, parents taking precedence over grandparents.
- (d) In computing pensions, the excess of the annual earnings over 1,200 florins (\$487.20) is not considered.

Compensation for disability:

- (a) Medical and surgical attendance for 20 weeks, paid by sick benefit fund.
- (b) For total temporary or permanent disability, 60 per cent of average daily wages of insured workmen in the locality, paid by sick benefit funds, from first to twenty-eighth day; and 60 per cent of average annual earnings of injured person, after twenty-eighth day, paid by territorial accident insurance institutions.
- (c) For partial temporary or permanent disability, benefits consist of a portion of above allowance, but may not exceed 50 per cent of average annual earnings.
- (d) In computing payments, the excess of annual earnings over 1,200 florins (\$487.20) is not considered.

Revision of compensation. Reconsideration of the case may be undertaken by the insurance association of its own will, or upon petition.

Insurance. Payments are met by mutual insurance associations of employers in which all employees are required to be insured. The country is divided into districts, with a separate association for each district.

Security of payments. Operations of the insurance associations are conducted under the supervision of the minister of interior, who may increase the assessments.

Settlement of disputes. Disputes are settled by arbitration courts composed of a judicial officer appointed by the minister of justice, two experts appointed by the minister of the interior, and one representative each of the employers and the employees.

SUMMARY OF FOREIGN WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION ACTS.

By the term "workmen's compensation laws" are meant enactments which embody the principle that the workman is entitled to compensation for injuries received in the course of his employment. Such laws have been enacted in twenty-two foreign States.

Usually the injuries must cause disablement for a specified number of days or weeks before compensation becomes due. The employer may usually be relieved from the payment of compensation if he can prove that the injury was caused intentionally or by willful misconduct, or in some countries by the gross negligence of the injured person or during the performance of an illegal act.

The industries usually covered by the acts are manufacturing, mining and quarrying, transportation, building and engineering work, and other employments involving more or less hazard. In Belgium, France, and Great Britain the laws apply to practically all employments. In Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Italy, Luxemburg, Netherlands, Norway, Russia, Spain, and Sweden only workmen engaged in actual manual work, and in some cases those exposed to the same risks, such as overseers and technical experts, come within the operations of the law. On the other hand, in France, Great Britain, the British colonies, and Hungary the laws apply to salaried employees and workmen equally. Overseers and technical experts earning more than a prescribed amount are excluded in Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Luxemburg, and Russia. Employees of the state, provincial, and local administrations usually come within the provisions of the acts.

The entire burden rests upon the employer in all but four countries, Austria, Germany, Hungary, and Luxemburg, where the employees bear part of the expense. The laws in every case fix the compensation to be paid. Except in Sweden the compensation is based upon the wages of the injured person. It consists of medical and surgical treatment and periodical allowances for temporary disability, and annual pensions or lump-sum payments for permanent disability or death.

In most countries employers may contract with state or private insurance institutions for meeting the payments. In a number of countries such transfer is obligatory. Provision is usually made for the protection of beneficiaries in case of insolvency of employers.

The acts of nearly all of the countries are framed with the view of obviating the necessity for instituting legal proceedings. If disputes arise the acts specify the necessary procedure for settlement by special arbitration tribunals or by ordinary law courts.

The following summary gives the most important features of the *workmen's compensation acts of all countries*:

BRITISH COLUMBIA.

Date of enactment. June 21, 1902, in effect May 1, 1903.

Injuries compensated. Injuries by accident arising out of and in the course of the employment which cause death or disable a workman for at least two weeks from earning full wages at the work at which he was employed, unless the injury is "attributable solely to the serious and wilful misconduct or serious neglect" of the injured workman.

Industries covered. Railways, factories, mines, quarries, engineering work, and buildings which exceed 40 feet in height and are being constructed or repaired by means of a scaffolding or being demolished or on which machinery driven by mechanical power is used for construction, repair, or demolition.

Persons compensated. All persons engaged in manual labor or otherwise.

Government employees. Act applies to civilian employees in the service of the Crown, to whom it would apply if the employer were a private person.

Burden of payment. Entire cost of compensation rests upon employer.

Compensation for death:

- (a) A sum equal to three years' earnings, but not less than \$1,000 nor more than \$1,500, to those wholly dependent on earnings of deceased.
- (b) A sum less than above amount if workman leaves persons partially dependent on his earnings, the amount to be agreed upon by the parties or to be fixed by arbitration.
- (c) Reasonable expenses of medical attendance and burial not exceeding \$100, if deceased leaves no dependents.

Compensation for disability:

- (a) A weekly payment during disability after second week, not exceeding 50 per cent of employee's average weekly earnings during the previous twelve months, such weekly payments not to exceed \$10, and total liability not to exceed \$1,500.
- (b) A weekly payment during partial disability after second week to be fixed with regard to the difference between employee's average weekly earnings before the accident and average weekly amount which he is earning or able to earn after the injury.
- (c) A lump sum may be substituted for the weekly payments, after six months, on the application of the employer, the amount to be settled, in default of agreement, by arbitration under the act.

Revision of compensation. Weekly payments may be revised at request of either party.

Insurance. Employers may contract with their employees for the substitution of a scheme of compensation, benefit, or insurance in place of the provisions of the act if the attorney-general certifies that the scheme is on the whole not less favorable to the general body of employees and their dependents than the provisions of the act. In such case the employer is liable only in accordance with this scheme.

Security of payments. When an employer becomes liable under the act to pay compensation and is entitled to any sum from insurers on account of the amount due to a workman under such liability, then in the event of the employer becoming bankrupt, such workman has a first claim upon the amount so due, and a judge of the supreme court may direct the insurers to pay such sum into any chartered bank of Canada to be invested or applied to payment of compensation.

Settlement of disputes. Disputes arising under the act are settled by arbitration of existing committees representative of employers and employees, or if either party objects, by a single arbitrator agreed upon by the parties, or, in the absence of agreement, by an arbitrator appointed by a judge of the supreme court. An arbitrator appointed by a judge of the supreme court has all the power of a judge of the supreme court. Questions of law may be submitted by the arbitrator for the decision of a judge of the supreme court.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

Date of enactment. June 6, 1905, in effect September 1, 1905.

Injuries compensated. All injuries to employees arising out of and in the course of the employment causing death or necessitating absence from work for more than three days and not being caused by or through the gross carelessness of the injured employee.

Industries covered. Any trade, business, or public undertaking, on land or upon or within the territorial waters of the colony, except domestic, messenger, or errand service or employment in agriculture.

Persons compensated. Employees, whether engaged in manual work or otherwise.

Government employees. Act applies to civilian persons employed by or under the Crown to whom it would apply if employer were a private person.

Burden of payment. Employer and every principal are jointly and severally liable for the compensations required under the act.

Compensation for death. When death results from an injury for which a lump sum has not already been paid on account of permanent disability—

- (a) A lump sum not exceeding three years' wages of deceased, nor more than £400 (\$1,946.60), to those wholly dependent upon the workman's earnings.
- (b) A lump sum not exceeding £200 (\$973.30) to those partially dependent upon the workman's earnings; in the absence of persons totally dependent, the sum not to exceed the value of the support which they were receiving from the deceased, calculated for two years.
- (c) Temporary payments previously made not to be deducted from above sums unless they have continued longer than three months.
- (d) Reasonable expenses of medical attendance and burial not exceeding £40 (\$194.66) in case deceased leaves no dependents.

Compensation for disability:

- (a) A sum not exceeding three years' wages, less any payments received under a provisional order of court, but not exceeding £600 (\$2,919.90) in case of permanent total disability, and a smaller sum in proportion to loss of earning power and not exceeding £300 (\$1,459.95) in case of permanent partial disability.
- (b) A payment made, by order of the local magistrate, at the same intervals as the customary wage payments, not exceeding 50 per cent of wages received at time of the injury, nor £2 (\$9.73) per week if the injury causes temporary disability lasting more than three days.

Revision of compensation. The provisional order may be set aside or altered by the magistrate, upon request of either party, if justified by a further examination of the injured person or by production of additional evidence.

Insurance. Employers may insure in a company or association against personal injury to the workmen employed by them or in their behalf. If the employer contributes toward a benefit society of which the injured or deceased person is a member, allowance is made for such contribution by the court in its order or judgment fixing amount of compensation to be paid.

Security of payments. When an employer or principal is adjudged or admits liability under the act and is entitled to any sum from any insurers on account of such liability, then, in the event the employer becomes insolvent, the worker or his dependents have a first claim upon such sum.

Settlement of disputes. Compensation in cases of disability is fixed provisionally for not more than six months by the local magistrate after receiving a physician's certificate of disability and holding an inquiry. No appeal can be taken from this preliminary order except against a finding on the question of gross carelessness and then only upon leave granted by the superior court. In case the injury results in death or permanent disability, the claimants have a right of action in the local magistrate's court for the amounts due under the law. In fixing the amount, the court is required in every case to have regard to the workman's or the dependent's necessities.

DENMARK.

Date of enactment. January 7, 1898, in effect January 15, 1899; amended May 15, 1903.

Injuries compensated. All injuries by accident occasioned by the trade or its conditions, and causing either death or disability lasting over thirteen weeks, unless brought on intentionally or through gross negligence of the victim.

Industries covered. Practically all establishments in mining, quarrying, manufactures, building and engineering work, transportation, telephone and telegraph services, diving and salvage; establishments using mechanical power which makes them subject to factory inspection; other industrial establishments designated by the minister of interior.

Persons compensated. All workmen in mechanical and technical departments, including those in supervisory capacity whose annual earnings do not exceed 2,400 crowns (\$643.20).

Government employees. Act applies to all employees of state and the communal governments in industries above indicated.

Burden of payment. Entire burden of payment rests upon employer.

Compensation for death:

(a) Funeral benefit of 50 crowns (\$13.40).

(b) A lump sum equal to four times annual earnings of deceased, but not over 3,200 crowns (\$857.60) nor less than 1,200 crowns (\$321.60), to—

Widow whole amount, if she survives.

Child whole amount, if it be the only heir.

Children, according to decision of insurance council, when there is no widow.

If neither widow nor children, insurance council decides whether and how far other heirs receive compensation.

Compensation for disability:

(a) From end of thirteenth week after accident until end of treatment, or until disability is declared permanent, a daily compensation of 60 per cent of earnings, but not less than 1 crown (27 cents) nor over 2 crowns (54 cents) for total disability, and a proportionate compensation for partial disability.

(b) In case of permanent disability an indemnity of six times annual earnings, but not less than 1,800 crowns (\$482.40) nor over 4,800 crowns (\$1,286.40) for total permanent disability, and proportionate payments for partial permanent disability.

(c) If employee suffering from permanent disability is a male between 30 and 55 years of age, he may demand purchase of an annuity. For men of other ages, or of unsound mind, or women and children, the insurance council may substitute an annuity.

Revision of compensation. Determination of degree of permanent disability must be made as soon as possible after one year from date of injury. If this be not possible, a temporary determination may be made, but a redetermination may be demanded within two years following.

Insurance. Employers may transfer obligation imposed by the law, by insuring their employees in authorized insurance companies or mutual employers' insurance associations.

Security of payments. Where liability under the law has not been transferred by insurance, indemnity for disability is a preferred claim upon assets of employer.

Settlement of disputes. Disputes concerning compensation, unless settled by mutual consent, must be referred to insurance council. Appeals may be had to the minister of interior.

FINLAND.

Date of enactment. December 5, 1895, in effect January 1, 1898.

Injuries compensated. All injuries by accident during work, causing death or disability for more than six days, except when brought on intentionally or through gross negligence of victim, intentionally by any other person than the one charged with supervision of the work, or caused by some other occurrence utterly independent of the nature or conditions of work.

Industries covered. Mines, quarries, metallurgical establishments, factories, sawmills, industrial establishments using mechanical power, construction of churches and buildings over one story high; construction and operation of water, gas, electric power plants, and operation of railroads.

Persons compensated. All persons actually employed at work, but not those supervising only.

Government employes. Act applies to employment on the state and communal construction works and state railways.

Burden of payment. Entire burden of payment rests upon employer.

Compensation for death. In addition to any prior payments on account of disability, pensions to dependent heirs, from day of death, not exceeding 40 per cent of annual earnings of deceased, to—

- (a) Widow, 20 per cent, until death or remarriage; in latter case a final sum equal to two annual payments.
- (b) Each child until the age of 15 years, 10 per cent, if one parent survives, and 20 per cent if neither parent survives.
- (c) In computing pension, earnings of workman to be considered not over 720 marks (\$138.96) nor under 300 marks (\$57.90); but no adult employee to receive a pension greater than his actual earnings.

Compensation for disability:

- (a) A pension equal to 60 per cent of employee's earnings for total disability, or a pension proportionate to the degree of incapacity for partial disability, to be paid from day of recovery from illness due to injury, or after 120 days have elapsed since injury.
- (b) Pension may by mutual consent be replaced by single payment, if it does not exceed 20 marks (\$3.86) annually:
- (c) In computing pension, earnings of workman to be considered not over 720 marks (\$138.96) nor under 300 marks (\$57.90); but no adult employee to receive a pension greater than his actual earnings.
- (d) In cases of temporary disability (including all cases of disability for 120 days after injury) daily compensation of 60 per cent of earnings, beginning with seventh day after accident, for complete temporary disability, and a proportionate compensation for partial disability; but not more than 2.50 marks (48 cents) per diem.
- (e) Until recovery, injured employee may be given treatment in a hospital in lieu of other compensation; during such treatment his wife and children get a compensation equal to pension in case of death.

Revision of compensation. Demands for revision of compensation may be made by either party before proper court.

Insurance. Employers are required to transfer the burden of payment of compensation to a governmental insurance office, private insurance company, mutual employers' insurance association, or approved foreign insurance company, unless unable to obtain such insurance or released from this obligation on presentation of satisfactory guarantees.

Security of payments. When exempted from the duty of insuring his employees, or unable to obtain insurance, the employer must guarantee payment of pension to the injured workman or his family by arrangement with a private insurance company.

Settlement of disputes. In case of absence of insurance or dissatisfaction with decision of insurance company, injured employee or his dependent may carry the case into the inferior court of the locality.

FRANCE.

Date of enactment. April 9, 1898, in effect July 1, 1899; amendatory and supplementary acts March 22, 1902, March 31, 1905, April 12, 1906, and July 17, 1907.

Injuries compensated. All injuries by accident to workmen or salaried employees during or on account of labor causing death or disability for five or more days, unless produced intentionally by the victim. If due to inexcusable fault of victim or of employer, compensation may by a court order be decreased or increased, but not exceeding actual earnings of victim.

Industries covered. Building trades, factories, workshops, shipyards, transportation by land and water, public warehouses, mining and quarrying, manufacture or handling of explosives, agricultural and other work using mechanical power, and mercantile establishments; other industries on request of both parties.

Persons compensated. All workmen and salaried employees.

Government employees. Law applies to state, departmental, and communal establishments when engaged in industries enumerated above.

Burden of payment. Entire cost of compensation falls upon employer.

Compensation for death:

(a) Funeral expenses not exceeding 100 francs (\$19.30).

(b) Pensions to dependent heirs not exceeding 60 per cent of annual wages of deceased, distributed to—

Widow or widower, 20 per cent until death or remarriage, in which latter case a final sum equal to three annual payments.

Children under 16 years of age if one parent survives—15 per cent if there is but one child; 25 per cent if there are two children; 35 per cent if there are three children; 40 per cent if there are four or more children.

Each child under 16 years of age if neither parent survives, 20 per cent. Each ascendant and each descendant under 16 years of age dependent upon deceased, if no widow or children survive, 10 per cent, the aggregate not to exceed 30 per cent.

(c) If annual wages exceed 2,400 francs (\$463.20), only one-fourth of the excess is considered in computing pensions.

Compensation for disability:

(a) Expenses of medical or surgical treatment.

(b) If permanently disabled, a pension of 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent of annual wages for total disability and of one-half loss of earning capacity for partial disability; or, if demanded, one-fourth the capital value of pension in cash, the pension to be reduced accordingly.

(c) If temporarily disabled, an allowance of 50 per cent of daily wages, beginning with fifth day, and including Sundays and holidays, unless disability lasts more than ten days, when payments become due from the first day.

(d) If annual wages exceed 2,400 francs (\$463.20), only one-fourth of the excess is considered in computing pensions.

(e) Payments of pensions of not over 100 francs (\$19.30) per annum may, by mutual consent when beneficiary is of age, be replaced by a cash payment.

Revision of compensation. Revision of compensation because of aggravation or diminution of disability of victim may be made within three years.

Insurance. Employers may transfer burden of payment of compensation to approved mutual aid, accident insurance, or guaranty associations, or in case of pensions, to national accident insurance or national old-age pension funds.

Security of payments. The State guarantees against loss of pension payments on account of insolvency of employers or insurance organizations, and is reimbursed by a special tax on employers within scope of the act. For temporary disability payments, medicines and medical or surgical attendance, and funeral expenses the victim, his creditors, or representatives have a preferred claim on property of employer.

Settlement of disputes. Disputes as to pensions or involving more than 300 francs (\$57.90) may be carried into higher civil courts. Judgment of local justice of the peace is final in other cases.

GERMANY.

Date of enactment. July 6, 1884, in effect October 1, 1885. Supplementary acts May 28, 1885, May 5, 1886, July 11 and 13, 1887. A codification enacted June 30, 1900.

Injuries compensated. Injuries by accident in the course of the employment, causing death or disability for more than three days, unless caused intentionally. Compensation may be refused or reduced if injury was received while committing an illegal act.

Industries covered. Mining, salt works, quarrying and allied industries, shipyards, factories, smelting works, building trades, chimney sweeping, window cleaning, butchering, transportation and handling, agriculture, forestry, and fisheries.

Persons compensated. All workmen, and those technical officials whose annual earnings are less than 3,000 marks (\$714). With the approval of the Imperial Insurance Office the law may be extended to other classes.

Government employees. Act covers government employees in postal, telegraph, and railway services and in industrial enterprises of army and navy, unless otherwise provided for.

Burden of payment. Medical and surgical treatment for ninety-one days and benefit payments from third to ninety-first days are provided by sick-benefit funds to which employers contribute one-third and employees two-thirds; from twenty-eighth to ninety-first day payments are increased by one-third at expense of employer in whose establishment accident occurred; after ninety-first day, and in case of death from injuries, expense is borne by employers' associations supported by contributions of employers.

Compensation for death:

- (a) Funeral benefits of one-fifteenth of annual earnings of deceased, but not less than 50 marks (\$11.90).
- (b) Pensions to dependent heirs not exceeding 60 per cent of annual earnings of the deceased, as follows: Widow, 20 per cent of annual earnings until death or remarriage; in latter case a final sum equal to three annual payments; dependent widower, 20 per cent of annual earnings; each child 15 years of age or under, 20 per cent; payments to consort and to children to be reduced proportionately if the total would exceed 60 per cent; dependent heirs in ascending line, 20 per cent or less, if there is a residue after providing for above heirs; orphan grandchildren, 20 per cent or less, if there is a residue after providing for above heirs.
- (c) If annual earnings exceed 1,500 marks (\$357), only one-third of excess is considered in computing pensions.

Compensation for disability:

- (a) Free medical and surgical treatment paid first thirteen weeks by sick benefit funds, and afterwards by employers' associations.
- (b) For temporary or permanent total disability, 50 per cent of daily wages of persons similarly employed, but not exceeding 3 marks (71 cents), paid by sick benefit funds from third day to end of fourth week; from fifth to end of thirteenth week, above allowance by sick benefit fund, plus 16½ per cent contributed by employer direct; after thirteen weeks, 66⅔ per cent of average annual earnings of injured person paid by employers' associations.
- (c) For complete helplessness necessitating attendance, payments may be increased to 100 per cent of annual earnings.
- (d) For partial disability, a corresponding reduction in payments.
- (e) If annual earnings exceed 1,500 marks (\$357), only one-third of excess is considered in computing pensions.

Revision of payments. Whenever a change in condition of injured person occurs, a revision of benefits may be made.

Insurance. Payments are met by mutual insurance associations of employers, in which all employees are required to be insured at the expense of employers. Separate associations have been organized for each industry.

Security of payments. Solvency of employers' associations is guaranteed by the State.

Settlement of disputes. Disputes are settled by "arbitration courts for workmen's insurance," composed of one government official, two representatives of workmen, and two of employers.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Date of enactment: December 21, 1906, in effect July 1, 1907, replacing acts of August 6, 1897, and July 30, 1900.

Injuries compensated. Injuries by accident arising out of and in the course of the employment which cause death or disable a workman for at least one week from earning full wages at the work at which he was employed. Compensation is not paid when injury is due to serious and willful misconduct, unless it results in death or serious and permanent disablement.

Industries covered. "Any employment."

Persons compensated. Any person regularly employed for the purposes of the employer's trade or business whose compensation is less than £250 (\$1,216.63) per annum; but persons engaged in manual labor only are not subject to this limitation.

Government employees. Act applies to civilian persons employed under the Crown to whom it would apply if the employer were a private person.

Burden of payment. Entire cost of compensation rests upon employer.

Compensation for death:

- (a) A sum equal to three years' earnings, but not less than £150 (\$729.98) nor more than £300 (\$1,459.95), to those entirely dependent on earnings of deceased.
- (b) A sum less than above amount if deceased leaves persons partially dependent on his earnings, amount to be agreed upon by the parties or fixed by arbitration.
- (c) Reasonable expenses of medical attendance and burial, but not to exceed £10 (\$48.67) if deceased leaves no dependents.

Compensation for disability:

- (a) A weekly payment during incapacity of not more than 30 per cent of employee's average weekly earnings during previous twelve months, but not exceeding £1 (\$4.87) per week; if incapacity lasts less than two weeks no payment is required for the first week.
- (b) A weekly payment during partial disability, not exceeding the difference between employee's average weekly earnings before injury and average amount which he is earning or is able to earn after injury.
- (c) Minor persons may be allowed full earnings during incapacity, but weekly payments may not exceed 10 shillings (\$2.43).
- (d) A sum sufficient to purchase a life annuity through the Post-Office Savings Bank of 75 per cent of annual value of weekly payments may be substituted, on application of the employer, for weekly payments after six months; but other arrangements for redemption of weekly payments may be made by agreement between employer and employee.

Revision of benefits. Weekly payments may be revised at request of either party, under regulations issued by the secretary of state.

Insurance. Employers may make contracts with employees for substitution of a scheme of compensation, benefit, or insurance in place of the provisions of the act, if the registrar of friendly societies certifies that the scheme is not less favorable to the workmen and their dependents than the provisions of the act, and that a majority of the workmen are favorable to the substitute. The employer is then liable only in accordance with the provisions of the scheme.

Security of payments. In case of employer's bankruptcy, the amount of compensation due under the act, up to £100 (\$486.65) in any individual case, is classed as a preferred claim; or where an employer has entered into a contract with insurers in respect of any liability under the act to any workman, such rights of the employer, in case he becomes bankrupt, are transferred to and vested in the workman.

Settlement of disputes. Questions arising under the law are settled either by a committee representative of the employer and his workmen, by an arbitrator selected by the two parties, or, if the parties can not agree, by the judge of the county court, who may appoint an arbitrator to act in his place.

GREECE.

Date of enactment. February 21 (March 6), 1901, in effect (retroactively) December 20, 1900 (January 2, 1901).

Injuries compensated. All injuries by accidents during or because of the employment and causing death or disability lasting more than four days, unless brought on intentionally by the injured person.

Industries covered. Mines, quarries, and metallurgical establishments.

Persons compensated. All workmen and subordinate salaried persons.

Government employees. No mention of government employees is made in the law.

Burden of payment. Employer carries full burden of payment of indemnities during first three months; after three months, half the payments of pensions are contributed by the miners' fund, which is mainly supported by a tax on the mines and metallurgical establishments, but partly by contributions from the workmen's mutual aid societies in these establishments and some minor sources.

Compensation for death:

- (a) If death occurs immediately or within three months: (1) Funeral expenses amounting to 60 drachmas (\$11.58); (2) pensions to heirs aggregating pension paid for total disability.
- (b) If death occurs three months after injury or later, pensions to heirs aggregating 75 per cent of pension paid during life of the injured.
- (c) All pensions to heirs are distributed as follows: Equal share to widow and children, or, in absence of widow and children, equal share to father and mother.
- (d) Pension to widow ceases on her remarriage; to male children at 16 years of age; to female children on their marriage, with payment of one year's pension as a dowry.
- (e) If only one heir survives he is entitled to only one-half of original pension.

Compensation for disability:

- (a) Free medical and surgical treatment.
- (b) An allowance of 50 per cent of earnings of injured employee during first three months.
- (c) If permanently disabled, a pension of 50 per cent of earnings in case of total disability (including loss of a hand or foot); in case of partial disability, a pension of 33½ per cent of earnings, pension payments to begin after end of third month.
- (d) Pension may not exceed 100 drachmas (\$19.30) per month plus 25 per cent of the excess of computed pension over 100 drachmas (\$19.30).
- (e) In computing pension of apprentices and children, no wage is to be considered less than 2.50 drachmas (48 cents) per day.

Revision of compensation. Injured employee may present a new petition, or the council of the miners' fund may order a new examination, whenever there is reason to believe that changes have occurred in the degree of disability.

Insurance. No provision is made by the law for the transfer of the burden of payment of compensation by insurance.

Security of payments. The miners' fund guarantees payment of pensions and other allowances, and has preferred claim upon employer's assets in cases of dissolution or forced sale of establishment, and also in cases of voluntary transfer, unless the new proprietor assumes the obligations under the law.

Settlement of disputes. Amount of pension is settled by the council of the miners' fund, and appeals against its decisions may be carried into the ordinary courts.

HUNGARY.

Date of enactment. April 9, 1907, in effect July 1, 1907.

Injuries compensated. Injuries by accident in the course of the employment causing death or disability for more than three days. Injuries caused intentionally are not compensated unless fatal.

Industries covered. All factories subject to inspection, mines, quarries, metallurgical establishments, building trades, lumbering, construction work, ship-building, slaughterhouses, pharmacies, sanatoria, theaters, institutes of art and science.

Persons compensated. All employees in industries enumerated.

Government employees. Act covers government employees in state, municipal, and communal industries enumerated above.

Burden of payment. All benefits and cost of treatment for first ten weeks provided by sick funds to which employers and employees contribute equally. Beginning with eleventh week entire cost is defrayed by employers through the accident fund.

Compensation for death:

(a) Funeral benefit of twenty times average daily wages.

(b) Pensions to heirs not exceeding 60 per cent of annual earnings of deceased, as follows—

Widow, 20 per cent of annual earnings until death or remarriage; in latter case a final sum equal to 60 per cent of annual earnings; or to dependent widower 20 per cent during disability.

Each child 16 years of age or under, 15 per cent if one parent survives, 30 per cent if neither survives; payments to consort and children reduced proportionately if they aggregate more than 60 per cent.

Dependent parents and grandparents if there is a residue after providing for above heirs, 20 per cent or less.

Dependent orphan grandchildren 15 years of age or under, if there is a residue after providing for above heirs, 20 per cent or less.

(c) In computing pensions the excess of annual earnings above 2,400 crowns (\$487.20) is not considered.

Compensation for disability:

(a) Free medical and surgical treatment provided first ten weeks by sick fund, and afterward by accident fund.

(b) For temporary or permanent total disability, 50 per cent of average daily wages but not exceeding 4 crowns (81 cents) for first ten weeks, provided by sick fund; beginning with eleventh week, 60 per cent of average annual earnings, provided by accident fund.

(c) For complete helplessness necessitating attendance payments may be increased to 100 per cent of annual earnings.

(d) For partial disability a corresponding portion of full pension.

(e) In computing pensions the excess of annual earnings above 2,400 crowns (\$487.20) is not considered.

Revision of compensation. Whenever a change in condition of injured person occurs the accident fund or the injured person may ask for a revision of the benefits.

Insurance. Payments are met by a state insurance institution, in which all employees are required to be insured at the expense of employers.

Security of payment. Guaranteed by the State.

Settlement of disputes. Disputes are settled by arbitration courts, consisting of a presiding judge and an equal number of representatives of workmen and employers.

ITALY.

Date of enactment. March 17, 1898, in effect September 17, 1898. Amended June 29, 1903. Promulgated in codified form January 31, 1904.

Injuries compensated. All injuries sustained by workmen or salaried employees during or on account of labor. If due to willful misconduct, employer may be reimbursed through criminal action.

Industries covered. Mines, quarries, building trades; light, heat, and power plants; arsenals; maritime construction work; transportation; industries requiring the use or handling of explosives; all industrial or agricultural work in proximity to power machinery; where more than five persons are employed in engineering construction work; operations for protection against landslides, floods, hailstorms; logging and timber rafting, and shipbuilding.

Persons compensated. All workmen and apprentices and overseers receiving not more than 7 liras (\$1.35) per day and paid at intervals of one month or less.

Government employees. Act applies to employment in state, provincial, and communal industries enumerated above unless specially provided for, and to work performed for a government institution under contract or concession.

Burden of payment. Entire cost of compensation rests upon employer.

Compensation for death. If within two years after the accident, five times annual wages of deceased workman, with a maximum of 10,000 liras (\$1,930), distributed to—

- (a) Surviving consort two-fifths of indemnity if there are children; one-half of indemnity if there are dependent ascendants; three-fifths of indemnity if only dependent brothers or sisters; entire indemnity in absence of heirs enumerated.

Children, amounts sufficient to purchase an annuity of equal amount for each child under 12 years of age, and one-half of such annuity for each child from 12 to 18 years of age.

Each dependent parent or grand parent, if there are no children, annuity of equal amount for life.

Dependent brothers or sisters less than 18 years of age or incapable of performing labor by reason of a mental or physical defect, if there are no children or dependent ascendants, annuities distributed upon same principle as in case of children.

- (b) In absence of heirs indemnity is turned into a special fund for immediate aid to injured, payment of indemnities for insolvent employers, and prevention of accidents.

Compensation for disability.

- (a) Cost of first medical and surgical treatment.

(b) An indemnity in case of permanent disability of six times annual earnings, but not less than 3,000 liras (\$579) if totally disabled, and six times the loss of annual earning capacity if partially disabled, earnings in latter case to be considered as not less than 500 liras (\$96.50).

(c) A daily allowance in case of temporary disability of one-half the wages of injured workman, payable for not more than three months, if totally disabled, and equal to one-half the reduction in wages occasioned by the injury, if partially disabled.

Revision of compensation. Both workman and insurer may ask for a revision of compensation within two years after accident.

Insurance. Employers must insure their employees in (a) the National Accident Insurance Fund, (b) an authorized insurance company, (c) an association of employers for mutual insurance against accidents, or (d) a private employers' insurance fund.

Security of payments. Payments are guaranteed by State.

Settlement of disputes. In cases of dispute concerning temporary disability payments, the council of prudhommes or the pretor of the locality in which the accident occurred has authority to sit in final judgment if amount involved does not exceed 200 liras (\$38.60). Disputes involving larger amounts are referred for settlement to the local magistrates.

LUXEMBURG.

Date of enactment. April 5, 1902, in effect April 15, 1903. Sick insurance law enacted July 31, 1901.

Injuries compensated. All injuries by accident during or because of the employment, resulting in death or disability for more than three days, unless caused intentionally by the victim or during the commission of an illegal act.

Industries covered. Mines, quarries, manufactories, metallurgical establishments; gas and electric works; transportation and handling; building and engineering construction; and certain artisans' shops having at least five employees regularly and using mechanical motive power. By administrative order other establishments may become subject to the law if regarded dangerous.

Persons compensated. Workmen and those supervising and technical officials whose annual earnings are less than 3,000 francs (\$579). Certain other classes of persons may be voluntarily insured.

Government employees. Act applies to government telegraph and telephone services, public works conducted by public agencies, and other governmental industrial establishments, unless other provisions are made for pensioning employees. Penal institutions are not included.

Burden of payment. Benefits and cost of treatment first thirteen weeks provided by sick benefit funds, to which employers contribute one-third and employees two-thirds, if injured person is insured against sickness; if not, because employed less than one week, by an accident insurance association, supported by contributions of employers; if not insured for other reasons, by the employer direct; all benefits and treatment after thirteen weeks paid by accident insurance association.

Compensation for death:

(a) Funeral expenses, one-fifteenth of the annual earnings, but not less than 40 francs (\$7.72) nor more than 80 francs (\$15.44).

(b) Pensions, not to exceed 60 per cent of earnings of deceased, to—
Widow 20 per cent until death or remarriage; in the latter case a lump sum equal to 60 per cent; same payment to a dependent widower.

Each child 20 per cent until 15 years of age, even if father survives, provided he abandoned them, or the mother who was killed was their main support.

Dependent heirs in an ascending line, 20 per cent.

Dependent orphan grandchildren 20 per cent until 15 years of age.

Widow and children have the preference over other heirs.

(c) In computing pensions only one-third of excess of annual earnings over 1,500 francs (\$289.50) is considered.

Compensation for disability:

(a) Entire cost of medical and surgical treatment.

(b) For temporary or permanent total disability, from third day to end of fourth week, 50 per cent, and from fifth to end of thirteenth week, 60 per cent of wages of persons similarly employed; after thirteen weeks, 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent of annual earnings of injured person.

(c) For partial disability a portion of above (depending upon degree of disability), which may be increased to full amount, as long as injured employee is without employment.

(d) Lump sum payments may be substituted for pensions when degree of disability is not greater than 20 per cent.

(e) In computing pensions only one-third of excess of annual earnings over 1,500 francs (\$289.50) is considered.

Revision of compensation. Demands for change of amount of compensation may be made within three years.

Insurance. Payments are met by mutual accident insurance association of employers in which all employees must be insured at expense of employers.

Security of payments. Insurance association conducted under state supervision.

Settlement of disputes. Appeals from the decisions of the association may be carried within forty days to a justice of the peace, who is required to invite two delegates, representing employer and employee, to assist in an advisory capacity. Further appeals may be taken to the higher courts.

NETHERLANDS.

Date of enactment. January 2, 1901, in effect June 1, 1901. Other acts February 3 and December 8, 1902, and July 24, 1903.

Injuries compensated. All injuries caused by accident in the course of the employment and causing death or disability for over two days, unless brought on intentionally. If due to intoxication, compensation is reduced one-half, and if death results no compensation is paid.

Industries covered. Practically all manufacturing, mining, quarrying, building, engineering construction, and transportation; fishing in internal waters; establishments using mechanical motive power, or explosive or inflammable materials, and mercantile establishments handling such materials.

Persons compensated. All workmen, including apprentices.

Government employees. All state, provincial, and communal employees are included when engaged in any of the industries enumerated.

Burden of payment. The entire expense rests upon the employer.

Compensation for death:

- (a) Funeral benefit of thirty times average daily earnings of deceased.
- (b) Pensions to heirs of not over 60 per cent of earnings of deceased, distributed to—
 - Widow, 30 per cent of earnings, until death or remarriage, in latter case two years' payments as a settlement; or to dependent widower, a pension equal to cost of support, but not over 30 per cent of earnings of deceased.
 - Each child under 16 years of age, 15 per cent if one parent survives, and 20 per cent if both are dead.
 - Dependent parents, and in their absence to grand parents, not over 30 per cent.
 - Orphan grandchildren, not over 20 per cent.
 - Dependent parents-in-law, not over 30 per cent.
 - Widow and children to be preferred over all other heirs, and their respective shares to be reduced proportionately when aggregating over 60 per cent.
- (c) In computing pensions, wages higher than 4 florins (\$1.61) per day are to be considered as of that amount.

Compensation for disability:

- (a) Free medical and surgical treatment, or its cost.
- (b) From day after injury until forty-third day, an allowance of 70 per cent of daily earnings, excluding Sundays and holidays.
- (c) From forty-third day a pension of above amount during total disability and a smaller pension in proportion to loss of earning power if partially disabled.
- (d) In computing pensions, wages higher than 4 florins (\$1.61) per day are to be considered as of that amount.

Revision of compensation. An examination of condition of victim may be made whenever the Royal Insurance Bank so desires.

Insurance. Employers may insure their employees in the Royal Insurance Bank (a state institution), in a private company or association operating under State supervision, or they may carry the burden themselves. If not insured in the Royal Insurance Bank a sufficient guarantee must be deposited with the latter. Employers must bear a proportionate share of the expense of administration of the Royal Insurance Bank, whether they insure in it or not.

Security of payments. Compensation payments are guaranteed by the State.

Settlement of disputes. Appeals may be taken from decisions of the Royal Insurance Bank to local arbitration councils, in which employers and employees are equally represented, and from them to a central arbitration council whose decisions are final.

NEW ZEALAND.

Date of enactment. October 18, 1900, to take effect at a date fixed by the governor by order in council. Amended October 3, 1902, November 23, 1903, November 8, 1904, October 31, 1905, and October 29, 1906.

Injuries compensated. All injuries to workmen arising out of and in the course of the employment causing death or disability for at least one week, except when due to serious and willful misconduct of the workman injured.

Industries covered. Industrial, commercial, manufacturing, building, agricultural, pastoral, mining, quarrying, engineering, and hazardous work carried on by or on behalf of the employer as a part of his trade or business.

Persons compensated. All persons under contract with an employer.

Government employees. Act applies to work carried on by or on behalf of the Government or any local authority if it would, in case of a private employer, be an employment to which the act applies.

Burden of payment. Entire cost of compensation rests upon employer; but if there are contractors, then on such contractors and the principal, jointly and severally.

Compensation for death:

- (a) A sum equal to three years' earnings, but not less than £200 (\$973.30) nor more than £400 (\$1,946.00), to those wholly dependent upon earnings of deceased.
- (b) A sum less than above amount if dependents were partly dependent upon deceased, to be agreed upon by the parties or fixed by a magistrate or by the arbitration court.
- (c) Reasonable expenses of medical attendance and burial, not exceeding £30 (\$146.00), in case deceased leaves no dependents.

Compensation for disability:

- (a) A weekly payment during disability not exceeding 50 per cent of employee's average weekly earnings during the previous twelve months, but not to exceed £2 (\$9.73) nor to fall below £1 (\$4.87) where employee's ordinary rate of pay at time of accident was not less than 30 shillings (\$7.30) per week. Total liability of employer is limited to £300 (\$1,459.95). No payment is made for first week if disability does not continue for a longer period than two weeks.
- (b) A lump sum may be substituted for weekly payments for permanent total or partial disability, to be agreed on by the parties or, in default of agreement, determined by the court of arbitration.

Revision of benefits. Weekly payments may be revised at request of either party.

Insurance. Employers may contract with their employees for substitution of a scheme of compensation, benefit, or insurance in place of the provisions of the act if the scheme is shown to be not less favorable to the general body of employees and their dependents than the provisions of the act. In such case the employer is liable only in accordance with the scheme.

Security of payments. When an employer becomes liable under this act to pay compensation, and is entitled to any sum from insurers on account of the amount due to a workman under such liability, then in the event of his becoming insolvent such workman has a first claim upon this sum. Compensation for injuries sustained in the course of employment in or about a mine, factory, building, or vessel is deemed a charge upon the employer's interest in such property and has priority over all charges other than those lawfully existing at the time of the commencement of the act.

Settlement of disputes. Disputes arising under the act are settled by the court of arbitration under the industrial arbitration act. Where claim for compensation does not exceed £200 (\$973.30) proceedings may be instituted before a magistrate whose decision is final, except that in cases where amount involved does not exceed £50 (\$243.33) either party may, with the consent of the magistrate, and in cases where the claim exceeds £50 (\$243.33), without such consent, appeal from his decision on any point of law.

NORWAY.

Date of enactment, July 23, 1894, in effect July 1, 1895.

Injuries compensated. All injuries by industrial accidents, causing death, or disability for more than four weeks, or requiring treatment after that period, unless intentionally brought about by the injured person.

Industries covered. Practically all factories and workshops using other than hand power; mines and quarries; the handling of ice, explosives, or inflammable wares; building and engineering construction, electric work, transportation, salvage and diving, chimney sweeping, and fire extinguishing. Employees in other industries may avail themselves of this insurance system.

Persons compensated. All workmen and overseers.

Government employees. Act covers employees in government or communal service, when engaged in any of the industries enumerated above, unless at least equal compensation is provided by special regulation.

Burden of payment. Cost of compensation rests upon employer.

Compensation in case of death:

(a) Funeral benefit of 50 crowns (\$13.40).

(b) Pensions to heirs not exceeding 50 per cent of earnings, to be distributed to—

Widow, 20 per cent of earnings, until death or remarriage; in the latter case a lump sum equal to three annual payments; or dependent widower, 20 per cent of annual earnings of deceased while disability lasts.

Each child 15 per cent of annual earnings till age of 15 years, if one parent survives, or 20 per cent if neither survives; 15 per cent for each parent to each child, when both parents have died as result of injuries.

Dependent relatives in ascending line, if there is a residue after providing for above-mentioned heirs, a pension of 20 per cent of earnings until death or cessation of need, to be divided equally; but living parents exclude grandparents from participation.

(c) In computing pensions, the excess of annual earnings over 1,200 crowns (\$321.60) is not considered.

(d) Pension payments are in addition to prior allowances granted for disability.

Compensation for disability:

(a) Free medical and surgical treatment, or cost of same, after four weeks.

(b) If employee is totally disabled for more than four weeks an allowance of 60 per cent of the earnings, but not less than 0.50 crown (13 cents) per diem or 150 crowns (\$40.20) per annum; and a proportionate allowance in case of partial disability.

(c) If injured employee is forced to stay in a hospital, dependents receive allowances during that time equal to the pensions granted in cases of death.

(d) If injured employee is not a member of a sick insurance fund he is entitled to receive from employer directly sick benefits and free medical treatment from first day of injury.

(e) In computing allowances the excess of annual earnings over 1,200 crowns (\$321.60) is not considered.

Revision of compensation. Compensation is subject to revision upon demand of either the beneficiary or the insurance office.

Insurance. A state central insurance office is established for the entire Kingdom, in which all employees subject to the law must be insured by employer, unless he is, for special reasons, relieved by royal order from the obligation of insurance.

Security of payments. Insurance office is guaranteed by the State.

Settlement of disputes. Appeals from decisions of insurance office may be entered within six weeks with the special insurance commission.

QUEENSLAND.

Date of enactment. December 20, 1905, in effect March 31, 1906.

Injuries compensated. All injuries by accident, arising out of and in the course of the employment, which cause death or disable a workman for at least two weeks from earning full wages at the work at which he was employed, except when the injury is directly attributable to his serious and willful misconduct or when it occurs while proceeding to or from his place of work.

Industries covered. Industrial, commercial, manufacturing, building, agricultural, pastoral, mining, quarrying, engineering, or hazardous work carried on by or on behalf of the employer as a part of his trade or business.

Persons compensated. All persons under contract with an employer.

Government employees. Act applies to any work carried on by or on behalf of the government or any local authority if it would, in case of a private employer, be an employment to which the act applies.

Burden of payment. Entire cost of compensation rests upon employer.

Compensation for death:

- (a) A sum equal to three years' earnings, but not less than £200 (\$973.30) nor more than £400 (\$1,946.60), to those wholly dependent upon earnings of deceased; but aged and infirm employees may agree in advance to accept a reduced amount.
- (b) A sum less than above if heirs are only partly dependent.
- (c) Reasonable expenses of medical attendance and burial, not exceeding £30 (\$146), if deceased leaves no dependents.

Compensation for disability:

- (a) A weekly payment during disability after second week, not exceeding 50 per cent of employee's average weekly earnings during the previous twelve months, such weekly payments not to exceed £1 (\$4.87), and total liability not to exceed £400 (\$1,946.60); except that aged and infirm employees may agree in advance to accept a reduced amount.
- (b) A weekly payment during partial disability after second week, not exceeding one-half of difference between the employee's average weekly earnings before the accident and the average weekly amount which he is earning or able to earn after injury.
- (c) Minors may be allowed full earnings during incapacity, not exceeding 10 shillings (\$2.43) weekly.
- (d) A lump sum may be substituted for weekly payments after three months, on application of employer, the amount to be agreed upon or, in default of agreement, to be determined by a police magistrate.

Revision of compensation. Weekly payments may be revised by a police magistrate at request of either party.

Insurance. Employers may contract with their employees for substitution of a scheme of compensation, benefit, or insurance in place of the provisions of the act if the scheme is officially certified to be not less favorable to the employees and their dependents than the provisions of the act. In such case the employer is liable only in accordance with the scheme.

Security of payments. When an employer becomes liable under the act to pay compensation, and is entitled to any sum from insurers on account of the amount due to a worker under such liability, then in the event of his becoming insolvent, such workman has a first claim upon this sum for the amount so due.

Settlement of disputes. Disputes arising under the act are heard and determined by a police magistrate, whose decision is final, except that either party may appeal from this decision on any point of law with the latter's leave if the claim does not exceed £50 (\$243.33), or without his leave if it exceeds that amount.

RUSSIA.

Date of enactment. June 2 (15), 1903, in effect January 1 (14), 1904.

Injuries compensated. All injuries by accident occasioned by or on account of the work and causing death or disability for more than three days, unless brought on intentionally by the victim or due to gross imprudence.

Industries covered. Metallurgical and mining establishments and factories and workshops using other than hand power, but exclusive of shops of private railroad and steamship companies and certain rural industrial establishments.

Persons compensated. Workmen and those technical officials whose annual earnings do not exceed 1,500 rubles (\$772.50).

Government employees. Act applies to mining, metallurgical and manufacturing establishments of municipal and zemstvo governments, but not to national government employees, for whom special regulations exist.

Burden of payment. Entire burden of payment rests upon employer.

Compensation for death:

(a) Funeral expenses not exceeding 30 rubles (\$15.45) for an adult and 15 rubles (\$7.73) for a child under 15 years of age.

(b) Pensions to dependent heirs not exceeding 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent of annual earnings of victim, distributed to—

Widow 33 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent until death or remarriage; in the latter case a lump sum equal to three annual payments.

Each child until age of 15 years 16 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent if one parent survives and 25 per cent if neither parent survives.

Dependent heirs in ascending line, 16 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent.

Each dependent orphan brother and sister until 15 years of age, 16 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent.

Widow and children take precedence over other dependent heirs, who share the remainder in equal parts.

(c) Pension may, by mutual consent of employer and beneficiary, be replaced by single payment of ten times amount of annual pension and, in case of children, pension multiplied by the number of years remaining for pension payments, but not exceeding ten.

Compensation for disability:

(a) Free medical and surgical treatment or reimbursement of expense of same.

(b) If permanently disabled, a pension of 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ percent of annual earnings of victim in case of total disability, and a pension proportionate to degree of incapacity in case of partial disability, to be paid from time when degree of permanent disability was determined; if amount of pension exceeds that of previous allowance for temporary disability, difference between the two during the period of disability is paid to permanently injured employee.

(c) Pension may, by mutual consent of employer and beneficiary, be replaced by a single payment of ten times amount of annual pension.

(d) If temporarily disabled, an allowance of 50 per cent of actual wages of victim from day of accident until complete recovery from disability or the determining of degree of permanent disability.

Revision of compensation. Demands for revision of payments or to secure a pension previously refused may be made by either party within three years.

Insurance. Employers may transfer burden of payment of compensation by insuring their employees in authorized insurance companies or societies.

Security of payments. On retiring from business employer must guarantee payments by insurance or by deposit with a state bank. In case of insolvency, payments constitute a preferred claim.

Settlements of disputes. Disputes may be carried into courts as other civil cases. Such cases are exempt from court fees, the documents are free from stamp tax, and attorney's fees are fixed by law.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

Date of enactment. December 5, 1900, in effect not earlier than June 1, 1901.

Injuries compensated. All injuries to workmen arising out of and in the course of the employment causing death or disability for at least one week, except when due to serious and willful misconduct of the workman injured.

Industries covered. Railways, waterworks, tramways, electric-lighting works, factories, mines, quarries, engineering and building work, employments declared by a proclamation of the governor upon addresses from both houses of parliament to be dangerous or injurious to health or dangerous to life or limb, and agricultural pursuits where mechanical motive power is used.

Persons compensated. All persons engaged in manual labor or otherwise.

Government employees. Act applies to civilian persons employed under the Crown to whom it would apply if the employer were a private person.

Burden of payment. Entire cost of compensation rests upon employer.

Compensation for death:

(a) A sum equal to three years' earnings, but not less than £150 (\$729.98) nor more than £300 (\$1,459.95), to those wholly dependent upon earnings of deceased.

(b) A sum less than above amount if dependents were partly dependent upon deceased, to be agreed upon by the parties or fixed by arbitration.

(c) Reasonable expenses of medical attendance and burial not exceeding £50 (\$243.33), if deceased leaves no dependents.

Compensation for disability:

(a) A weekly payment during disability after first week, not exceeding 50 per cent of employee's average weekly earnings during the previous twelve months, such weekly payments not to exceed £1 (\$4.87) nor, in case of total incapacity, to be less than 7s. 6d. (\$1.83) per week, and total liability not to exceed £300 (\$1,459.95).

(b) A weekly payment during partial disability after first week to be fixed with regard to difference between employee's average weekly earnings before the accident and average weekly amount which he is earning or able to earn after injury.

(c) A lump sum not exceeding £300 (\$1,459.95) may be substituted for weekly payments, after six months, on application of either party, the amount to be settled by arbitration under the act in default of agreement.

Revision of benefits. Weekly payments may be revised at request of either party.

Insurance. Employers may contract with their employees for substitution of a scheme of compensation, benefit, or insurance in place of the provisions of the act, if the public actuary certifies that the scheme is on the whole not less favorable to general body of employees and their dependents than the provisions of the act. In such case employer is liable only in accordance with the scheme.

Security of payments. When an employer becomes liable under the act to pay compensation, and is entitled to any sum from insurers on account of the amount due to a workman under such liability, then in the event of his becoming insolvent such workman has a first claim upon this sum, and any special magistrate may direct its payment into the savings bank to be applied to payment of compensations due.

Settlement of disputes. Disputes arising under the act are settled by the arbitration of existing committees representative of employers and employees, or, if either party objects, by a single arbitrator agreed on by the parties, or, in absence of agreement, by a special magistrate. An arbitrator appointed by the magistrate has all the powers of a local court.

SPAIN.

Date of enactment. January 30, 1900, in effect July 28, 1900.

Injuries compensated. All injuries by accidents to employees in the course of and by reason of the employment causing death or disability. Compensation may be reduced if injured person was engaged in an illegal act.

Industries covered. Manufacturing, mines, quarries, metallurgical establishments, construction work, industries injurious to health, transportation, gas and electric works, street cleaning, theaters, and agricultural and forestry establishments using power machinery.

Persons compensated. Workmen performing manual labor, including helpers and apprentices.

Government employees. Act applies to employees of state factories and other government establishments, to labor accidents in war and naval departments, and to establishments of provincial and communal governments.

Burden of payment. Entire cost of compensation rests upon employer.

Compensation for death. In addition to any prior benefits paid for disability—

- (a) Funeral expenses not exceeding 100 pesetas (\$19.30).
- (b) A lump sum equal to two years' earnings, if widow, and children or dependent orphan grandchildren under 16 years survive; eighteen months' earnings if only children or orphan grandchildren survive; one year's earnings if only widow survives; ten months' earnings to dependent parents or grand parents over 60 years of age, in absence of widow or children, if two or more survive; seven months' earnings if only one parent or grand parent survives.
- (c) For these lump sum payments, by mutual consent, the following pensions may be substituted: 40 per cent of annual earnings when widow and children or grandchildren survive; 20 per cent of annual earnings when only widow survives; 10 per cent to each dependent parent or grand parent over 60 years of age, when no widow or children survive, but not over 30 per cent in the aggregate; compensation to widow ceases on her remarriage, and to children on their attaining the age of 16 years.
- (d) In these cases, the daily earnings to be considered as not less than 1.50 pesetas (29 cents).
- (e) All of these compensations are increased by 50 per cent if the establishment is lacking in the required safety provisions.

Compensation for disability:

- (a) Free medical and surgical treatment during disability.
- (b) Fifty per cent of daily earnings, including Sundays and holidays, from day of injury to day of recovery from disability, but not over one year, after which case is treated as one of permanent disability.
- (c) In case of permanent disability, in addition to the foregoing, a sum equal to two years' earnings for total disability.
Eighteen months' earnings, if total disability extends only to former trade.
One year's earnings in cases of partial permanent disability for usual employment, unless the employer agrees to employ injured workmen at some other work at old rate of wages.
- (d) In these cases, the daily earnings to be considered as not less than 1.50 pesetas (29 cents).
- (e) Compensations are increased by 50 per cent if the establishment is lacking in the required safety provisions.

Revision of compensation. No special provision is made in the law.

Insurance. Employers may contract with authorized insurance companies to assume obligations imposed by law.

Security of payments. No special provision is made in the law.

Settlement of disputes. Disputes concerning compensation under the law may be carried to special permanent labor tribunals consisting of representatives of the State, employers, and employees.

SWEDEN.

Date of enactment. Approved July 5, 1901, in effect January 1, 1903; amended June 3, 1904.

Injuries compensated. Injuries by accidents to workmen resulting from the employment, and causing death or disability for more than sixty days, unless due to the willful act or gross negligence of the victim or to the willful act of a third person who has neither the supervision nor the direction of the work.

Industries covered. Practically all establishments engaged in forestry work, mining, quarrying, turf and ice cutting and handling, manufacturing, chimney sweeping, rafting, railway and tramway service, handling goods, building trades, conduit, road and other construction work, and electricity, gas, and water distribution. Employers in other industries may insure their employees in the State Insurance Institute and thereby be placed under provisions of the act. Employees in other industries may secure the protection of the act by insuring themselves in the State Insurance Institute.

Persons compensated. Workmen and foremen.

Government employees. Act applies to employees in the state and communal services when engaged in any of the industries enumerated above.

Burden of payment. Entire cost of compensation rests upon employer.

Compensation for death. When death results from the injury within two years—

- (a) Funeral benefit of 60 crowns (\$16.08).
- (b) Annual pensions not exceeding in the aggregate 300 crowns (\$80.40), to be distributed to widow, until remarriage 120 crowns (\$32.16); each child under 15 years of age 60 crowns (\$16.08).

Compensation for disability.

- (a) If permanently disabled, annual pension of 300 crowns (\$80.40) in case of total disability, and a smaller sum corresponding to loss of earning power in case of partial disability, pension to begin with sixty-first day of disability, or later if permanent character of the disability was not then established.
- (b) If temporarily disabled for more than sixty days, 1 crown (27 cents) per day beginning with sixty-first day.

Revision of compensation. Suit may be brought in a court of first instance by injured employee for a revision of compensation within two years from the date of the fixing of the same.

Insurance. If an injured person receives an allowance or pension from an organization which is supported entirely or in greater part by the employer, or if the victim is insured in a private organization by his employer, the amounts received from such a source may be deducted from payments required of employer under the act. Employers may transfer burden of payment of compensation by insuring in the State Insurance Institute, created for this purpose by the act, or in individual cases purchase annuities for pensioners from this institution. Other arrangements may be made between employers and employees if the State Insurance Institute finds upon examination that they are not unfavorable to the employees.

Security of payments. An employer may be required to furnish adequate security for the payment of the pension to cover the contingency of his neglecting to pay the same, of his retiring from business or leaving the country, or of his becoming insolvent. If he fails to furnish security he may be required to pay a lump sum equal to the capital value of the pension plus the payments and interest due, which amount, in the case of an injured employee, must be invested in the purchase of an annuity from the Royal Insurance Institute.

Settlement of disputes. Disputes may be settled either by arbitration or by bringing suit in a court of first instance. The demand for arbitration must be made or the suit brought within two years after the accident or in case of fatal accidents within two years after the death of the victim. If the action is against the State Insurance Institute, one year more is allowed.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

Date of enactment. February 19, 1902, in effect on a date fixed by the governor by order in council.

Injuries compensated. All injuries caused to a workman arising out of and in the course of the employment causing death or disability for at least two weeks, except when due to serious and willful misconduct of the workman injured.

Industries covered. Railways, waterworks, tramways, electric-light plants, factories, mines, quarries, engineering and building work, and employments declared by a proclamation of the governor, issued pursuant to addresses from both houses of parliament, to be dangerous or injurious to health or dangerous to life or limb.

Persons compensated. All persons engaged under contract in any employment.

Government employees. Act applies to all persons employed under the Crown to whom it would apply if employer were a private person.

Burden of payment. Entire cost of compensation rests upon employer.

Compensation for death:

- (a) A sum equal to three years' earnings, but not less than £200 (\$973.30) nor more than £400 (\$1,946.60), to those wholly dependent upon earnings of deceased.
- (b) A sum less than above amount if dependents were partly dependent upon deceased, to be agreed upon by the parties or fixed by local court.
- (c) Reasonable expenses of medical attendance and burial not to exceed £100 (\$486.65), if deceased leaves no dependents.

Compensation for disability:

- (a) A weekly payment during disability after second week, not exceeding 50 per cent of injured person's average weekly earnings during the previous twelve months, such weekly payment not to exceed £2 (\$9.73) and total liability not to exceed £300 (\$1,459.95).
- (b) In case of partial disability, regard is to be had to the difference between average weekly earnings before and after the accident, and to any payment other than wages made by employer on account of the injury.
- (c) A lump sum may be substituted for weekly payments, after six months, on the application of the employer, the amount to be determined by the court in default of agreement.

Revision of benefits. Weekly payments may be revised by the court at request of either party.

Insurance. Employers may contract with their employees for substitution of a scheme of compensation, benefit, or insurance in place of the provisions of the act, if the registrar of friendly societies certifies that the scheme is on the whole not less favorable to the general body of employees and their dependents than the provisions of the act. In such case employer is liable only in accordance with this scheme.

Security of payments. When an employer becomes liable under the act to pay compensation, and is entitled to any sum from insurers on account of the amount due to a workman under such liability, then in the event of his becoming insolvent such workman has a first charge upon this sum for the amount so due. Compensation for injuries sustained in the course of employment in or about a mine, factory, building, or vessel is deemed a charge on the employer's interest in such property.

Settlement of disputes. Disputes arising under the act are settled by the local court of the district in which the injury is received.

BRITISH WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION ACT OF 1906.

In the following pages is given in full the text of the British Workmen's Compensation Act of 1906, enacted December 21, 1906, to take effect July 1, 1907. It is given here to show the present provisions of the British law in regard to the compensation of workmen for injuries received in their employment :

AN ACT to consolidate and amend the law with respect to compensation to workmen for injuries suffered in the course of their employment [21st December, 1906].

*Be it enacted by * * * Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:*

1.—(1) If in any employment personal injury by accident arising out of and in the course of the employment is caused to a workman, his employer shall, subject as hereinafter mentioned, be liable to pay compensation in accordance with the first schedule to this act.

(2) Provided that—

(a) The employer shall not be liable under this act in respect of any injury which does not disable the workman for a period of at least one week from earning full wages at the work at which he was employed :

(b) When the injury was caused by the personal negligence or willful act of the employer or of some person for whose act or default the employer is responsible, nothing in this act shall affect any civil liability of the employer, but in that case the workman may, at his option, either claim compensation under this act or take proceedings independently of this act ; but the employer shall not be liable to pay compensation for injury to a workman by accident arising out of and in the course of the employment both independently of and also under this act, and shall not be liable to any proceedings independently of this act, except in case of such personal negligence or willful act as aforesaid :

(c) If it is proved that the injury to a workman is attributable to the serious and willful misconduct of that workman, any compensation claimed in respect of that injury shall, unless the injury results in death or serious and permanent disablement, be disallowed.

(3) If any question arises in any proceedings under this act as to the liability to pay compensation under this act (including any question as to whether the person injured is a workman to whom this act applies), or as to the amount or duration of compensation under this act, the question, if not settled by agreement, shall, subject to the provisions of the first schedule to this act, be settled by arbitration, in accordance with the second schedule to this act.

(4) If, within the time hereinafter in this act limited for taking proceedings, an action is brought to recover damages independently of this act for injury caused by any accident, and it is determined in such action that the injury is one for which the employer is not liable in such action, but that he would have been liable to pay compensation under the provisions of this act, the action shall be dismissed ; but the court in which the action is tried shall, if the plaintiff so choose, proceed to assess such compensation, but may deduct from such compensation all or part of the costs which, in its judgment, have been caused by the plaintiff bringing the action instead of proceeding under this act. In any proceeding under this subsection, when the court assesses the compensation it shall give a certificate of the compensation it has awarded and the directions it has given as to the deduction for costs, and such certificate shall have the force and effect of an award under this act.

(5) Nothing in this act shall affect any proceeding for a fine under the enactments relating to mines, factories, or workshops, or the application of any such fine.

2.—(1) Proceedings for the recovery under this act of compensation for an injury shall not be maintainable unless notice of the accident has been given as soon as practicable after the happening thereof and before the workman has voluntarily left the employment in which he was injured, and unless the claim for compensation with respect to such accident has been made within six months from the occurrence of the accident causing the injury, or, in case of death, within six months from the time of death:

Provided always that—

(a) the want of or any defect or inaccuracy in such notice shall not be a bar to the maintenance of such proceedings if it is found in the proceedings for settling the claim that the employer is not, or would not, if a notice or an amended notice were then given and the hearing postponed, be prejudiced in his defense by the want, defect, or inaccuracy, or that such want, defect, or inaccuracy was occasioned by mistake, absence from the United Kingdom, or other reasonable cause; and

(b) the failure to make a claim within the period above specified shall not be a bar to the maintenance of such proceedings if it is found that the failure was occasioned by mistake, absence from the United Kingdom, or other reasonable cause.

(2) Notice in respect of an injury under this act shall give the name and address of the person injured, and shall state in ordinary language the cause of the injury and the date at which the accident happened, and shall be served on the employer, or, if there is more than one employer, upon one of such employers.

(3) The notice may be served by delivering the same at, or sending it by post in a registered letter addressed to, the residence or place of business of the person on whom it is to be served.

(4) Where the employer is a body of persons, corporate or unincorporate, the notice may also be served by delivering the same at, or by sending it by post in a registered letter addressed to, the employer at the office, or, if there be more than one office, any one of the offices of such body.

3.—(1) If the registrar of friendly societies, after taking steps to ascertain the views of the employer and workmen, certifies that any scheme of compensation, benefit, or insurance for the workmen of an employer in any employment, whether or not such scheme includes other employers and their workmen, provides scales of compensation not less favorable to the workmen and their dependents than the corresponding scales contained in this act, and that, where the scheme provides for contributions by the workmen, the scheme confers benefits at least equivalent to those contributions, in addition to the benefits to which the workmen would have been entitled under this act, and that a majority (to be ascertained by ballot) of the workmen to whom the scheme is applicable are in favor of such scheme, the employer may, whilst the certificate is in force, contract with any of his workmen that the provisions of the scheme shall be substituted for the provisions of this act, and thereupon the employer shall be liable only in accordance with the scheme, but, save as aforesaid, this act shall apply notwithstanding any contract to the contrary made after the commencement of this act.

(2) The registrar may give a certificate to expire at the end of a limited period of not less than five years, and may from time to time renew with or without modifications such a certificate to expire at the end of the period for which it is renewed.

(3) No scheme shall be so certified which contains an obligation upon the workmen to join the scheme as a condition of their hiring, or which does not contain provisions enabling a workman to withdraw from the scheme.

(4) If complaint is made to the registrar of friendly societies by or on behalf of the workmen of any employer that the benefits conferred by any scheme no longer conform to the conditions stated in subsection (1) of this section, or that the provisions of such scheme are being violated, or that the scheme is not being fairly administered, or that satisfactory reasons exist for revoking the certificate, the registrar shall examine into the complaint, and, if satisfied that good cause exist for such complaint, shall, unless the cause of complaint is removed, revoke the certificate.

When a certificate is revoked or expires, any moneys or securities held for use of the scheme shall, after due provision has been made to discharge

the liabilities already accrued, be distributed as may be arranged between the employer and workmen, or as may be determined by the registrar of friendly societies in the event of a difference of opinion.

(6) Whenever a scheme has been certified as aforesaid, it shall be the duty of the employer to answer all such inquiries and to furnish all such accounts in regard to the scheme as may be made or required by the registrar of friendly societies.

(7) The chief registrar of friendly societies shall include in his annual report the particulars of the proceedings of the registrar under this act.

(8) The chief registrar of friendly societies may make regulations for the purpose of carrying this section into effect.

4.—(1) Where any person (in this section referred to as the principal), in the course of or for the purposes of his trade or business, contracts with any other person (in this section referred to as the contractor) for the execution by or under the contractor of the whole or any part of any work undertaken by the principal, the principal shall be liable to pay to any workman employed in the execution of the work any compensation under this act which he would have been liable to pay if that workman had been immediately employed by him; and where compensation is claimed from or proceedings are taken against the principal, then, in the application of this act, references to the principal shall be substituted for references to the employer, except that the amount of compensation shall be calculated with reference to the earnings of the workman under the employer by whom he is immediately employed:

Provided that, where the contract relates to threshing, plowing, or other agricultural work, and the contractor provides and uses machinery driven by mechanical power for the purpose of such work, he and he alone shall be liable under this act to pay compensation to any workman employed by him on such work.

(2) Where the principal is liable to pay compensation under this section, he shall be entitled to be indemnified by any person who would have been liable to pay compensation to the workman independently of this section, and all questions as to the right to and amount of any such indemnity shall in default of agreement be settled by arbitration under this act.

(3) Nothing in this section shall be construed as preventing a workman recovering compensation under this act from the contractor instead of the principal.

(4) This section shall not apply in any case where the accident occurred elsewhere than on, or in, or about premises on which the principal has undertaken to execute the work or which are otherwise under his control or management.

5.—(1) Where any employer has entered into a contract with any insurers in respect of any liability under this act to any workman, then, in the event of the employer becoming bankrupt, or making a composition or arrangement with his creditors, or if the employer is a company in the event of the company having commenced to be wound up, the rights of the employer against the insurers as respects that liability shall, notwithstanding anything in the enactments relating to bankruptcy and the winding up of companies, be transferred to and vest in the workman, and upon any such transfer the insurers shall have the same rights and remedies and be subject to the same liabilities as if they were the employer, so however that the insurers shall not be under any greater liability to the workman than they would have been under to the employer.

(2) If the liability of the insurers to the workman is less than the liability of the employer to the workman, the workman may prove for the balance in the bankruptcy or liquidation.

(3) There shall be included among the debts which under section one of the Preferential Payments in Bankruptcy Act, 1888, and section four of the Preferential Payments in Bankruptcy (Ireland) Act, 1889, are in the distribution of the property of a bankrupt and in the distribution of the assets of a company being wound up to be paid in priority to all other debts, the amount, not exceeding in any individual case one hundred pounds [\$486.65], due in respect of any compensation the liability whereof accrued before the date of the receiving order or the date of the commencement of the winding up, and those acts and the Preferential Payments in Bankruptcy Amendment Act, 1897, shall have effect accordingly. Where the compensation is a weekly payment, the amount due in respect thereof shall, for the purposes of this provision, be taken to be

the amount of the lump sum for which the weekly payment could, if redeemable, be redeemed if the employer made an application for that purpose under the first schedule to this act.

(4) In the case of the winding up of a company within the meaning of the Stannaries Act, 1887, such an amount as aforesaid, if the compensation is payable to a miner or the dependents of a miner, shall have the like priority as is conferred on wages of miners by section nine of that act, and that section shall have effect accordingly.

(5) The provisions of this section with respect to preferences and priorities shall not apply where the bankrupt or the company being wound up has entered into such a contract with insurers as aforesaid.

(6) This section shall not apply where a company is wound up voluntarily merely for the purposes of reconstruction or of amalgamation with another company.

6. Where the injury for which compensation is payable under this act was caused under circumstances creating a legal liability in some person other than the employer to pay damages in respect thereof—

(1) The workman may take proceedings both against that person to recover damages and against any person liable to pay compensation under this act for such compensation, but shall not be entitled to recover both damages and compensation; and

(2) If the workman has recovered compensation under this act, the person by whom the compensation was paid, and any person who has been called on to pay an indemnity under the section of this act relating to subcontracting, shall be entitled to be indemnified by the person so liable to pay damages as aforesaid, and all questions as to the right to and amount of any such indemnity shall, in default of agreement, be settled by action, or, by consent of the parties, by arbitration under this act.

7.—(1) This act shall apply to masters, seamen, and apprentices to the sea service and apprentices in the sea-fishing service, provided that such persons are workmen within the meaning of this act, and are members of the crew of any ship registered in the United Kingdom, or of any other British ship or vessel of which the owner, or (if there is more than one owner) the managing owner, or manager resides or has his principal place of business in the United Kingdom, subject to the following modifications:

(a) The notice of accident and the claim for compensation may, except where the person injured is the master, be served on the master of the ship as if he were the employer, but where the accident happened and the incapacity commenced on board the ship it shall not be necessary to give any notice of the accident:

(b) In the case of the death of the master, seaman, or apprentice, the claim for compensation shall be made within six months after news of the death has been received by the claimant:

(c) Where an injured master, seaman, or apprentice is discharged or left behind in a British possession or in a foreign country, depositions respecting the circumstances and nature of the injury may be taken by any judge or magistrate in the British possession, and by any British consular officer in the foreign country, and if so taken shall be transmitted by the person by whom they are taken to the Board of Trade, and such deposition or certified copies thereof shall in any proceedings for enforcing the claim be admissible in evidence as provided by sections six hundred and ninety-one and six hundred and ninety-five of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894, and those sections shall apply accordingly:

(d) In the case of the death of a master, seaman, or apprentice, leaving no dependents, no compensation shall be payable, if the owner of the ship is under the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894, liable to pay the expenses of burial:

(e) The weekly payment shall not be payable in respect of the period during which the owner of the ship is, under the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894, as amended by any subsequent enactment, or otherwise, liable to defray the expenses of maintenance of the injured master, seaman, or apprentice:

(f) Any sum payable by way of compensation by the owner of a ship under this act shall be paid in full notwithstanding anything in section five hundred and three of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894 (which relates to the limitation of a shipowner's liability in certain cases of loss of life, injury, or damage), but the limitation on the owner's liability imposed by that section shall apply to the amount recoverable by way of indemnity under the section of this act

relating to remedies both against employer and stranger as if the indemnity were damages for loss of life or personal injury:

(*g*) Subsections (2) and (3) of section one hundred and seventy-four of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894 (which relates to the recovery of wages of seamen lost with their ship), shall apply as respects proceedings for the recovery of compensation by dependents of masters, seamen, and apprentices lost with their ship as they apply with respect to proceedings for the recovery of wages due to seamen and apprentices; and proceedings for the recovery of compensation shall in such a case be maintainable if the claim is made within eighteen months of the date at which the ship is deemed to have been lost with all hands:

(2) This act shall not apply to such members of the crew of a fishing vessel as are remunerated by shares in the profits or the gross earnings of the working of such vessel.

(3) This section shall extend to pilots to whom Part X. of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894, applies, as if a pilot when employed on any such ship as aforesaid were a seaman and a member of the crew.

8.—(1) Where—

(i) the certifying surgeon appointed under the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, for the district in which a workman is employed certifies that the workman is suffering from a disease mentioned in the third schedule to this act and is thereby disabled from earning full wages at the work at which he was employed; or

(ii) a workman is, in pursuance of any special rules or regulations made under the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, suspended from his usual employment on account of having contracted any such disease; or

(iii) the death of a workman is caused by any such disease; and the disease is due to the nature of any employment in which the workman was employed at any time within the twelve months previous to the date of the disablement or suspension, whether under one or more employers, he or his dependents shall be entitled to compensation under this act as if the disease or such suspension as aforesaid were a personal injury by accident arising out of and in the course of that employment, subject to the following modifications:—

(*a*) The disablement or suspension shall be treated as the happening of the accident;

(*b*) If it is proved that the workman has at the time of entering the employment willfully and falsely represented himself in writing as not having previously suffered from the disease, compensation shall not be payable;

(*c*) The compensation shall be recoverable from the employer who last employed the workman during the said twelve months in the employment to the nature of which the disease was due:

Provided that—

(i) the workman or his dependents if so required shall furnish that employer with such information as to the names and addresses of all other employers who employed him in the employment during the said twelve months as he or they may possess, and, if such information is not furnished, or is not sufficient to enable that employer to take proceedings under the next following proviso, that employer upon proving that the disease was not contracted whilst the workman was in his employment shall not be liable to pay compensation; and

(ii) if that employer alleges that the disease was in fact contracted whilst the workman was in the employment of some other employer, and not whilst in his employment, he may join such other employer as a party to the arbitration, and if the allegation is proved that other employer shall be the employer from whom the compensation is to be recoverable; and

(iii) if the disease is of such a nature as to be contracted by a gradual process, any other employers who during the said twelve months employed the workman in the employment to the nature of which the disease was due shall be liable to make the employer from whom compensation is recoverable such contributions as, in default of agreement, may be determined in the arbitration under this act for settling the amount of the compensation:

(*d*) The amount of the compensation shall be calculated with reference to the earnings of the workman under the employer from whom the compensation is recoverable;

(*e*) The employer to whom notice of the death, disablement, or suspension is to be given shall be the employer who last employed the workman during the said twelve months in the employment to the nature of which the disease was due, and the compensation may be given notwithstanding that the workman has voluntarily left the employment.

(f) If an employer or a workman is aggrieved by the action of a certifying or other surgeon in giving or refusing to give a certificate of disablement or in suspending or refusing to suspend a workman for the purposes of this section, the matter shall in accordance with regulations made by the secretary of state be referred to a medical referee, whose decision shall be final.

(2) If the workman at or immediately before the date of the disablement or suspension was employed in any process mentioned in the second column of the third schedule of this act, and the disease contracted is the disease in the first column of that schedule set opposite the description of the process, the disease, except where the certifying surgeon certifies that in his opinion the disease was not due to the nature of the employment, shall be deemed to have been due to the nature of that employment, unless the employer proves the contrary.

(3) The secretary of state may make rules regulating the duties and fees of certifying and other surgeons (including dentists) under this section.

(4) For the purposes of this section the date of disablement shall be such date as the certifying surgeon certifies as the date on which the disablement commenced, or, if he is unable to certify such a date, the date on which the certificate is given:

Provided that—

(a) Where the medical referee allows an appeal against a refusal by a certifying surgeon to give a certificate of disablement, the date of disablement shall be such date as the medical referee may determine:

(b) Where a workman dies without having obtained a certificate of disablement, or is at the time of death not in receipt of a weekly payment on account of disablement, it shall be the date of death.

(5) In such cases, and subject to such conditions as the secretary of state may direct, a medical practitioner appointed by the secretary of state for the purpose shall have the powers and duties of a certifying surgeon under this section, and this section shall be construed accordingly.

(6) The secretary of state may make orders for extending the provisions of this section to other diseases and other processes, and to injuries due to the nature of any employment specified in the order not being injuries by accident, either without modification or subject to such modifications as may be contained in the order.

(7) Where, after inquiry held on the application of any employers or workmen engaged in any industry to which this section applies, it appears that a mutual trade insurance company or society for insuring against the risks under this section has been established for the industry, and that a majority of the employers engaged in that industry are insured against such risks in the company or society and that the company or society consents, the secretary of state may, by provisional order, require all employers in that industry to insure in the company or society upon such terms and under such conditions and subject to such exceptions as may be set forth in the order. Where such a company or society has been established, but is confined to employers in any particular locality or of any particular class, the secretary of state may for the purposes of this provision treat the industry, as carried on by employers in that locality or of that class, as a separate industry.

(8) A provisional order made under this section shall be of no force whatever unless and until it is confirmed by Parliament, and if, while the bill confirming any such order is pending in either House of Parliament, a petition is presented against the order, the bill may be referred to a select committee, and the petitioner shall be allowed to appear and oppose as in the case of private bills, and any act confirming any provisional order under this section may be repealed, altered, or amended by a provisional order made and confirmed in like manner.

(9) Any expenses incurred by the secretary of state in respect of any such order, provisional order, or confirming bill shall be defrayed out of moneys provided by Parliament.

(10) Nothing in this section shall affect the rights of a workman to recover compensation in respect of a disease to which this section does not apply, if the disease is a personal injury by accident within the meaning of this act.

3.—(1) This act shall not apply to persons in the naval or military service of the Crown, but otherwise shall apply to workmen employed by or under the Crown to whom this act would apply if the employer were a private person:

Provided that in the case of a person employed in the private service of the Crown, the head of that department of the royal household in which he was employed at the time of the accident shall be deemed to be his employer.

(2) The treasury may, by warrant laid before Parliament, modify for the purposes of this act their warrant made under section one of the Superannuation Act, 1887, and notwithstanding anything in that act, or any such warrant, may frame schemes with a view to their being certified by the registrar of friendly societies under this act.

10.—(1) The secretary of state may appoint such legally qualified medical practitioners to be medical referees for the purposes of this act as he may, with the sanction of the treasury, determine, and the remuneration of, and other expenses incurred by, medical referees under this act shall, subject to regulations made by the treasury, be paid out of moneys provided by Parliament.

Where a medical referee has been employed as a medical practitioner in connection with any case by or on behalf of an employer or workman or by any insurers interested, he shall not act as medical referee in that case.

(2) The remuneration of an arbitrator appointed by a judge of county courts under the second schedule to this act shall be paid out of moneys provided by Parliament in accordance with regulations made by the treasury.

11.—(1) If it is alleged that the owners of any ship are liable as such owners to pay compensation under this act, and at any time that ship is found in any port or river of England or Ireland, or within three miles of the coast thereof, a judge of any court of record in England or Ireland may, upon its being shown to him by any person applying in accordance with the rules of the court that the owners are probably liable as such to pay such compensation, and that none of the owners reside in the United Kingdom, issue an order directed to any officer of customs or other officer named by the judge requiring him to detain the ship until such time as the owners, agent, master, or consignee thereof have paid such compensation, or have given security, to be approved by the judge, to abide the event of any proceedings that may be instituted to recover such compensation and to pay such compensation and costs as may be awarded thereon; and any officer of customs or other officer to whom the order is directed shall detain the ship accordingly.

(2) In any legal proceeding to recover such compensation, the person giving security shall be made defendant, and the production of the order of the judge, made in relation to the security, shall be conclusive evidence of the liability of the defendant to the proceeding.

(3) Section six hundred and ninety-two of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894, shall apply to the detention of a ship under this act as it applies to the detention of a ship under that act, and, if the owner of a ship is a corporation, it shall for the purposes of this section be deemed to reside in the United Kingdom if it has an office in the United Kingdom at which service of writs can be effected.

12.—(1) Every employer in any industry to which the secretary of state may direct that this section shall apply shall, on or before such day in every year as the secretary of state may direct, send to the secretary of state a correct return specifying the number of injuries in respect of which compensation has been paid by him under this act during the previous year, and the amount of such compensation, together with such other particulars as to the compensation as the secretary of state may direct, and in default of complying with this section shall be liable on conviction under the Summary Jurisdiction Acts to a fine not exceeding five pounds [\$24.33].

(2) Any regulations made by the secretary of state containing such directions as aforesaid shall be laid before both Houses of Parliament as soon as may be after they are made.

13. In this act, unless the context otherwise requires,—

“Employer” includes any body of persons corporate or unincorporate and the legal personal representative of a deceased employer, and, where the services of a workman are temporarily lent or let on hire to another person by the person with whom the workman has entered into a contract of service or apprenticeship, the latter shall, for the purposes of this act, be deemed to continue to be the employer of the workman whilst he is working for that other person;

“Workman” does not include any person employed otherwise than by way of manual labor whose remuneration exceeds two hundred and fifty pounds [\$1,216.63] a year, or a person whose employment is of a casual nature and who is employed otherwise than for the purposes of the employer's trade or business, or a member of a police force, or an outworker, or a member of the employer's family dwelling in his house, but, save as aforesaid, means any person who has entered into or works under a contract of service or apprentice-

ship with an employer, whether by way of manual labor, clerical work, or otherwise, and whether the contract is expressed or implied, is oral or in writing;

Any reference to a workman who has been injured shall, where the workman is dead, include a reference to his legal personal representative or to his dependents or other person to whom or for whose benefit compensation is payable;

"Dependents" means such of the members of the workman's family as were wholly or in part dependent upon the earnings of the workman at the time of his death, or would but for the incapacity due to the accident have been so dependent, and where the workman, being the parent or grand parent of an illegitimate child, leaves such a child so dependent upon his earnings, or, being an illegitimate child, leaves a parent or grand parent so dependent upon his earnings shall include such an illegitimate child and parent or grand parent respectively;

"Member of a family" means wife or husband, father, mother, grandfather, grandmother, step-father, step-mother, son, daughter, grandson, granddaughter, stepson, step-daughter, brother, sister, half-brother, half-sister;

"Ship," "vessel," "seaman," and "port" have the same meanings as in the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894;

"Manager," in relation to a ship, means the ship's husband or other person to whom the management of the ship is intrusted by or on behalf of the owner;

"Police force" means a police force to which the Police Act, 1890, or the Police (Scotland) Act, 1890, applies, the City of London Police Force, the Royal Irish Constabulary, and the Dublin Metropolitan Police Force;

"Outworker" means a person to whom articles or materials are given out to be made up, cleaned, washed, altered, ornamented, finished, or repaired, or adapted for sale, in his own home or on other premises not under the control or management of the person who gave out the materials or articles;

The exercise and performance of the powers and duties of a local or other public authority shall, for the purposes of this act, be treated as the trade or business of the authority;

"County court," "judge of the county court," "registrar of the county court," "plaintiff," and "rules of court," as respects Scotland, mean respectively sheriff court, sheriff, sheriff clerk, pursuer, and act of sederunt.

14. In Scotland, where a workman raises an action against his employer independently of this act in respect of any injury caused by accident arising out of and in the course of the employment, the action, if raised in the sheriff court and concluding for damages under the Employers' Liability Act, 1880, or alternatively at common law or under the Employers' Liability Act, 1880, shall, notwithstanding anything contained in that act, not be removed under that act or otherwise to the court of session, nor shall it be appealed to that court otherwise than by appeal on a question of law; and for the purposes of such appeal the provisions of the second schedule to this act in regard to an appeal from the decision of the sheriff on any question of law determined by him as arbitrator under this act shall apply.

15.—(1) Any contract (other than a contract substituting the provisions of a scheme certified under the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1897, for the provisions of that act) existing at the commencement of this act, whereby a workman relinquishes any right to compensation from the employer for personal injury arising out of and in the course of his employment, shall not, for the purposes of this act, be deemed to continue after the time at which the workman's contract of service would determine if notice of the determination thereof were given at the commencement of this act.

(2) Every scheme under the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1897, in force at the commencement of this act shall, if recertified by the registrar of friendly societies, have effect as if it were a scheme under this act.

(3) The registrar shall recertify any such scheme if it is proved to his satisfaction that the scheme conforms, or has been so modified as to conform, with the provisions of this act as to schemes.

(4) If any such scheme has not been so recertified before the expiration of six months from the commencement of this act, the certificate thereof shall be revoked.

16.—(1) This act shall come into operation on the first day of July, nineteen hundred and seven, but, except so far as it relates to references to medical referees, and proceedings consequential thereon, shall not apply in any case where the accident happened before the commencement of this act.

relating to remedies both against employer and stranger as if the indemnity were damages for loss of life or personal injury:

(g) Subsections (2) and (3) of section one hundred and seventy-four of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894 (which relates to the recovery of wages of seamen lost with their ship), shall apply as respects proceedings for the recovery of compensation by dependents of masters, seamen, and apprentices lost with their ship as they apply with respect to proceedings for the recovery of wages due to seamen and apprentices; and proceedings for the recovery of compensation shall in such a case be maintainable if the claim is made within eighteen months of the date at which the ship is deemed to have been lost with all hands:

(2) This act shall not apply to such members of the crew of a fishing vessel as are remunerated by shares in the profits or the gross earnings of the working of such vessel.

(3) This section shall extend to pilots to whom Part X. of the Merchant Shipping Act, 1894, applies, as if a pilot when employed on any such ship as aforesaid were a seaman and a member of the crew.

8.—(1) Where—

(i) the certifying surgeon appointed under the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, for the district in which a workman is employed certifies that the workman is suffering from a disease mentioned in the third schedule to this act and is thereby disabled from earning full wages at the work at which he was employed; or

(ii) a workman is, in pursuance of any special rules or regulations made under the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, suspended from his usual employment on account of having contracted any such disease; or

(iii) the death of a workman is caused by any such disease; and the disease is due to the nature of any employment in which the workman was employed at any time within the twelve months previous to the date of the disablement or suspension, whether under one or more employers, he or his dependents shall be entitled to compensation under this act as if the disease or such suspension as aforesaid were a personal injury by accident arising out of and in the course of that employment, subject to the following modifications:—

(a) The disablement or suspension shall be treated as the happening of the accident;

(b) If it is proved that the workman has at the time of entering the employment willfully and falsely represented himself in writing as not having previously suffered from the disease, compensation shall not be payable;

(c) The compensation shall be recoverable from the employer who last employed the workman during the said twelve months in the employment to the nature of which the disease was due:

Provided that—

(i) the workman or his dependents if so required shall furnish that employer with such information as to the names and addresses of all other employers who employed him in the employment during the said twelve months as he or they may possess, and, if such information is not furnished, or is not sufficient to enable that employer to take proceedings under the next following proviso, that employer upon proving that the disease was not contracted whilst the workman was in his employment shall not be liable to pay compensation; and

(ii) if that employer alleges that the disease was in fact contracted whilst the workman was in the employment of some other employer, and not whilst in his employment, he may join such other employer as a party to the arbitration, and if the allegation is proved that other employer shall be the employer from whom the compensation is to be recoverable; and

(iii) if the disease is of such a nature as to be contracted by a gradual process, any other employers who during the said twelve months employed the workman in the employment to the nature of which the disease was due shall be liable to make the employer from whom compensation is recoverable such contributions as, in default of agreement, may be determined in the arbitration under this act for settling the amount of the compensation;

(d) The amount of the compensation shall be calculated with reference to the earnings of the workman under the employer from whom the compensation is recoverable;

(e) The employer to whom notice of the death, disablement, or suspension is to be given shall be the employer who last employed the workman during the said twelve months in the employment to the nature of which the disease was due, and the notice may be given notwithstanding that the workman has voluntarily left his employment.

(f) If an employer or a workman is aggrieved by the action of a certifying or other surgeon in giving or refusing to give a certificate of disablement or in suspending or refusing to suspend a workman for the purposes of this section, the matter shall in accordance with regulations made by the secretary of state be referred to a medical referee, whose decision shall be final.

(2) If the workman at or immediately before the date of the disablement or suspension was employed in any process mentioned in the second column of the third schedule of this act, and the disease contracted is the disease in the first column of that schedule set opposite the description of the process, the disease, except where the certifying surgeon certifies that in his opinion the disease was not due to the nature of the employment, shall be deemed to have been due to the nature of that employment, unless the employer proves the contrary.

(3) The secretary of state may make rules regulating the duties and fees of certifying and other surgeons (including dentists) under this section.

(4) For the purposes of this section the date of disablement shall be such date as the certifying surgeon certifies as the date on which the disablement commenced, or, if he is unable to certify such a date, the date on which the certificate is given:

Provided that—

(a) Where the medical referee allows an appeal against a refusal by a certifying surgeon to give a certificate of disablement, the date of disablement shall be such date as the medical referee may determine:

(b) Where a workman dies without having obtained a certificate of disablement, or is at the time of death not in receipt of a weekly payment on account of disablement, it shall be the date of death.

(5) In such cases, and subject to such conditions as the secretary of state may direct, a medical practitioner appointed by the secretary of state for the purpose shall have the powers and duties of a certifying surgeon under this section, and this section shall be construed accordingly.

(6) The secretary of state may make orders for extending the provisions of this section to other diseases and other processes, and to injuries due to the nature of any employment specified in the order not being injuries by accident, either without modification or subject to such modifications as may be contained in the order.

(7) Where, after inquiry held on the application of any employers or workmen engaged in any industry to which this section applies, it appears that a mutual trade insurance company or society for insuring against the risks under this section has been established for the industry, and that a majority of the employers engaged in that industry are insured against such risks in the company or society and that the company or society consents, the secretary of state may, by provisional order, require all employers in that industry to insure in the company or society upon such terms and under such conditions and subject to such exceptions as may be set forth in the order. Where such a company or society has been established, but is confined to employers in any particular locality or of any particular class, the secretary of state may for the purposes of this provision treat the industry, as carried on by employers in that locality or of that class, as a separate industry.

(8) A provisional order made under this section shall be of no force whatever unless and until it is confirmed by Parliament, and if, while the bill confirming any such order is pending in either House of Parliament, a petition is presented against the order, the bill may be referred to a select committee, and the petitioner shall be allowed to appear and oppose as in the case of private bills, and any act confirming any provisional order under this section may be repealed, altered, or amended by a provisional order made and confirmed in like manner.

(9) Any expenses incurred by the secretary of state in respect of any such order, provisional order, or confirming bill shall be defrayed out of moneys provided by Parliament.

(10) Nothing in this section shall affect the rights of a workman to recover compensation in respect of a disease to which this section does not apply, if the disease is a personal injury by accident within the meaning of this act.

9.—(1) This act shall not apply to persons in the naval or military service of the Crown, but otherwise shall apply to workmen employed by or under the Crown to whom this act would apply if the employer were a private person:

Provided that in the case of a person employed in the private service of the head of that department of the royal household in which he was at the time of the accident shall be deemed to be his employer.

(2) The Workmen's Compensation Acts, 1897 and 1900, are hereby repealed, but shall continue to apply to cases where the accident happened before the commencement of this act, except to the extent to which this act applies to those cases.

17. This act may be cited as the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1906.

FIRST SCHEDULE.

SCALE AND CONDITIONS OF COMPENSATION.

(1) The amount of compensation under this act shall be—

(a) where death results from the injury—

(i) if the workman leaves any dependents wholly dependent upon his earnings, a sum equal to his earnings in the employment of the same employer during the three years next preceding the injury, or the sum of one hundred and fifty pounds [\$729.98], whichever of those sums is the larger, but not exceeding in any case three hundred pounds [\$1,459.95], provided that the amount of any weekly payments made under this act, and any lump sum paid in redemption thereof, shall be deducted from such sum, and, if the period of the workman's employment by the said employer has been less than the said three years, then the amount of his earnings during the said three years shall be deemed to be one hundred and fifty-six times his average weekly earnings during the period of his actual employment under the said employer;

(ii) if the workman does not leave any such dependents, but leaves any dependents in part dependent upon his earnings, such sum, not exceeding in any case the amount payable under the foregoing provisions, as may be agreed upon, or, in default of agreement, may be determined, on arbitration under this act, to be reasonable and proportionate to the injury to the said dependents; and

(iii) if he leaves no dependents, the reasonable expenses of his medical attendance and burial, not exceeding ten pounds [\$48.67];

(b) where total or partial incapacity for work results from the injury, a weekly payment during the incapacity not exceeding fifty per cent. of his average weekly earnings during the previous twelve months, if he has been so long employed, but if not then for any less period during which he has been in the employment of the same employer, such weekly payment not to exceed one pound [\$4.87];

Provided that—

(a) if the incapacity lasts less than two weeks no compensation shall be payable in respect of the first week; and

(b) as respects the weekly payments during total incapacity of a workman who is under twenty-one years of age at the date of the injury, and whose average weekly earnings are less than twenty shillings [\$4.87], one hundred per cent shall be substituted for fifty per cent of his average weekly earnings, but the weekly payment shall in no case exceed ten shillings [\$2.43].

(2) For the purposes of the provisions of this schedule relating to "earnings" and "average weekly earnings" of a workman, the following rules shall be observed:—

(a) average weekly earnings shall be computed in such manner as is best calculated to give the rate per week at which the workman was being remunerated. Provided that where by reason of the shortness of the time during which the workman has been in the employment of his employer, or the casual nature of the employment, or the terms of the employment, it is impracticable at the date of the accident to compute the rate of remuneration, regard may be had to the average weekly amount which, during the twelve months previous to the accident, was being earned by a person in the same grade employed at the same work by the same employer, or, if there is no person so employed, by a person in the same grade employed in the same class of employment and in the same district;

(b) where the workman had entered into concurrent contracts of service with two or more employers under which he worked at one time for one such employer and at another time for another such employer, his average weekly earnings shall be computed as if his earnings under all such contracts were earnings in the employment of the employer for whom he was working at the time of the accident;

(c) employment by the same employer shall be taken to mean employment the same employer in the grade in which the workman was employed at the

time of the accident, uninterrupted by absence from work due to illness or any other unavoidable cause;

(d) where the employer has been accustomed to pay to the workman a sum to cover any special expenses entailed on him by the nature of his employment, the sum so paid shall not be reckoned as part of the earnings.

(3) In fixing the amount of the weekly payment, regard shall be had to any payment, allowance, or benefit which the workman may receive from the employer during the period of his incapacity, and in the case of partial incapacity the weekly payment shall in no case exceed the difference between the amount of the average weekly earnings of the workman before the accident and the average weekly amount which he is earning or is able to earn in some suitable employment or business after the accident, but shall bear such relation to the amount of that difference as under the circumstances of the case may appear proper.

(4) Where a workman has given notice of an accident, he shall, if so required by the employer, submit himself for examination by a duly qualified medical practitioner provided and paid by the employer, and, if he refuses to submit himself to such examination, or in any way obstructs the same, his right to compensation, and to take or prosecute any proceeding under this act in relation to compensation, shall be suspended until such examination has taken place.

(5) The payment in the case of death shall, unless otherwise ordered as hereinafter provided, be paid into the county court, and any sum so paid into court shall, subject to rules of court and the provisions of this schedule, be invested, applied, or otherwise dealt with by the court in such manner as the court in its discretion thinks fit for the benefit of the persons entitled thereto under this act, and the receipt of the registrar of the court shall be a sufficient discharge in respect of the amount paid in:

Provided that, if so agreed, the payment in case of death shall, if the workman leaves no dependents, be made to his legal personal representative, or, if he has no such representative, to the person to whom the expenses of medical attendance and burial are due.

(6) Rules of court may provide for the transfer of money paid into court under this act from one court to another, whether or not the court from which it is to be transferred is in the same part of the United Kingdom as the court to which it is to be transferred.

(7) Where a weekly payment is payable under this act to a person under any legal disability, a county court may, on application being made in accordance with rules of court, order that the weekly payment be paid during the disability into court, and the provisions of this schedule with respect to sums required by this schedule to be paid into court shall apply to sums paid into court in pursuance of any such order.

(8) Any question as to who is a dependent shall, in default of agreement, be settled by arbitration under this act, or, if not so settled before payment into court under this schedule, shall be settled by the county court, and the amount payable to each dependent shall be settled by arbitration under this act, or, if not so settled before payment into court under this schedule, by the county court. Where there are both total and partial dependents nothing in this schedule shall be construed as preventing the compensation being allotted partly to the total and partly to the partial dependents.

(9) Where, on application being made in accordance with rules of court, it appears to a county court that, on account of neglect of children on the part of a widow, or on account of the variation of the circumstances of the various dependents, or for any other sufficient cause, an order of the court or an award as to the apportionment amongst the several dependents of any sum paid as compensation, or as to the manner in which any sum payable to any such dependent is to be invested, applied, or otherwise dealt with, ought to be varied, the court may make such order for the variation of the former order or the award, as in the circumstances of the case the court may think just.

(10) Any sum which under this schedule is ordered to be invested may be invested in whole or in part in the Post Office Savings Bank by the registrar of the county court in his name as registrar.

(11) Any sum to be so invested may be invested in the purchase of an annuity from the national debt commissioners through the Post Office Savings Bank, or be accepted by the postmaster-general as a deposit in the name of the registrar as such, and the provisions of any statute or regulations respecting

(5) A judge of county courts may, if he thinks fit, summon a medical referee to sit with him as an assessor.

(6) Rules of court may make provision for the appearance in any arbitration under this act of any party by some other person.

(7) The costs of and incidental to the arbitration and proceedings connected therewith shall be in the discretion of the committee, arbitrator, or judge of the county court, subject as respects such judge and an arbitrator appointed by him to rules of court. The costs, whether before a committee or an arbitrator or in the county court, shall not exceed the limit prescribed by rules of court, and shall be taxed in manner prescribed by those rules and such taxation may be reviewed by the judge of the county court.

(8) In the case of the death, or refusal or inability to act, of an arbitrator, the judge of the county court may, on the application of any party, appoint a new arbitrator.

(9) Where the amount of compensation under this act has been ascertained, or any weekly payment varied, or any other matter decided under this act, either by a committee or by an arbitrator or by agreement, a memorandum thereof shall be sent, in manner prescribed by rules of court, by the committee or arbitrator, or by any party interested, to the registrar of the county court who shall, subject to such rules, on being satisfied as to its genuineness, record such memorandum in a special register without fee, and thereupon the memorandum shall for all purposes be enforceable as a county court judgment.

Provided that—

(a) no such memorandum shall be recorded before seven days after the despatch by the registrar of notice to the parties interested; and

(b) where a workman seeks to record a memorandum of agreement between his employer and himself for the payment of compensation under this act and the employer, in accordance with rules of court, proves that the workman has in fact returned to work and is earning the same wages as he did before the accident, and objects to the recording of such memorandum, the memorandum shall only be recorded, if at all, on such terms as the judge of the county court, under the circumstances, may think just; and

(c) the judge of the county court may at any time rectify the register; and

(d) where it appears to the registrar of the county court, on any information which he considers sufficient, that an agreement as to the redemption of a weekly payment by a lump sum, or an agreement as to the amount of compensation payable to a person under any legal disability, or to dependents, ought not to be registered by reason of the inadequacy of the sum or amount, or by reason of the agreement having been obtained by fraud or undue influence, or other improper means, he may refuse to record the memorandum of the agreement sent to him for registration, and refer the matter to the judge who shall, in accordance with rules of court, make such order (including an order as to any sum already paid under the agreement) as under the circumstances he may think just; and

(e) The judge may, within six months after a memorandum of an agreement as to the redemption of a weekly payment by a lump sum, or of an agreement as to the amount of compensation payable to a person under any legal disability, or to dependents, has been recorded in the register, order that the record be removed from the register on proof to his satisfaction that the agreement was obtained by fraud or undue influence or other improper means, and may make such order (including an order as to any sum already paid under the agreement) as under the circumstances he may think just.

(10) An agreement as to the redemption of a weekly payment by a lump sum if not registered in accordance with this act shall not, nor shall the payment of the sum payable under the agreement, exempt the person by whom the weekly payment is payable from liability to continue to make that weekly payment, and an agreement as to the amount of compensation to be paid to a person under a legal disability or to dependents, if not so registered, shall not, nor shall the payment of the sum payable under the agreement, exempt the person by whom the compensation is payable from liability to pay compensation, unless, in either case, he proves that the failure to register was not due to any neglect or default on his part.

(11) Where any matter under this act is to be done in a county court, or by, to, or before the judge or registrar of a county court, then, unless the contrary intention appear, the same shall, subject to rules of court, be done in, or by, to, or before the judge or registrar of, the county court of the district in which all

the parties concerned reside, or if they reside in different districts the district prescribed by rules of court, without prejudice to any transfer in manner provided by rules of court.

(12) The duty of a judge of county courts under this act, or in England of an arbitrator appointed by him, shall, subject to rules of court, be part of the duties of the county court, and the officers of the court shall act accordingly, and rules of court may be made both for any purpose for which this act authorizes rules of court to be made, and also generally for carrying into effect this act so far as it affects the county court, or an arbitrator appointed by the judge of the county court, and proceedings in the county court or before any such arbitrator, and such rules may, in England, be made by the five judges of county courts appointed for the making of rules under section one hundred and sixty-four of the County Courts Act, 1888, and when allowed by the lord chancellor, as provided by that section, shall have full effect without any further consent.

(13) No court fee, except such as may be prescribed under paragraph (15) of the first schedule to this act, shall be payable by any party in respect of any proceedings by or against a workman under this act in the court prior to the award.

(14) Any sum awarded as compensation shall, unless paid into court under this act, be paid on the receipt of the person to whom it is payable under any agreement or award, and the solicitor or agent of a person claiming compensation under this act shall not be entitled to recover from him any costs in respect of any proceedings in an arbitration under this act, or to claim a lien in respect of such costs on, or deduct such costs from, the sum awarded or agreed as compensation, except such sum as may be awarded by the committee, the arbitrator, or the judge of the county court, on an application made either by the person claiming compensation, or by his solicitor or agent, to determine the amount of costs to be paid to the solicitor or agent, such sum to be awarded subject to taxation and to the scale of costs prescribed by rules of court.

(15) Any committee, arbitrator, or judge may, subject to regulations made by the secretary of state and the treasury, submit to a medical referee for report any matter which seems material to any question arising in the arbitration.

(16) The secretary of state may, by order, either unconditionally or subject to such conditions or modifications as he may think fit, confer on any committee representative of an employer and his workmen, as respects any matter in which the committee act as arbitrators, or which is settled by agreement submitted to and approved by the committee, all or any of the powers conferred by this act exclusively on county courts or judges of county courts, and may by the order provide how and to whom the compensation money is to be paid in cases where, but for the order, the money would be required to be paid into court, and the order may exclude from the operation of provisos (d) and (e) of paragraph (9) of this schedule agreements submitted to and approved by the committee, and may contain such incidental, consequential, or supplemental provisions as may appear to the secretary of state to be necessary or proper for the purposes of the order.

(17) In the application of this schedule to Scotland—

(a) "County court judgment" as used in paragraph (9) of this schedule means a recorded decree arbitral:

(b) Any application to the sheriff as arbitrator shall be heard, tried, and determined summarily in the manner provided by section fifty-two of the Sheriff Courts (Scotland) Act, 1876, save only that parties may be represented by any person authorized in writing to appear for them and subject to the declaration that it shall be competent to either party within the time and in accordance with the conditions prescribed by act of sederunt to require the sheriff to state a case on any question of law determined by him, and his decision thereon in such case may be submitted to either division of the court of session, who may hear and determine the same and remit to the sheriff with instruction as to the judgment to be pronounced, and an appeal shall lie from either of such divisions to the House of Lords.

(c) Paragraphs (3), (4), and (8) shall not apply.

(18) In the application of this schedule to Ireland the expression "judge of the county court" shall include the recorder of any city or town, and an appeal shall lie from the court of appeal to the House of Lords.

THIRD SCHEDULE.

Description of disease.	Description of process.
Anthrax.....	Handling of wool, hair, bristles, hides, and skins.
Lead poisoning or its sequelæ.....	Any process involving the use of lead or its preparations or compounds.
Mercury poisoning or its sequelæ.....	Any process involving the use of mercury or its preparations or compounds.
Phosphorus poisoning or its sequelæ..	Any process involving the use of phosphorus or its preparations or compounds.
Arsenic poisoning or its sequelæ.....	Any process involving the use of arsenic or its preparations or compounds.
Ankylostomiasis.....	Mining.

Where regulations or special rules made under any act of Parliament for the protection of persons employed in any industry against the risk of contracting lead poisoning require some or all of the persons employed in certain processes specified in the regulations or special rules to be periodically examined by a certifying or other surgeon, then, in the application of this schedule to that industry, the expression "process" shall, unless the secretary of state otherwise directs, include only the processes so specified.

CANADIAN INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES INVESTIGATION ACT OF 1907.

Following is given in full the text of the Canadian Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, enacted in March, 1907, to provide machinery for the settlement of labor disputes and to prevent strikes and lockouts in mines and public-utility industries. Although the act has been in effect but a short time, it has already been employed successfully in the adjustment of a considerable number of disputes affecting large numbers of workmen employed in mining and transportation.

AN ACT to aid in the prevention and settlement of strikes and lockouts in mines and industries connected with public utilities. (Assented to 22d March, 1907.)

His Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate and House of Commons of Canada, enacts as follows:

1. This act may be cited as the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907.

PRELIMINARY.

Interpretation.

2. In this act, unless the context otherwise requires—

(a) "Minister" means the minister of labor;

(b) "Department" means the department of labor;

(c) "Employer" means any person, company or corporation employing ten or more persons and owning or operating any mining property, agency of transportation or communication, or public-service utility, including, except as hereinafter provided, railways, whether operated by steam, electricity or other motive power, steamships, telegraph and telephone lines, gas, electric-light, water and power works;

(d) "Employee" means any person employed by an employer to do any skilled or unskilled manual or clerical work for hire or reward in any industry to which this act applies;

(e) "Dispute" or "industrial dispute" means any dispute or difference between an employer and one or more of his employees, as to matters or things affecting or relating to work done or to be done by him or them, or as to the privileges, rights and duties of employers or employees (not involving any such violation thereof as constitutes an indictable offense); and, without limiting the general nature of the above definition, includes all matters relating to—

(1) The wages allowance or other remuneration of employees, or the price paid or to be paid in respect of employment;

(2) The hours of employment, sex, age, qualification or status of employees, and the mode, terms and conditions of employment;

(3) The employment of children or any person or persons or class of persons, or the dismissal of or refusal to employ any particular person or persons or class of persons;

(4) Claims on the part of an employer or any employee as to whether and, if so, under what circumstances, preference of employment should or should not be given to one class over another of persons being or not being members of labor or other organizations, British subjects or aliens;

(5) Materials supplied and alleged to be bad, unfit or unsuitable, or damage alleged to have been done to work;

(6) Any established custom or usage, either generally or in the particular district affected;

(7) The interpretation of an agreement or a clause thereof.

(f) "Lockout" (without limiting the nature of its meaning) means a closing of a place of employment, or a suspension of work, or a refusal by an employer to continue to employ any number of his employees in consequence of a dispute, done with a view to compelling his employees, or to aid another employer in compelling his employees, to accept terms of employment.

(g) "Strike" or "to go on strike" (without limiting the nature of its meaning) means the cessation of work by a body of employees acting in combination, or a concerted refusal or a refusal under a common understanding of any number of employees to continue to work for an employer, in consequence of a dispute, done as a means of compelling their employer, or to aid other employees in compelling their employer, to accept terms of employment;

(h) "Board" means a board of conciliation and investigation established under the provisions of this act;

(i) "Application" means an application for the appointment of a board under the provisions of this act;

(j) "Registrar" means the registrar of boards of conciliation and investigation under this act;

(k) "Prescribed" means prescribed by this act, or by any rules or regulations made thereunder;

(l) "Trade union" or "union" means any organization of employees formed for the purpose of regulating relations between employers and employees.

Administration.

3. The minister of labor shall have the general administration of this act.

4. The governor in council shall appoint a registrar of boards of conciliation and investigation, who shall have the powers and perform the duties prescribed.

2. The office of registrar may be held either separately or in conjunction with any other office in the public service, and in the latter case the registrar may, if the governor in council thinks fit, be appointed, not by name, but by reference to such other office, whereupon the person who for the time being holds such office, or performs its duties, shall by virtue thereof be the registrar.

BOARDS OF CONCILIATION AND INVESTIGATION.

Constitution of boards.

5. Wherever any dispute exists between an employer and any of his employees, and the parties thereto are unable to adjust it, either of the parties to the dispute may make application to the minister for the appointment of a board of conciliation and investigation, to which board the dispute may be referred under the provisions of this act: *Provided, however,* That, in the case of a dispute between a railway company and its employees, such dispute may be referred, for the purpose of conciliation and investigation, under the provisions concerning railway disputes in the Conciliation and Labor Act.

6. Whenever, under this act, an application is made in due form for the appointment of a board of conciliation and investigation, and such application does not relate to a dispute which is the subject of a reference under the provisions concerning railway disputes in the Conciliation and Labor Act, the minister, whose decision for such purpose shall be final, shall, within fifteen days from the date at which the application is received, establish such board under his hand and seal of office, if satisfied that the provisions of this act apply.

7. Every board shall consist of three members, who shall be appointed by the minister.

2. Of the three members of the board one shall be appointed on the recommendation of the employer and one on the recommendation of the employees (the parties to the dispute), and the third on the recommendation of the members so chosen.

8. For the purposes of appointment of the members of the board, the following provisions shall apply:

1. Each party to the dispute may, at the time of making application or within five days after being requested so to do by the minister, recommend the name of one person who is willing and ready to act as a member of the board, and the minister shall appoint such person a member of the board.

2. If either of the parties fails or neglects to duly make any recommendation within the said period, or such extension thereof as the minister, on cause shown, grants, the minister shall, as soon thereafter as possible, appoint a fit person to be a member of the board; and such member shall be deemed to be appointed on the recommendation of the said party.

3. The members chosen on the recommendation of the parties may, within five days after their appointment, recommend the name of one person who is willing and ready to act as a third member of the board, and the minister shall appoint such person a member of the board.

4. If the members chosen on the recommendation of the parties fail or neglect to duly make any recommendation within the said period, or such extension thereof as the minister, on cause shown, grants, the minister shall, as soon thereafter as possible, appoint a fit person to be a third member of the board, and such member shall be deemed to be appointed on the recommendation of the two other members of the board.

5. The third member shall be the chairman of the board.

9. As soon as possible after the full board has been appointed by the minister, the registrar shall notify the parties of the names of the members of the board and the chairman thereof, and such notification shall be final and conclusive for all purposes.

10. Every member of a board shall hold office from the time of his appointment until the report of the board is signed and transmitted to the minister.

11. No person shall act as a member of the board who has any direct pecuniary interest in the issue of a dispute referred to such board.

12. Every vacancy in the membership of a board shall be supplied in the same manner as in the case of the original appointment of every person appointed.

13. Before entering upon the exercise of the functions of their office the members of a board, including the chairman, shall make oath or affirmation before a justice of the peace that they will faithfully and impartially perform the duties of their office, and also that, except in the discharge of their duties, they will not disclose to any person any of the evidence or other matter brought before the board.

14. The department may provide the board with a secretary, stenographer, or such other clerical assistance as to the minister appears necessary for the efficient carrying out of the provisions of this act.

Procedure for reference of disputes to boards.

15. For the purpose of determining the manner in which, and the persons by whom, an application for the appointment of a board is to be made, the following provisions shall apply:

1. The application shall be made in writing in the prescribed form, and shall be in substance a request to the minister to appoint a board to which the existing dispute may be referred under the provisions of this act.

2. The application shall be accompanied by—

(a) A statement setting forth—

(1) The parties to the dispute;

(2) The nature and cause of the dispute, including any claims or demands made by either party upon the other, to which exception is taken;

(3) An approximate estimate of the number of persons affected or likely to be affected by the dispute;

(4) The efforts made by the parties themselves to adjust the dispute;

and—

(b) A statutory declaration setting forth that, failing an adjustment of the dispute or a reference thereof by the minister to a board of conciliation and investigation under the act, to the best of the knowledge and belief of the declarant, a lockout or strike, as the case may be, will be declared, and that the necessary authority to declare such lockout or strike has been obtained.

3. The application may mention the name of a person who is willing and ready and desires to act as a member of the board representing the party or parties making the application.

in force with respect to witnesses in civil suits in the superior courts in the province where the inquiry is being conducted.

35. Where a reference has been made to the board of a dispute between a railway company and its employees, any witness summoned by the board in connection with the dispute shall be entitled to free transportation over any railway en route when proceeding to the place of meeting of the board and thereafter returning to his home, and the board shall furnish to such witness a proper certificate evidencing his right to such free transportation.

36. If any person who has been duly served with such summons and to whom at the same time payment or tender has been made of his reasonable traveling expenses according to the aforesaid scale, fails to duly attend or to duly produce any book, paper or other document or thing as required by his summons, he shall be guilty of an offense and liable to a penalty not exceeding one hundred dollars, unless he shows that there was a good and sufficient cause for such failure.

37. If, in any proceedings before the board, any person willfully insults any member of the board or willfully interrupts the proceedings, or without good cause refuses to give evidence, or is guilty in any other manner of any willful contempt in the face of the board, any officer of the board or any constable may take the person offending into custody and remove him from the precincts of the board, to be detained in custody until the rising of the board, and the person so offending shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding one hundred dollars.

38. The board, or any member thereof, and, on being authorized in writing by the board, any other person, may, without any warrant than this act, at any time, enter any building, mine, mine workings, ship, vessel, factory, workshop, place or premises of any kind, wherein, or in respect of which, any industry is carried on or any work is being or has been done or commenced, or any matter or thing is taking place or has taken place, which has been made the subject of a reference to the board, and inspect and view any work, material, machinery, appliance or article therein, and interrogate any persons in or upon any such building, mine, mine workings, ship, vessel, factory, workshop, place or premises as aforesaid, in respect of or in relation to any matter or thing hereinbefore mentioned, and any person who hinders or obstructs the board or any such person authorized as aforesaid, in the exercise of any power conferred by this section, shall be guilty of an offense and be liable to a penalty not exceeding one hundred dollars.

39. Any party to a reference may be represented before the board by three or less than three persons designated for the purpose, or by counsel or solicitor where allowed as hereinafter provided.

40. Every party appearing by a representative shall be bound by the acts of such representative.

41. No counsel or solicitor shall be entitled to appear or be heard before the board, except with the consent of the parties to the dispute, and notwithstanding such consent the board may decline to allow counsel or solicitors to appear.

42. Persons other than British subjects shall not be allowed to act as members of a board.

43. If, without good cause shown, any party to proceedings before the board fails to attend or to be represented, the board may proceed as if he had duly attended or had been represented.

44. The sittings of the board shall be held at such time and place as are from time to time fixed by the chairman, after consultation with the other members of the board, and the parties shall be notified by the chairman as to the time and place at which sittings are to be held: *Provided*, That so far as practicable, the board shall sit in the locality within which the subject-matter of the proceeding before it arose.

45. The proceedings of the board shall be conducted in public: *Provided*, That at any such proceedings before it, the board, on its own motion, or on the application of any of the parties, may direct that the proceedings shall be conducted in private and that all persons other than the parties, their representatives, the officers of the board and the witnesses under examination shall withdraw.

46. The decision of a majority of the members present at a sitting of the board shall be the decision of the board, and the findings and recommendations of the majority of its members shall be those of the board.

47. *The presence of the chairman and at least one other member of the board shall be necessary to constitute a sitting of the board.*

48. In case of the absence of any one member from a meeting of the board the other two members shall not proceed, unless it is shown that the third member has been notified of the meeting in ample time to admit of his attendance.

2. If any member of a board dies, or becomes incapacitated, or refuses or neglects to act, his successor shall be appointed in the manner provided with respect to the original member of the board.

49. The board may at any time dismiss any matter referred to it which it thinks frivolous or trivial.

50. The board may, with the consent of the minister, employ competent experts or assessors to examine the books or official reports of either party, and to advise it upon any technical or other matter material to the investigation, but shall not disclose such reports or the results of such inspection or examination under this section without the consent of both the parties to the dispute.

Remuneration and expenses of board.

51. The members of a board while engaged in the adjustment of a dispute shall be remunerated for their services as follows:

(a) To members other than the chairman—

(i) An allowance of five dollars a day for a time not exceeding three days during which the members may be actually engaged in selecting a third member of the board;

(ii) An allowance of fifteen dollars for each whole day's sittings of the board;

(iii) An allowance of seven dollars for each half-day's sittings of the board;

(b) The chairman shall be allowed twenty dollars a day for each whole day's sittings of the board, and ten dollars a day for each half-day's sittings;

(c) No allowance shall be made to any member of the board on account of any sitting of the board which does not extend over a half day, unless it is shown to the satisfaction of the minister that such meeting of the board was necessary to the performance of its duties as speedy as possible, and that the causes which prevented a half-day's sitting of the board were beyond its control.

52. No member of the board shall accept in addition to his salary as a member of the board any perquisite or gratuity of any kind, from any corporation, association, partnership or individual in any way interested in any matter or thing before or about to be brought before the board in accordance with the provisions of this act. The accepting of such perquisite or gratuity by any member of the board shall be an offense and shall render such member liable to a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars.

53. Each member of the board will be entitled to his actual necessary traveling expenses for each day that he is engaged in traveling from or to his place of residence for the purpose of attending or after having attended a meeting of the board.

54. All expenses of the board, including expenses for transportation incurred by the members thereof or by persons under its order in making investigations under this act, salaries of employees and agents, and fees and mileage to witnesses shall be allowed and paid upon the presentation of itemized vouchers therefor, approved by the chairman of the board, which vouchers shall be forwarded by the chairman to the minister. The chairman shall also forward to the minister a certified and detailed statement of the sittings of the board, and of the members present at such sittings.

DUTIES OF THE REGISTRAR.

55. It shall be the duty of the registrar:

(a) To receive and register, and, subject to the provisions of this act, to deal with all applications by employers or employees for a reference of any dispute to a board, and to at once bring to the minister's attention every such application;

(b) To conduct such correspondence with the parties and members of boards as may be necessary to constitute any board as speedily as possible in accordance with the provisions of this act;

(c) To receive and file all reports and recommendations of boards, and conduct such correspondence and do such things as may assist in rendering effect-
the recommendations of the boards, in accordance with the provisions of

(d) To keep a register in which shall be entered the particulars of all applications, references, reports and recommendations relating to the appointment of a board, and its proceedings; and to safely keep all applications, statements, reports, recommendations and other documents relating to proceedings before the board, and, when so required, transmit all or any of such to the minister;

(e) To supply to any parties, on request, information as to this act, or any regulations or proceedings thereunder, and also to furnish parties to a dispute and members of the board with necessary blank forms, forms of summons or other papers or documents required in connection with the effective carrying out of the provisions of this act;

(f) Generally, to do all such things and take all such proceedings as may be required in the performance of his duties prescribed under this act or any regulations thereunder.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS PRIOR TO AND PENDING A REFERENCE TO A BOARD ILLEGAL.

56. It shall be unlawful for any employer to declare or cause a lockout, or for any employee to go on strike, on account of any dispute prior to or during a reference of such dispute to a board of conciliation and investigation under the provisions of this act, or prior to or during a reference under the provisions concerning railway disputes in the Conciliation and Labor Act: *Provided*, That nothing in this act shall prohibit the suspension or discontinuance of any industry or of the working of any persons therein for any cause not constituting a lockout or strike: *Provided also*, That, except where the parties have entered into an agreement under section 62 of this act, nothing in this act shall be held to restrain any employer from declaring a lockout, or any employee from going on strike in respect of any dispute which has been duly referred to a board and which has been dealt with under section 24 or 25 of this act, or in respect of any dispute which has been the subject of a reference under the provisions concerning railway disputes in the Conciliation and Labor Act.

57. Employers and employees shall give at least thirty days' notice of an intended change affecting conditions of employment with respect to wages or hours; and in every case where a dispute has been referred to a board, until the dispute has been finally dealt with by the board, neither of the parties nor the employees affected shall alter the conditions of employment with respect to wages or hours, or on account of the dispute do or be concerned in doing, directly or indirectly, anything in the nature of a lockout or strike, or a suspension or discontinuance of employment or work, but the relationship of employer and employee shall continue uninterrupted by the dispute, or anything arising out of the dispute; but if, in the opinion of the board, either party uses this or any other provision of this act for the purposes of unjustly maintaining a given condition of affairs through delay, and the board so reports to the minister, such party shall be guilty of an offense, and liable to the same penalties as are imposed for a violation of the next preceding section.

58. Any employer declaring or causing a lockout contrary to the provisions of this act shall be liable to a fine of not less than one hundred dollars, nor more than one thousand dollars for each day or part of a day that such lockout exists.

59. Any employee who goes on strike contrary to the provisions of this act shall be liable to a fine of not less than ten dollars nor more than fifty dollars, for each day or part of a day that such employee is on strike.

60. Any person who incites, encourages or aids in any manner any employer to declare or continue a lockout, or any employee to go or continue on strike contrary to the provisions of this act, shall be guilty of an offense and liable to a fine of not less than fifty dollars nor more than one thousand dollars.

61. The procedure for enforcing penalties imposed or authorized to be imposed by this act shall be that prescribed by Part XV. of The Criminal Code, relating to summary convictions.

SPECIAL PROVISIONS.

62. Either party to a dispute which may be referred under this act to a board may agree in writing, at any time before or after the board has made its report and recommendation, to be bound by the recommendation of the board in the same manner as parties are bound upon an award made pursuant to a reference to arbitration on the order of a court of record; every

agreement so to be bound^d made by one party shall be forwarded to the registrar who shall communicate it to the other party, and if the other party agrees in like manner to be bound by the recommendation of the board, then the recommendation shall be made a rule of the said court on the application of either party and shall be enforceable in like manner.

63. In the event of a dispute arising in any industry or trade other than such as may be included under the provisions of this act, and such dispute threatens to result in a lockout or strike, or has actually resulted in a lockout or strike, either of the parties may agree in writ- [writing] to allow such dispute to be referred to a board of conciliation and investigation, to be constituted under the provisions of this act.

2. Every agreement to allow such reference shall be forwarded to the registrar, who shall communicate it to the other party, and if such other party agrees in like manner to allow the dispute to be referred to a board, the dispute may be so referred as if the industry or trade and the parties were included within the provisions of this act.

3. From the time that the parties have been notified in writing by the registrar that in consequence of their mutual agreement to refer the dispute to a board under the provisions of this act, the minister has decided to refer such dispute, the lockout or strike, if in existence, shall forthwith cease, and the provisions of this act shall bind the parties.

MISCELLANEOUS.

64. No court of the Dominion of Canada, or of any Province or territory thereof, shall have power or jurisdiction to recognize or enforce, or to receive in evidence any report of a board, or any testimony or proceedings before a board, as against any person or for any purpose, except in the case of the prosecution of such person for perjury.

65. No proceeding under this act shall be deemed invalid by reason of any defect of form or any technical irregularity.

66. The minister shall determine the allowance or amounts to be paid to all persons other than the members of a board, employed by the Government or any board, including the registrar, secretaries, clerks, experts, stenographers or other persons performing any services under the provisions of this act.

67. In case of prosecutions under this act, whether a conviction is or is not obtained, it shall be the duty of the clerk of the court before which any such prosecution takes place to briefly report the particulars of such prosecution to the registrar within thirty days after it has been determined, and such clerk shall be entitled to a prescribed fee in payment of his services.

68. The governor in council may make regulations as to the time within which anything hereby authorized shall be done, and also as to any other matter or thing which appears to him necessary or advisable to the effectual working of the several provisions of this act. All such regulations shall go into force on the day of the publication thereof in The Canada Gazette, and they shall be laid before Parliament within fifteen days after such publication, or, if Parliament is not then in session, within fifteen days after the opening of the next session thereof.

69. All charges and expenses incurred by the Government in connection with the administration of this act shall be defrayed out of such appropriations as are made by Parliament for that purpose.

70. An annual report with respect to the matters transacted by him under this act shall be made by the minister to the governor-general, and shall be laid before Parliament within the first fifteen days of each session thereof.

BRITISH TRADE DISPUTES ACT OF 1906.

The text of the British Trade Disputes Act of 1906 is given in full in the following pages in response to numerous inquiries in regard to the subject. The decision in the Taff Vale case, which was the immediate cause of the enactment of this law, and the legal position of labor unions as the result of the decision, were discussed in Bulletin No. 70 of this Bureau and more at length in Bulletin No. 50, and need not be reproduced here.

AN ACT to provide for the regulation of trades unions and trade disputes [21st December 1906].

*Be it enacted by * * * Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:*

1. The following paragraph shall be added as a new paragraph after the first paragraph of section three of the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, 1875 ^(a):

"An act done in pursuance of an agreement or combination by two or more persons shall, if done in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute, not be actionable unless the act, if done without any such agreement or combination, would be actionable."

2.—(1) It shall be lawful for one or more persons, acting on their own behalf or on behalf of a trade union or of an individual employer or firm in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute, to attend at or near a house or place where a person resides or works or carries on business or happens to be, if they so attend merely for the purpose of peacefully obtaining or communicating information, or of peacefully persuading any person to work or abstain from working.

(2) Section seven of the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, 1875 ^(b), is hereby repealed from "attending at or near" to the end of the section.

3. An act done by a person in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute shall not be actionable on the ground only that it induces some other person to break a contract of employment or that it is an interference with the trade, business, or employment of some other person, or with the right of some other person to dispose of his capital or his labor as he wills.

4.—(1) An action against a trade union, whether of workmen or masters, or against any members or officials thereof on behalf of themselves and all other members of the trade union in respect of any tortious act alleged to have been committed by or on behalf of the trade union, shall not be entertained by any court.

^a The first paragraph of section 3 of the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, 1875, here referred to, reads as follows:

An agreement or combination by two or more persons to do or procure to be done any act in contemplation or furtherance of a trade dispute between employers and workmen shall not be indictable as a conspiracy if such act committed by one person would not be punishable as a crime.

^b The part of section 7 of the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, 1875, which is repealed by the above paragraph reads as follows:

Attending at or near the house or place where a person resides, or works, or carries on business, or happens to be, or the approach to such house or place, in order merely to obtain or communicate information, shall not be deemed a watching or besetting within the meaning of this section. ("Watching" and "besetting" are prohibited.)

(2) Nothing in this section shall affect the liability of the trustees of a trade union to be sued in the events provided for by the Trades Union Act, 1871, section nine (a), except in respect of any tortious act committed by or on behalf of the union in contemplation or in furtherance of a trade dispute.

5.—(1) This act may be cited as the Trade Disputes Act, 1906, and the Trade Union Acts, 1871 and 1876, and this act may be cited together as the Trade Union Acts, 1871 to 1906.

(2) In this act the expression "trade union" has the same meaning as in the Trade Union Acts, 1871 and 1876 (b), and shall include any combination as therein defined, notwithstanding that such combination may be the branch of a trade union.

(3) In this act and in the Conspiracy and Protection of Property Act, 1875, the expression "trade dispute" means any dispute between employers and workmen, or between workmen and workmen, which is connected with the employment or nonemployment or the terms of the employment, or with the conditions of labor, of any person, and the expression "workmen" means all persons employed in trade or industry, whether or not in the employment of the employer with whom a trade dispute arises; and, in section three of the last-mentioned act, the words "between employers and workmen" shall be repealed.

* Section 9 of the Trade Union Act, 1871, here referred to, reads as follows:

The trustees of any trade union registered under this act, or any other officer of such trade union who may be authorized so to do by the rules thereof, are hereby empowered to bring or defend, or cause to be brought or defended, any action, suit, prosecution or complaint in any court of law or equity touching or concerning the property, right, or claim to property of the trade union; and shall and may, in all cases concerning the real or personal property of such trade union, sue and be sued, plead and be impleaded, in any court of law or equity, in their proper names, without other description than the title of their office; and no such action, suit, prosecution, or complaint shall be discontinued or shall abate by the death or removal from office of such persons or any of them, but the same shall and may be proceeded in by their successor or successors as if such death, resignation, or removal had not taken place; and such successors shall pay or receive the like costs as if the action, suit, prosecution, or complaint had been commenced in their names for the benefit of or to be reimbursed from the funds of such trade union, and the summons to be issued to such trustee or other officer may be served by leaving the same at the registered office of the trade union.

^b The expression "trade union" is defined by the Trade Union Acts, 1871 and 1876, as follows:

The term "trade union" means any combination, whether temporary or permanent, for regulating the relations between workmen and masters, or between workmen and workmen, or between masters and masters, or for imposing restrictive conditions on the conduct of any trade or business, whether such combination would or would not, if the principal act had not been passed, have been deemed to have been an unlawful combination by reason of some one or more of its purposes being in restraint of trade:

Provided, That this act shall not affect—

1. Any agreement between partners as to their own business;
2. Any agreement between an employer and those employed by him as to such employment;
3. Any agreement in consideration of the sale of the good will of a business or of introduction in any profession, trade, or handicraft.

average of \$1,916.67, none of the homes being unincumbered, while 80 reported an equity of \$104,143 in property valued at \$191,690.

RAILROAD EMPLOYEES.—This is an investigation of the conditions surrounding the employment of railroad men in the transportation branch of the service and a record of the accidents to railroad employees within the State during the year 1905, and of accidents to employees, passengers, and others during the period 1878 to 1905. Returns from the railroad employees show that the average run per month was 3,430 miles for 22 conductors on 5 different systems, 2,951 miles for 42 engineers on 9 different systems, 3,038 miles for 23 firemen on 6 different systems, and 2,772 miles for 22 trainmen on 6 different systems. For conductors the rate of pay was \$3.45 per 100 miles, the reported average yearly earnings being \$1,304.65; for engineers the rate of pay ranged from \$3.80 to \$4.80 per 100 miles, the reported average yearly earnings being \$1,410; for firemen the rate of pay ranged from \$2.30 to \$3 per 100 miles, the reported average yearly earnings being \$882.47, and for trainmen the rate of pay was \$2.29 per 100 miles, the reported average yearly earnings being \$757.

EMPLOYERS' STATISTICAL REPORT.—These returns, presented in two tables, cover the year 1905, and were furnished by employers in 882 industrial establishments, in 66 counties of the State, in which 35,551 persons were employed, 29,488 being wage-workers and 6,063 salaried employees.

The first table, arranged by counties, gives in detail character of industry, number of establishments reporting, number of employees (men, women, and children), hours worked per day, days in operation during the year, increases and decreases in wages, and amount paid in wages during the year to each class of wage-workers (men, women, and children). In addition there is given the amount paid in salaries during the year to men and women, together with the number employed of each sex.

The second table summarizes, by counties, the data presented in the first table. It shows that the 29,488 persons employed as wage-workers in the 882 establishments earned during 1905 the sum of \$14,576,187. Of the total, 24,060 men earned \$13,245,837; 4,645 women earned \$1,202,047, and 783 children under 16 years of age earned \$128,303. The average annual earnings of the men were \$550.53; of the women, \$258.78, and of the children under 16 years of age, \$163.86. To the 6,063 salaried employees the sum of \$4,655,432 was paid, \$4,045,538 to 4,638 men and \$609,894 to 1,425 women. The average annual salary received by the men was \$872.26 and by the women \$427.99. The average number of persons employed in each of the 882 establishments was 40, the average hours worked per day 9.95, and the average number of days per year 298. During the year 4,677 persons received an increase of pay averaging 8.64 per cent.

THE CANNING INDUSTRY.—The information relating to this industry is presented, by counties, in two tables. In the first table is shown for 1905 the number of plants reporting, time in operation, number of men, women, and children employed, hours worked per day, and amount paid in wages during the year to each class of wage-workers; also the number of men and women employed on salary, together with the total amount paid each class during the year. The second table is a list of graded hourly rates showing that paid in each of the different occupations of the industry, hours worked per day and per week, and changes in the rates paid during 1905.

MAINE.

Twentieth Annual Report of the Bureau of Industrial and Labor Statistics for the State of Maine. 1906. Samuel W. Matthews, Commissioner. 221 pp.

In this report the subjects following are presented: Factories, mills, and shops built during 1906, 5 pages; labor unions, 71 pages; Stockton Harbor, Maine's new seaport, 17 pages; manufacturing industries, 18 pages; the Haskell silk mill, 4 pages; the paper-box industry, 3 pages; the pulp and paper industry, 69 pages; railroads, 5 pages; report of the inspector of factories, workshops, mines, and quarries, 13 pages.

FACTORIES, MILLS, AND SHOPS BUILT.—Returns show that in 1906 in 105 towns 132 buildings were erected or enlarged, remodeled, etc., at a total cost of \$2,937,500. These improvements provided for 3,724 additional employees.

A summary of improvements of this character is presented for the ten years 1897 to 1906:

FACTORIES, MILLS, AND SHOPS BUILT OR ENLARGED, ETC., DURING THE YEARS 1897 TO 1906.

Year.	Number of towns.	Number of buildings.	Aggregate cost.	New employees.
1897.....	74	96	\$827,600	2,339
1898.....	64	72	675,100	2,024
1899.....	103	138	6,800,700	4,950
1900.....	114	167	2,174,825	5,539
1901.....	94	121	5,638,300	6,337
1902.....	91	129	2,776,030	5,017
1903.....	96	124	1,436,900	5,343
1904.....	91	113	1,173,500	3,276
1905.....	93	114	2,303,410	3,329
1906.....	105	132	2,937,500	3,724

LABOR UNIONS.—Under this title is given a list of all federations and unions reporting, together with the addresses of the secretaries. There were 2 State and 11 central federations and 215 local unions

in 54 cities, towns, and plantations. Of the local unions known to exist in 1906, 5 failed to report membership and 14 sent no report. The reports from the unions give, by cities and towns, the date of organization, the membership, the qualifications for membership, the initiation fees, dues, benefits allowed, the hours of labor, rates of wages, etc. The 196 local unions reporting comprised a membership of 14,772.

To the question, "What have you accomplished for labor by organization?" a wide range of replies was returned by the unions; but a majority of them asserted that higher wages and a shorter workday had been gained. To the question, "Do nonunion men enjoy the same conditions as to labor, wages, and steady employment as union men?" 190 unions made reply, 89 indicating that nonunion men enjoy equal conditions with union men and 101 that they do not.

Under this chapter is also given a discussion of the apprenticeship system, and the rules of the various unions governing apprentices, together with a history of the labor demands and disputes occurring during the year.

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES.—The data presented in this chapter are compiled from the United States census of manufactures of Maine for 1905. Comparisons are also made with the United States census of manufactures for 1900.

THE PAPER-BOX INDUSTRY.—A general description of the more important paper-box factories in the State is given under this title, together with statistics of the industry for the entire State, for the United States, and for six States in which the industry is most prominent. In Maine, in 1905, there were 9 paper-box factories, with a capital of \$144,900, which gave employment to 222 hands, to whom was paid in wages \$70,416. The sum of \$106,191 was paid for materials and the product was valued at \$236,149.

THE PULP AND PAPER INDUSTRY.—At the present time the making of pulp and paper is the leading manufacturing industry of Maine. The investigation considered in this report is confined principally to the year 1906. However, as a matter of general interest, and for purposes of comparison with other States, a list is presented of the States where the manufacture of pulp and paper in 1904 was a prominent industry, showing the value of the product in each State. Also, there is given a synopsis of the industry in the United States for the year 1904 compared with 1899, followed by a similar synopsis of the industry in the State of Maine.

The returns for 1906 give, by towns, a general description of each establishment, stating kind and degree of power used, kind of machinery, kind and amount of materials used, kind and amount of product, *number of employees, etc.* During the year the manufac-

ture of pulp and paper was carried on in 31 pulp mills and 28 paper mills comprised in 38 different establishments, employing 8,606 work people (8,250 men and 356 women). To these employees a total of \$4,820,268 was paid in wages, and they turned out a product valued at \$34,617,666. There were under construction during the year 8 pulp mills and 4 paper mills, 5 of the pulp mills and 3 of the paper mills constituting 5 new establishments.

The chapter concludes with three contributed papers, as follows, relating to the industry: "History of paper making in Maine, and the future of the industry;" "Chemical wood pulp and paper—how made," and "Maine forests, their preservation, taxation, and value."

RAILROADS.—For the year ending June 30, 1906, there were 8,843 persons, including general officers, in the service of the 20 steam railroads operating in the State. The aggregate amount of wages, including salaries, paid during the year was \$5,084,191.82. The number of employees, excluding general officers, was 8,781, an increase of 71 over 1905. The total number of days worked by employees, other than general officers, was 2,549,607, and the total amount paid this class of employees in wages was \$4,909,906.08. The average daily wages of the same class was \$1.93, an increase from \$1.88 for the year 1905. Statements are presented showing for the years 1905 and 1906 the total mileage, gross earnings, passengers carried, freight hauled, passenger and freight train mileage, etc.

The number of men employed, including general officers, upon the street railways of Maine for the year ending June 30, 1906, was 1,336. To these were paid wages and salaries aggregating \$834,464.35.

Accidents on steam railroads for the year ending June 30, 1906, resulted in 38 persons being killed and 222 injured by the movement of trains. Of those killed, 17 were employees, 2 were passengers, and 19 were other persons; of those injured, 136 were employees, 54 were passengers, and 32 were other persons. On the street railways accidents resulted in 7 persons being killed and 48 persons injured. Of those killed, 3 were passengers and 4 were other persons; of those injured, 6 were employees, 37 were passengers, and 5 were other persons.

CHILD LABOR.—In the report on factory inspection tables are presented in which it is shown that the number of children working under certificates in certain manufacturing establishments of the State was 813 in 1905 and 877 in 1906. The factory inspector recommends additional legislation regulating child labor in the State.

MARYLAND.

Fifteenth Annual Report of the Bureau of Statistics and Information of Maryland, 1906. Charles J. Fox, Chief. 214 pp.

In this report the subjects following are presented: The child-labor law, 35 pages; inspection of clothing and other manufactures, 23 pages; strikes and lockouts, 55 pages; free employment agency, 8 pages; cost of living, 19 pages; in labor circles, 11 pages; agricultural statistics, 1906, 3 pages; new incorporations, 1906, 25 pages; immigration, 5 pages; State reports, 9 pages; conferences and conventions, 2 pages; financial statement of the bureau, 1 page.

THE CHILD-LABOR LAW.—The State legislature of 1906 placed upon the labor bureau the work of enforcing what is generally known as the child-labor law. In this chapter is given the results of the work of six months under this law—from July 1 to December 31, 1906. To children between 12 and 16 years of age 10,289 labor permits were issued, 5,896 to boys and 4,393 to girls. Of the total permits issued 9,294 were for Baltimore City, 5,251 to boys and 4,043 to girls. Applicants for permits to the number of 1,046 were refused.

A summary of the work of the various district inspectors shows that in 90 manufacturing establishments, with salesrooms, visited there were 248 boys and 129 girls under 16 years of age employed, whose weekly earnings averaged \$2.64½; that in 356 stores, mercantile establishments, and offices visited there were 565 boys and 177 girls under 16 years of age employed, whose weekly earnings averaged \$3.48, and that in 949 manufacturing establishments visited there were 1,175 boys and 1,688 girls under 16 years of age employed, whose weekly earnings averaged \$3.64½. Also, there is given the degree of intelligence of the children, hours of labor per day and time allowed for lunch, sanitary condition of surroundings, etc.

The chapter, further, contains a report on the applications for relief investigated by the Charity Organization Society and the Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor, the need of relief being based upon the alleged loss of wages of children to whom labor permits had been refused. Cases in the counties outside of Baltimore were investigated by the secretary of the Maryland Child-Labor Committee, whose report closes the chapter.

INSPECTION OF CLOTHING AND OTHER MANUFACTURES.—During the year 1906 the work of inspecting establishments where clothing and other articles are made which come under the act commonly known as the "sweat shop law" was vigorously pursued and with satisfactory results. It is stated that the old-time sweat shop has in large measure been eliminated from the manufacture of clothing in the city of *Baltimore*. *The opinion of the State court of appeals declaring the*

factory and workshop inspection law constitutional has practically revolutionized conditions in the garment-making trades.

After inspection and report thereon, during the year 1906 there were 1,441 permits issued to contractors and individuals to work and employ 25,822 people in the manufacture, chiefly, of various articles pertaining to the clothing trade. Of the total permits, 929 were issued to proprietors of factories and workshops and 512 to proprietors who worked in tenements and dwellings. The number of people who were authorized to be employed in the factories and workshops aggregated 24,519, and in the tenements and dwellings 1,303. Of children under 16 years of age there were employed 173 males and 583 females; of those under 14 years of age there were employed 54 males and 104 females. Tables, by inspection districts, give in detail number of employees by age and sex, hours of labor per day, kind of articles made, and conditions, sanitary, social, etc., existing in connection with each tenement, dwelling, and factory inspected.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.—There are given for the year 1906 statistics of 24 strikes, which threw out of employment 2,051 persons (1,742 males and 309 females), with an estimated wage loss of \$103,762. Of the 24 strikes reported, 15 were ordered by organizations and 9 were not; 9 were for increase of wages, 5 were against the employment of nonunion men, 4 were for reduction of hours of labor, and 6 were for other causes; 7 strikes were successful, 4 were partly successful, and 13 were unsuccessful. A brief description is given of each strike, together with an account of several minor labor troubles which could not be characterized as strikes. No lockouts were reported for the year.

FREE EMPLOYMENT AGENCY.—During 1906, the year covered by this report, there were 644 applications for positions—617 by males and 27 by females. Of the applicants, 231 were laborers, 63 were clerks, 46 were watchmen, 30 were carpenters, 27 were timekeepers, 24 were drivers, and the remainder were distributed among various occupations. Applications for help numbered 521—for male help, 459; for female help, 62. There were 141 positions filled—129 by males and 12 by females. As to character of positions filled, 113 were laborers, 12 were farm hands, 7 were general houseworkers, etc.

COST OF LIVING.—Under this title comparative prices of various articles of food and fuel in the Baltimore markets are presented for the years 1892, 1895, 1905, and 1906. A table is also given showing the average monthly retail prices of the principal articles of food for 1906 compiled from prices quoted in the daily papers of Baltimore. In conjunction with the prices of food commodities, etc., there are presented the yearly earnings of 10 representative families with budgets of expenditures; also for 537 persons engaged in 31 different occupations, the number of hours worked and earnings per day, days worked

during the year, and average yearly earnings. For persons engaged in a part of the occupations the average yearly earnings for 1906 are placed in comparison with those for 1905 and 1904.

IN LABOR CIRCLES.—Under this caption is presented the returns received from 62 labor organizations, having a reported membership of 10,073. A list of the unions reporting is given, with name of each organization, name and address of secretary, membership, hours of labor per day, and daily rate of wages. Of the total unions, 14 reported the hours of labor as 8 per day, 8 as 9 per day, and 3 as 10 per day, the remaining unions not reporting as to hours. Less than \$3 per day per member were the earnings reported by 40 unions and from \$3 to \$4 per day per member the earnings reported by 20 unions. There is given for 22 unions the number of members reported idle for each month during 1906.

IMMIGRATION.—For the year ending December 31, 1906, 65,284 aliens, exclusive of transits, were admitted at the port of Baltimore. Of this number only 5,712 were destined to Maryland.

MICHIGAN.

Twenty-fourth Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics, including the Fourteenth Annual Report of State Inspection of Factories. 1907. Malcolm J. McLeod, Commissioner. xv, 535 pp.

This report contains 20 chapters, of which Chapters I to X, 336 pages, are devoted to inspection of factories, stores, hotels, tenement shops, etc. Labor and industrial statistics are presented in Chapters XI to XX under the following titles: Organized labor, and labor disturbances in 1906, 48 pages; free employment bureaus, 13 pages; statistics of industry, labor, and wages, 18 pages; prison and reformatory statistics, 17 pages; manufacture of beet sugar, 32 pages; Portland cement and brick industries, 20 pages; tanning industry and manufacture of wire fence, 6 pages; power used in manufacturing in Michigan, 9 pages; statistics of important industries, 17 pages; coal industry, 18 pages.

ORGANIZED LABOR AND LABOR DISTURBANCES IN 1906.—This canvass made of organized labor in Michigan covers the period from July 1, 1905, to July 1, 1906. A summary of the returns shows 539 local organizations canvassed, which are believed to embrace fully 95 per cent of the local labor unions in the State. These 539 locals canvassed represent 91 distinct occupations in 63 trades. The number of members on July 1, 1905, was 35,369, and on July 1, 1906, the number was 39,787. Members worked an average of 9.2 hours per day and an average of 10.6 months per year. In 1905 average daily wages of members were \$2.59 and in 1906 they were \$2.63. There

were 146 unions which reported that organization had shortened the work day, 476 unions which reported that differences had been settled by arbitration, and 323 unions which reported that they had an agreement with employers. During the year covered 48 unions were involved in strikes, 24 of which were successful. Strike benefits were paid to the amount of \$48,817.85. There were 188 unions which paid an average weekly sick benefit of \$5.21, the aggregate paid by all locals in sick benefits during the year being \$22,390. There were 375 unions which paid an average death benefit of \$227.39, the aggregate paid by all locals in death benefits during the year being \$89,526.

The second part of this chapter, devoted to labor disturbances for the year ending December 31, 1906, consists of the report of the work of the State court of mediation and conciliation. A brief account is given of the 13 labor disputes investigated by the court. The work of the court was entirely that of mediation or conciliation, no case of arbitration or public investigation of disputes having occurred.

FREE EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.—Under this title is presented a detailed report of the work done in the two bureaus of the State—one opened at Detroit on June 12, 1905, and the other at Grand Rapids on July 1, 1905. The table following summarizes the work done at the Detroit bureau from the date of opening to November 30, 1906, and the work done at the Grand Rapids bureau from the date of opening to December 31, 1906:

OPERATION OF FREE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.

City.	Situations wanted.		Help wanted.		Positions secured.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Detroit.....	11,254	1,731	13,240	2,680	11,081	1,710
Grand Rapids.....	3,301	1,679	3,028	1,882	2,289	1,340
Total.....	14,555	3,410	16,268	4,562	13,370	3,050

STATISTICS OF INDUSTRY, LABOR, AND WAGES.—This presentation shows for 7,170 manufacturing establishments canvassed in 1905 and for 7,770 canvassed in 1906 the number, wages, and hours of labor of all wage and salaried employees, together with the average number of days worked per month and months worked per year. The aggregate amount of wages paid all employees in 1905 was \$122,953,324, in 1906 it was \$138,393,607; the average hours worked per day were 9.9 in 1905 and 9.7 in 1906; the average days worked per month were 26.4 in 1905 and 25.6 in 1906; the average months worked per year were 11.1 in 1905 and 11.8 in 1906.

The facts collected have been compiled and presented in detailed form, showing the various items by counties. From a summary of the investigation the following table is given, which shows the number of employees of each class and the average daily wages paid in 1905 and 1906 in the establishments canvassed:

EMPLOYEES OF EACH CLASS AND AVERAGE DAILY WAGES IN MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS, 1905 AND 1906.

[Figures are for 7,170 establishments in 1905 and for 7,770 in 1906.]

Class of employees.	1905.		1906.	
	Number of employees.	Average daily wages.	Number of employees.	Average daily wages.
Superintendents.....	6,266	\$4.44	7,039	\$4.63
Foremen.....	7,185	3.02	7,935	3.05
Office clerks:				
Males.....	6,327	2.74	6,908	2.81
Females.....	3,902	1.43	4,791	1.48
General factory workers:				
Males.....	169,804	1.91	188,211	1.93
Females.....	33,724	1.01	36,974	1.03
Children between 14 and 16 years of age:				
Males.....	3,414	.77	3,964	.87
Females.....	1,681	.64	1,877	.67
Total.....	232,303	1.82	257,699	1.88

Further, the chapter gives statistics of 1905, showing the extent of the manufacturing industry in the United States by presenting for each State the number of establishments, capital invested, wages paid annually, expenses, cost of materials, and value of manufactured products.

PRISON AND REFORMATORY STATISTICS.—Under this title appear the reports of the wardens and superintendents of these institutions. Tables are given showing the number of officials and salary of each, number of inmates, cost of clothing and feeding of inmates, number of inmates employed at contract labor, rate per day of contract labor and hours of labor, and number of inmates employed in systems of labor other than contract.

MANUFACTURE OF BEET SUGAR.—In the beet sugar industries 16 factories were in operation during the year 1906, the same number as in 1905. These 16 factories represented a total cost of \$10,900,000. The acreage devoted to beet raising in 1906 was 94,660, an increase over 1905 of 20,587 acres. The tons of beets grown in 1906 were estimated at 753,058 and the pounds of sugar made at 178,000,000. There were 553 skilled laborers and 3,401 other laborers employed in the factories, with an average daily wage of \$3.09 for the former and of \$1.95 for the latter.

PORTLAND CEMENT AND BRICK INDUSTRIES.—In the cement industry 15 of the 17 plants in the State were in operation at the time of the investigation. The aggregate cost of the plants in operation was \$8,300,000, and their aggregate daily capacity 19,200 barrels. The estimated output for 1906 was 4,032,418 barrels. There were on the pay rolls 446 skilled laborers, at an average daily wage of \$2.82, and 1,641 other laborers, at an average daily wage of \$2.41. The average daily wages of all employees were \$2.49. The annual pay roll amounted to \$1,397,600.

There were 80 brickyards canvassed, located in 36 counties, representing an invested capital of \$1,742,231. The number of bricks made in 1906 was estimated at 292,390,000, with an average value per 1,000 at the yards of \$5.17. Employment was given to 67 superintendents at an average daily wage of \$3.05, to 46 foremen at an average daily wage of \$2.75, to 162 skilled laborers at an average daily wage of \$2.57, to 1,868 common laborers at an average daily wage of \$1.80, and to 37 children (under 16 years of age) at an average daily wage of 84 cents.

TANNING INDUSTRY AND MANUFACTURE OF WIRE FENCE.—In the tanning industry 26 plants were canvassed, located in 17 counties, representing an invested capital of \$6,557,347. The approximate value of tanned product for the 26 tanneries in 1905 was \$14,511,014. The tanneries furnished employment to 27 superintendents at an average daily wage of \$5.86, to 54 foremen at an average daily wage of \$2.84, to 602 skilled laborers at an average daily wage of \$2.07, to 1,211 common laborers at an average daily wage of \$1.69, and to 100 female laborers at an average daily wage of \$1.07. The wages paid during the year aggregated \$1,186,848.

In 1906 there were 9 plants in the State engaged in the manufacture of wire fence, whose invested capital aggregated \$1,805,000. The output of the 9 plants for the year was 77,400 tons of fence, valued at \$4,370,778, the production of which gave employment to 9 superintendents at an average daily wage of \$4.38, to 29 foremen at an average daily wage of \$2.82, to 231 skilled laborers at an average daily wage of \$2.11, to 269 other laborers at an average daily wage of \$1.77, and to 2 children (under 16 years of age) at an average daily wage of 62 cents. The amount of the annual pay roll aggregated \$635,273.

POWER USED IN MANUFACTURING IN MICHIGAN.—Of the 7,770 manufacturing establishments embraced in this presentation 3,227 used steam power, 1,069 used electric power, 949 used gas or gasoline power, 219 used water power, 412 used rented power (kind not reported), and 1,894 establishments required no power to operate. The total power generated in the 5,876 power-using establishments was 831,736 horsepower. Also, statistics are given of steam boilers and their equipment and kind of alarms in use and their condition. The data in detail are presented by counties.

STATISTICS OF IMPORTANT INDUSTRIES.—Under this head various industrial firms are mentioned, with descriptions of the establishments, number of persons employed, capital and product, aggregate pay roll, etc. In noticing some of the establishments considerable attention has been given to recently inaugurated industrial betterments.

COAL INDUSTRY.—In this industry there were 38 coal mines in operation during the year 1906, as compared with 33 mines during the year 1905. A condensed summary of the operations of the mines for the two years is presented in the table following:

COAL MINE STATISTICS, 1905 AND 1906.

Items.	Year.	
	1905.	1906.
Mines in operation.....	33	38
Average number of employees.....	2,732	2,119
Average hours worked per day.....	7.7	7.8
Average days worked per month.....	18.0	22.3
Average daily wages.....	\$2.97	\$2.40
Tons of coal mined.....	1,380,307	1,372,854
Average cost of mining per ton.....	\$1.59	\$1.50

In 16 mines 33 accidents were reported. Of these 6 were fatal, 8 serious, 11 severe, and 8 slight.

OHIO.

Thirtieth Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the State of Ohio, for the year 1906. M. D. Ratchford, Commissioner. 671 pp.

This report consists of six parts in which are presented the following subjects: Laws governing the bureau, recent labor laws, and court decisions, 22 pages; manufactures, 350 pages; coal mining, 221 pages; prison labor, 4 pages; sweat shops, 21 pages; free public employment offices, 18 pages; chronology of labor bureaus, 3 pages.

MANUFACTURES.—Tables are given for 1905, showing, by industries for each of the five principal cities, the remaining cities and villages, and totals for the State, the number of establishments reported, capital invested, value of goods manufactured, amount paid for rent, taxes, and insurance, total amount paid in wages, number and monthly pay of salaried employees, number of male and of female wage-earners, number employed by occupations, and average number of days worked, average daily wages, average yearly earnings, and average hours of daily labor. Other tables show, by industries, the number in each occupation affected by a change of wages during the year.

The 8,514 establishments from which returns were received for 1905 reported an invested capital of \$449,702,188, and goods produced or manufactured to the value of \$873,698,493.60. Wages paid 306,155 males and 57,683 females, or a total of 363,838 wage-earners, aggregated \$189,977,399.23, and salaries aggregating \$38,508,446.16 were paid to 35,467 employed as office help, etc. During the year 56,106 persons received an average increase in wages of 7.5 per cent,

and 2,600 persons suffered an average reduction in wages of 7.2 per cent.

The number of establishments reporting in 1905 was 753 more than in 1904, the value of manufactured products was \$153,035,850.85 more than that of 1904, and the amount paid in wages during the year was increased by \$25,660,464.33. The aggregate invested capital exceeded that reported for 1904 by \$43,869,561, and the salaries paid superintendents, office help, etc., showed an increase of \$3,329,043.96.

COAL MINING.—Tables are given, by counties, showing number of mines reporting, average number of employees, capital invested, value of production, wages and salaries paid, average daily wages, average yearly earnings, average days worked, average hours of daily labor, etc. The following comparative table presents a summary of mining statistics for the years 1904 and 1905:

STATISTICS OF COAL MINING, 1904 AND 1905.

Items.	1904.	1905.	Increase +, decrease -.
Number of mines reporting.....	506	587	-9
Average number of employees (monthly).....	37,004	37,673	+669
Average number of salaried employees (monthly).....	1,014	970	-44
Invested capital.....	\$36,661,245.00	\$36,630,252.00	-\$30,993.00
Value of production.....	\$24,703,157.47	\$24,986,366.90	+\$283,129.43
Amount paid for rent, taxes, and insurance.....	\$778,159.40	\$810,508.94	-\$167,650.46
Amount paid in wages.....	\$18,718,249.43	\$18,872,894.72	+\$154,645.29
Amount paid in salaries.....	\$984,230.56	\$973,388.40	-\$10,842.16
Average days worked per employee.....	173	173
Average daily wages per employee.....	\$2.46	\$2.48	+\$0.02
Average yearly earnings per employee.....	\$425.58	\$429.04	+\$3.46
Average hours of daily work.....	8	8
Number affected by advance in wages.....	64	164	+100
Number affected by reduction in wages.....	29,343	2	-29,341
Average per cent advance in wages.....	9.4	8.9	-.5
Average per cent reduction in wages.....	5.6	13.2	+7.6

PRISON LABOR.—This is a brief inquiry relating to the manufacture of shovels, spades, and scoops by convict labor in the Ohio Penitentiary and to the manufacture of the same articles by six establishments employing free labor, arising from the complaint that, in the industry named, prisoners beyond the number allowed by law were being employed.

SWEAT SHOPS.—This inquiry, confined to the cities of Cleveland and Cincinnati, embraces the tenement-shop manufacture of clothing and that of cigars, stogies, and cigarettes.

In the city of Cleveland, in the clothing industry, 91 shops were canvassed, employing 1,076 wage-earners, 314 males and 762 females. The hours of labor per week averaged 56.3, and the average earnings per week were \$12.45 for adult males and \$6.93 for adult females. In the manufacture of cigars, stogies, and cigarettes 63 shops were canvassed, employing 174 wage-earners, 134 males and 40 females. *The hours of labor per week averaged 49.8 for males and 48.3 for females. The average earnings per week were \$10.71 for adult males and \$5.93 for adult females.*

In the city of Cincinnati, in the clothing industry, 112 shops were canvassed, employing 1,194 wage-earners, 326 males and 868 females. The hours of labor per week averaged 54.6 for males and 54.5 for females. The average earnings per week were \$11.73 for adult males and \$5.99 for adult females. In the manufacture of cigars, stogies, and cigarettes 74 shops were canvassed, employing 327 wage-earners, 208 males and 119 females. The hours of labor per week averaged 50.7 for males and 53.7 for females. The average weekly earnings were \$10.26 for adult males and \$6.76 for adult females.

FREE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.—In addition to an itemized statement of the expenses of each office for the year ending October 31, 1906, and text reports from each of the five offices, tables are given showing by years the results of the operations of each office from date of organization, and for each week of the year ending October 25, 1906.

The following table shows the operations of the five free public employment offices of the State for the year ending October 25, 1906:

OPERATIONS OF FREE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES, YEAR ENDING OCTOBER 25, 1906.

City.	Situations wanted.		Help wanted.		Positions secured.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Cleveland.....	3,330	2,024	7,009	3,550	3,171	2,476
Columbus.....	2,542	2,721	3,431	3,882	2,087	2,213
Cincinnati.....	4,599	2,328	4,333	2,565	4,209	2,025
Dayton.....	3,870	2,161	5,059	5,047	3,554	2,090
Toledo.....	1,796	1,029	2,006	1,336	1,353	827
Total.....	16,137	10,803	21,948	16,380	14,374	9,631

Since the organization in 1890 of the five free public employment offices there has been a total of 432,773 applications for situations wanted, 390,954 applications for help wanted, and 263,753 positions secured. Of applications for situations 60.9 per cent were filled, and of applications for help 67.5 were filled.

The expenses of the five offices for the year ending October 31, 1906 (excluding salaries), were \$2,236.81, of which the expenses of the Cleveland office were \$408.26, the Columbus office \$446.17, the Cincinnati office \$470.65, the Dayton office \$462.78, and the Toledo office \$448.95.

RECENT FOREIGN STATISTICAL PUBLICATIONS.

AUSTRIA.

Die Verhältnisse in der Kleider- und Wäschekonfektion. Herausgegeben vom K. K. Arbeitsstatistischen Amte im Handelsministerium. 1906. 102 pp.

This report is based upon the results of an investigation made by the Austrian bureau of labor statistics in 1899 in regard to conditions of production and labor in the clothing and garment industry, this being the first of a series of investigations made with special reference to home work. The work of investigation was in the hands of a special committee composed of representatives of the bureau of labor statistics, the ministry of commerce, the ministry of the interior, the ministry of justice, the superior sanitary commission, the labor inspection bureau, the manufacturers, the master workmen, and the wage-workers.

One hundred persons representing the several branches of the industry and the various industrial centers were examined by the special committee, the interrogatories being based upon special detailed schedules. The principal questions related to conditions of production and sale and to the economic and social conditions of the different classes of manufacturers, middlemen, and work people involved. The inquiries laid much stress on the subject of home work, with a view to its regulation or abolition. The report is divided into three parts, discussing respectively the manufacture of men's clothing and uniforms, of women's clothing, and of white goods and cravats.

The inquiry into the first branch of the subject disclosed a localization of certain kinds of manufacturing, as well as the specification in the cases of individual workmen. The manufacturers in some instances cut the cloth, sometimes by the aid of marking and cutting machines driven by steam; others give out the cloth in the piece, cutting being attended to by the contractor. The contractors were in part skilled workmen while others were mere business managers, taking no part in the actual work of manufacture.

One of the larger manufacturing firms, making all sorts of men's and children's garments, employed from 40 to 60 cutters, and used two cutting machines driven by steam. It had 160 contractors or *middlemen* in the immediate district, and no fewer than 360 in *surrounding villages*, besides 90 workers on cotton goods alone and 240

girls employed on children's clothing. It is estimated that the entire working force employed through these various contractors, etc., increased the total number of employees by approximately 850 persons, showing an average of fewer than 2 employees per contractor. Other firms reported contractors as having 2 or 3 workers, a few as many as 7 or 8, so that the proportion of woman and child labor would appear not to be large. Indeed a considerable aversion to the home work system was expressed by some contractors and workmen, while on the other hand, the manufacturers generally expressed their preference for the continuance of the present system and against its abolishment or restriction by legal enactment.

Employment appears to be more stable in recent years than formerly, work never being suspended entirely, even during the so-called dull season which usually occurs in April or May, the number of employees laid off during this period being comparatively small.

The data relating to wages show a considerable diversity of rates, generally depending upon locality, character of work, and skill of the workman. Cases are cited of a shop worker in Vienna whose maximum weekly earnings amounted to 13 crowns (\$2.64) with board and lodging; and of a home worker in the same city, working on uniforms, occasionally assisted by his wife, whose average earnings were 18 crowns (\$3.65) per week working 14 hours a day, which, during busy seasons were sometimes extended to 18 hours with an increase in earnings to a maximum of 24 crowns (\$4.87) per week. The earnings of a home worker in another locality, assisted by his wife and frequently working from 17 to 18 hours a day, seldom exceeded 11 crowns (\$2.23) a week. Other instances are given of 8 crowns (\$1.62) as the maximum of the weekly earnings of pieceworkers, and 6 crowns (\$1.22) and board and lodging of time workers. The best wages, as a rule, are said to be paid to those who are employed on articles intended for export.

The hours of labor vary, 12 being an average number reported for shop workers, working from 6 a. m. to 8 p. m. with three intervals for meals aggregating two hours. Other cases report commencing work at 5 a. m. and 5.45 a. m., continuing until broken off by night-fall.

The sanitary conditions surrounding the shop workers and home-workers are described as generally very unsatisfactory. In a majority of cases the rooms were small, overcrowded, and poorly ventilated. Frequently the working rooms were also used as living rooms, bedrooms, or kitchens, or for all these purposes combined.

Attempts at organization among working people in this industry have so far produced rather indifferent results. Aside from a few *sick-benefit associations*, mention is made of a tailor's union in Prossnitz with a membership of 150 persons whose object is stated to be

FRANCE.

Rapports sur l'Application des Lois Réglementant le Travail en 1905.

Direction du Travail, Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale. 1906. cxcii, 476 pp.

In this volume are found the summary reports of the members of the superior commission of labor and of the minister of labor and social providence, and the more detailed reports of the division inspectors of labor on the subject of the enforcement of certain laws of France affecting industrial conditions. These laws are three in number: The law of September 9, 1848, relates to the hours of labor of male adults only; that of June 12, 1893, amended by a law of July 11, 1903, is a general factory-inspection law, applying to all establishments considered in this report, and contains provisions for lighting, ventilation, and safety of employees in publicly owned workshops, as well as in those under private control; the act of March 30, 1900, which is in reality an amendment or revision of the law of November 2, 1892, has for its subject-matter the regulation of the employment of women and children in industrial establishments. This last law also controls the hours of labor of adult males at work in establishments where women and children are employed.

Mines and quarries are not considered in this report, being under the mine inspection service, while factories connected with the production of army and navy supplies are under special regulations. The number of establishments coming within the purview of the present report is 511,783, a net increase of 2,934 as compared with the year 1904. Of these 255,457 employed females or a mixed working force, and 256,326 employed adult males only.

A tendency noted in previous years, namely, a diminution of the number of establishments employing a mixed working force, and a corresponding increase of the number employing adult males only, is observable in this report. This is explained by the fact that the elimination of women and children from the working force takes an establishment out from under the limitations of the laws of November 2, 1892, and March 30, 1900, which make 10 hours the limit of a day's work where women or children are employed, and allows the full 12-hour day of the law of 1848. Thus in the six-year period, 1900 to 1905, the number of establishments coming within the provisions of these laws decreased from 164,786 in the earlier year to 158,438 in the later, a decrease of 6,348. On the other hand, the same period shows an increase of 6,941—from 29,622 to 36,563—in the class of establishments coming under the law of 1848. The report ventures *the prediction* that unless something occurs to change the present trend, there will be a practical segregation of the working places for *adult males and those in which women and children are employed,*

except where labor is intimately interdependent. Two dangers are seen in this tendency—one the deprivation of industry of its sources of recruiting its labor supply; the other, the injury to the children in being thrown out of employment. The threat of employers to discharge children under 18 if the law limiting hours of labor is enforced is frequently made to inspectors.

Of the total number of establishments considered, 415,323, or 81.1 per cent, had from 1 to 5 employees; 70,427, or 13.8 per cent, had from 6 to 20; 21,331, or 4.2 per cent, had from 21 to 100; 4,235, or 0.8 per cent, had from 101 to 500; and 467, or 0.1 per cent, had more than 500 employees.

The total number of employees was 3,726,578, of whom 300,988 were males under 18 years of age, and 264,650 were females under 18; 797,483 were adult females, and 2,363,457, or 63.4 per cent of the entire number, were adult males. The percentage of females of all ages was 28.5.

Opinions are divided on the subject of the increase or decrease of the number of home workshops. If these employ only members of the family, under the control of a parent or guardian, and use only hand or foot power, they are not subject to inspection unless the manufacture is of a class designated as dangerous by the law. Actual statistics are impossible with the present inspection force, and the inspectors make divergent reports as to their movement. The desire to escape supervision and to procure very cheap labor leads some manufacturers to favor the giving out of work. Opposed to this tendency is a desire for uniformity of product and the regularity in output and the cheapness of machine production. Though unable to decide which of these tendencies actually prevailed at the time of the report, the labor commission renewed its recommendation of such changes in the inspection law as would provide for more extended protection of woman and child labor by means of an inspection of home industries similar to that exercised over industrial establishments.

The industrial employment of children under 13 years of age is prohibited, except that children who have attained the age of 12 years and have a proper medical certificate may be employed, on showing that they have completed a prescribed course of primary studies.

As already indicated, the hours of labor of adult males are fixed at a maximum of 12 per day by the law of 1848, while by the law of 1900 they may not exceed 10 hours for women or for persons under 18 years of age. The limitation to 10 hours also applies to males working in establishments with females and minors under 18. The number of establishments affected by each law is given above. Special

and temporary exceptions are allowed on proper request and showing of cause to the authorities. The report considers the question of the effect of the reduction of hours from 11 to 10 per day by the operation of the law of 1900. It was the prevalent opinion of the inspectors that the production had not been affected, either because a voluntary ten-hour day had been adopted prior to the time when the law came into operation, or because by a better organization of the establishment they were able to produce as much in 10 hours as had previously been produced in 11. In some of the smaller establishments, however, and particularly where the output is accurately measured by the speed of operation of a limited number of machines, a decrease was reported.

Reports of industrial accidents are required by law to be made in the first instance to the mayors of the communes, who in turn report to the inspectors. Accidents are of three classes—those causing death, those causing permanent disability, and those causing temporary disability. Accidents causing disability of not more than four days are not reported.

The following table shows the number and rate per thousand of accidents occurring in each industrial group, according to their gravity. Mines and quarries are not included, since under the French law a different inspection force has charge thereof.

NUMBER OF ACCIDENTS OCCURRING AND RATE PER THOUSAND EMPLOYEES, BY GROUPS OF INDUSTRIES, ACCORDING TO RESULTS, 1905.

Industry.	Cases of injury per 1,000 employes.	Deaths.		Disabilities.				Results unknown.	
				Permanent.		Temporary (exceeding four days).			
		Number.	Rate per 1,000.	Number.	Rate per 1,000.	Number.	Rate per 1,000.	Number.	Rate per 1,000.
Food products.....	47.3	66	0.2	222	0.7	14,819	45.9	169	0.3
Chemical industries.....	122.4	57	.5	126	1.2	12,670	118.8	185	1.7
Rubber, paper, and pasteboard.....	59.7	17	.2	107	1.4	4,302	57.4	65	.9
Printing and publishing.....	29.5	6	.1	67	.8	2,365	28.5	17	.2
Textiles.....	25.9	28	.1	493	.8	15,802	24.9	215	.3
Clothing.....	5.8	6	(*)	37	.1	2,129	5.8	24	.1
Straw, leather, and hair goods.....	11.2			3	.2	172	10.7	2	.1
Hides and leather.....	24.4	6	.4	91	.7	3,548	27.8	52	.4
Woodworking.....	63.6	88	.3	708	2.5	10,307	59.8	269	.9
Metallurgy.....	237.4	85	1.0	154	1.8	21,725	256.6	37	.4
Metal working, base.....	114.5	102	.2	910	1.9	53,265	111.4	519	1.1
Metal working, precious.....	18.3			10	.5	354	17.7	3	.2
Lapidary work.....	15.5					30	15.0		
Stone cutting and polishing.....	53.4	6	.3	78	.9	1,030	51.5	30	1.5
Earth work and masonry.....	123.7	342	1.3	585	2.1	32,284	118.2	539	1.9
Earthen and stone ware.....	64.6	36	.2	142	.9	9,655	62.7	106	.7
Commerce and banking.....	34.1	106	.2	188	.4	16,651	37.3	273	.6
Fisheries (establishments having an industrial character).....	(b)	1	(b)		(b)	117	(b)		
Agriculture and forestry (establishments having an industrial character).....	(b)	83	(b)	161	(b)	2,325	(b)	111	(b)
Extractive industries (excluding mine and quarry labor).....	(b)	3	(b)	5	(b)	291	(b)	4	(b)
Transportation.....	(b)	463	(b)	506	(b)	37,094	(b)	489	(b)
Liberal professions.....	(b)	1	(b)	2	(b)	132	(b)	3	(b)
Personal and domestic service.....	(b)	5	(b)	1	(b)	141	(b)	4	(b)
Public service.....	(b)	23	(b)	52	(b)	2,651	(b)	57	(b)

* Less than five one-hundredths of one per thousand.

* Not reported.

The following table shows the number of accidents and the rate per thousand reported in some of the industries, grouped by age and sex:

NUMBER OF ACCIDENTS OCCURRING AND RATE PER THOUSAND EMPLOYEES, IN GROUPS OF INDUSTRIES, BY AGE AND SEX, 1905.

Industry.	Employees under 18 years of age.					
	Males.			Females.		
	Cases of injury.	Em- ployees.	Rate per 1,000.	Cases of injury.	Em- ployees.	Rate per 1,000.
Food products.....	750	21,191	35	170	11,246	15
Chemical industries.....	319	3,281	97	120	2,452	49
Caoutchouc, paper, and pasteboard.....	459	5,311	86	142	3,024	13
Printing and publishing.....	702	13,588	52	66	5,068	13
Textiles.....	1,946	43,010	45	1,198	80,254	15
Clothing.....	125	7,542	17	167	107,291	2
Straw, feather, and hair goods.....	21	913	23	16	2,181	7
Hides and leather.....	390	12,218	32	83	6,530	13
Woodworking.....	1,270	30,666	41	101	4,748	21
Metallurgy.....	2,406	6,969	345	5	77	65
Metal working, base.....	7,108	59,006	120	345	7,131	49
Metal working, precious.....	57	2,625	22	12	1,576	8
Lapidary work.....	3	163	18	7	174	40
Stone cutting and polishing.....	31	1,322	23	---	221	---
Earth work and masonry.....	1,026	15,834	65	---	145	---
Earthen and stone ware.....	1,507	21,825	69	188	5,816	32
Commerce and banking.....	675	38,161	18	57	18,393	3

Industry.	Employees 18 years of age or over.					
	Males.			Females.		
	Cases of injury.	Em- ployees.	Rate per 1,000.	Cases of injury.	Em- ployees.	Rate per 1,000.
Food products.....	13,496	234,896	57	860	55,627	15
Chemical industries.....	11,860	80,176	148	740	20,583	36
Caoutchouc, paper, and pasteboard.....	3,488	37,513	93	402	24,342	17
Printing and publishing.....	1,561	48,313	32	126	16,258	8
Textiles.....	10,498	255,718	41	2,895	257,432	11
Clothing.....	1,404	51,139	27	501	211,588	2
Straw, feather, and hair goods.....	84	5,343	16	56	7,357	8
Hides and leather.....	2,963	85,474	35	261	23,001	11
Woodworking.....	16,299	229,375	71	290	17,550	17
Metallurgy.....	19,564	77,751	252	26	653	40
Metal working, base.....	46,390	387,662	120	953	24,581	39
Metal working, precious.....	275	11,337	24	23	4,475	5
Lapidary work.....	16	1,090	15	4	508	8
Stone cutting and polishing.....	1,051	17,735	59	2	1,009	2
Earth work and masonry.....	32,712	256,547	128	12	296	41
Earthen and stone ware.....	7,964	110,134	72	310	16,044	19
Commerce and banking.....	16,031	300,838	53	455	88,206	5

The next table shows the total number of employees by sex and age groups, and the distribution of accidents among these groups according to results, for the year 1905:

TOTAL NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES IN INDUSTRIES REPORTING AND RESULTS OF ACCIDENTS, BY SEX AND AGE GROUPS, 1905.

Items.	Employees under 18 years of age.		Employees 18 years of age or over.		Total.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
Number of employees.....	283,615	261,337	2,191,142	769,487	3,505,481
Per cent (*).....	8.09	7.46	62.50	21.95	100.00
Number of deaths.....	56	8	1,390	16	1,470
Per cent (*).....	3.81	.54	94.56	1.09	100.00
Number of permanent disabilities.....	324	77	3,093	195	4,589
Per cent (*).....	7.06	1.68	87.01	4.25	100.00
Number of temporary disabilities (above 4 days).....	18,622	2,595	221,387	8,045	250,649
Per cent (*).....	7.43	1.03	88.33	3.21	100.00
Results unknown.....	182	36	2,849	107	3,174
Per cent (*).....	5.73	1.14	89.76	3.37	100.00
<i>Total cases of injury</i>	19,184	2,710	229,619	8,393	259,822
<i>Per cent (*)</i>	7.38	1.04	88.36	3.22	100.00

* Computed

A striking excess in the proportion of accidents to employees in the case of adult males over those occurring to other classes of employees is apparent from the above table.

From the mine inspectors' reports it appears that there were 330,796 persons employed in mines and quarries in 1905. The number of accidents was 33,742, of which 348 were fatal, 422 resulted in permanent disability, 32,331 in temporary disability (exceeding 4 days), while in 641 cases the results were unknown.

Les Associations Professionnelles Ouvrières. Office du Travail, Ministère du Commerce, de l'Industrie, des Postes et des Télégraphes. Tome II, 1901, 895 pp. Tome III, 1903, 679 pp. Tome IV, 1904, 821 pp.

These volumes are a continuation of a series of reports on trade and agricultural associations by the French bureau of labor. The first volume was issued in 1899, a digest of which appeared in Bulletin No. 31 (pages 1272-1274). As there indicated, the report consists of three parts, the first of which is devoted to a review of legislation on the subject considered, while the last (not yet issued) will present a historical account of the various local and national federations of unions of different trades and of labor exchanges. The three volumes named above, and the latter part of the first volume, are taken up with the second division of the subject, which consists of an account of the development of the various trade organizations in the principal cities of France which have become, under the law of 1884, the regularly incorporated local or national trade bodies.

In the first volume five groups of industries are discussed: (1) Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries; (2) the extractive industries, mining and quarrying; (3) food products; (4) chemical industries, including the manufacture of tobacco; (5) printing trades. In volume two are discussed: (6) Hides and leather; (7) textiles and clothing; (8) furniture and woodworking. In volume three are presented: (9) Metal working; (10) stoneworking, and earthen and glass ware. The fourth volume discusses: (11) The building trades; (12) transportation; (13) various industries.

The discussion of the organizations found in these various industrial groups is quite detailed, and includes statistical data, an account of the origin of the different classes of unions or societies, the provisions of their constitutions and by-laws, accounts of strikes, methods of relief, benefit funds, trade congresses, etc.

A brief concluding chapter is devoted to the subject of women in trade organizations, and a list is given of 155 such bodies composed exclusively of women, the total membership being 13,873. In 73 other organizations, of 21,008 members, 16,603 are females, while 361 other bodies have smaller proportions of female members.

GERMANY.

Jahresberichte der Gewerbe-Aufsichtsbeamten und Bergbehörden für das Jahr 1905. 1906. Band I, xliii, 667 pp.; Band II, xvii, 1235 pp.; Band III, vii, 1004 pp.; Band IV, 1092 pp.

These volumes present a report of the factory and mine inspectors of the German Empire for the year 1905. Each principal and subordinate division of the Empire is treated separately in the first three volumes, the fourth volume presenting summary tables for the whole country and an extensive analytical index. The subject-matter relating to each province or district is uniform throughout, and is treated under the following heads: (1) A brief general view of local conditions, showing the relations of the inspection office to employers and employees, the number of visits of inspection made, etc.; (2) statistics of the working force, under the heads of young persons (under 16 years of age), females, and all employees; (3) the protection of laborers, under the heads, injuries from accidents and sanitary provisions; and (4) economic and moral condition of the working people, provisions for betterment, and miscellaneous observations. The subjects considered include the enforcement of the laws governing the employment of children both as to age limit and hours of work, the hours of labor and rest for women, overtime, Sunday and holiday work, reports of accidents, safety devices, sanitation of factories and homes, wages and hours of labor, etc.

The following table shows for each group of industries the total number of establishments reported for the Empire, the number employing women and young persons, and the number of employees, by sex and age groups, for the year 1905:

ESTABLISHMENTS AND NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES, BY SEX AND AGE GROUPS, 1905.

Industries,	Establishments.			Employees.			
	Total number.	Number employ- ing.		Total number.	Children (under 14 years).		
		Young persons (under 16 years).	Females (16 years or over).		Males.	Fe- males.	Total.
Mining, metallurgical, salt, etc.	4,115	1,595	738	914,908	70	9	79
Quarrying, products of stone, clay, glasses, etc.	25,306	7,873	5,720	628,372	968	373	1,341
Metal working	15,466	9,308	3,207	497,101	872	260	1,132
Machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc.	13,985	7,792	1,469	789,573	714	72	786
Chemical products	2,510	715	900	137,246	43	77	120
Oil, fat, soap, gas, etc.	3,512	528	711	66,271	59	30	79
Textiles	14,338	7,836	11,019	827,066	1,109	1,814	2,923
Paper	3,601	2,013	2,576	156,322	202	193	395
Leather, hair, and rubber goods	2,720	816	775	87,474	50	32	82
Woodworking, carved materials, etc.	25,671	8,104	2,499	342,007	695	143	734
Foods and drinks (including tobacco)	62,942	10,254	9,888	351,314	380	573	919
Wearing apparel, cleaning, etc.	38,631	15,514	32,775	326,059	270	836	1,136
Building trades	5,808	2,539	143	125,997	71	1	72
Printing, bookbinding, typefoundry, etc.	6,547	4,669	3,333	155,310	348	64	412
Miscellaneous	1,414	182	148	12,177	10	5	13
	226,565	79,735	75,921	5,607,657	5,771	4,474	

ESTABLISHMENTS AND NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES ETC.—Concluded.

Industries.	Employees.					
	Young persons (14 or under 16 years).			Total children and young persons.	Females (16 years or over).	Males (16 years or over).
	Males.	Females.	Total.			
Mining, metallurgical, salt, etc.	30,481	1,081	31,562	31,641	15,853	867,474
Quarrying, products of stone, clay, glass, etc.	29,391	7,358	36,749	38,090	62,676	527,606
Metal working	38,742	9,653	47,795	48,927	55,022	396,152
Machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc.	43,974	2,671	46,645	47,431	33,459	708,683
Chemical products	3,395	2,051	5,446	5,563	18,404	103,376
Oil, fat, soap, gas, etc.	1,074	973	2,052	2,131	7,131	57,009
Textiles	28,111	45,134	73,245	76,168	386,263	364,635
Paper	6,384	7,954	14,338	14,733	51,082	90,707
Leather, hair, and rubber goods	3,645	1,654	5,299	5,381	13,407	68,686
Woodworking, carved materials, etc.	17,880	3,125	21,015	21,769	24,285	295,933
Foods and drinks (including tobacco)	17,723	16,661	34,389	35,308	189,686	376,520
Wearing apparel, cleaning, etc.	6,322	33,644	39,866	41,002	197,315	87,742
Building trades	6,695	11	6,706	6,778	501	118,628
Printing, bookbinding, typefoundry, etc.	12,172	4,114	16,286	16,698	33,814	194,798
Miscellaneous	597	274	871	886	2,638	8,653
Total	246,591	135,673	382,264	392,509	1,041,626	4,173,522

No industry group is reported that does not give employment to employees of every class, though the number of children under 14 years of age is very small in the building trades. Compared with the total number of employees, however, there is a much smaller percentage of children in the mining, etc., industries than in any other. The textile and clothing industries together employ approximately 30 per cent of all children and young persons, while in these two groups are found considerably more than one-half of all females 16 years of age or over.

ITALY.

Statistica Industriale. Riassunto delle Notizie sulle Condizioni Industriali del Regno. Ministero di Agricoltura, Industria e Commercio, Direzione Generale della Statistica. Part I, 243 pp. 1906. Part II, 405 pp. 1905. Part III, 131 pp. 1906.

These three volumes issued by the Italian bureau of statistics of the department of agriculture, industry, and commerce present a statistical and descriptive account of conditions of Italian manufacturing, mining, and related industries. The data presented have been collected by the statistical bureau during the years from 1885 to 1903 and published in the *Annali di Statistica* and in monographs relating to the separate Provinces or to specific industries. The matter thus presented has been revised and corrected, by the assistance of local and other Government officials and of chambers of commerce, so that the report is assumed to represent with sufficient exactness the conditions of private industries in 1903. For other industries, including mining, public works, and industries subject to Govern-

ment inspection, the data presented are for a later period, in some cases for the year 1904, in others for the year 1905. The report does not include transportation.

The first volume contains statistics of production, imports and exports, mechanical equipment, labor, etc., for different industries in detail, and for different series of years. Maps are appended showing respectively the distribution of industrial labor, exclusive of home workers, and of mechanical motors used in industry.

The second volume contains tables only, showing for each Province by specific industries and by groups the number of establishments, of steam boilers, of motors by power used, total power developed, and number of employees by sex and age groups. Totals for the Kingdom are also shown.

In the third volume the same facts are presented, the industry being made the basis of tabulation, instead of the Province.

Industries are grouped under four principal heads: Mines and minerals, metal working, machinery, and chemical products; food products (including liquors, but not tobacco); textiles; and various industries.

The following table presents by groups of industries the number of establishments, the number of motors and total horsepower, and the number of employees by sex and age groups. For the period represented and for the classification of industries reference should be made to the foregoing text.

ESTABLISHMENTS, MOTIVE POWER, AND NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES, BY GROUPS OF INDUSTRIES.

Groups of Industries.	Number of establishments.	Mechanical motors.		Number of employees.				Total.
		Number.	Horse-power.	Males.		Females.		
				Over 15 years.	15 years or under.	Over 15 years.	15 years or under.	
Mines and minerals, metal-working machinery, and chemical products.....	33,194	8,321	369,353	353,624	33,067	28,461	3,823	418,975
Food products (including liquors, but not tobacco).....	62,134	46,265	213,973	192,243	11,161	14,754	2,259	220,417
Textiles.....	7,259	4,926	137,803	93,082	12,690	280,260	66,889	452,921
Various industries.....	14,820	4,087	53,521	125,841	22,497	114,286	45,220	307,844
Total.....	117,407	63,599	774,650	764,790	79,415	437,761	118,191	1,400,157

In the group representing the manufacture of food products is found the greatest number of mechanical motors, both absolutely, and in comparison with the total number of establishments. The average horsepower per motor is small, however, being but 4.6 as against 44.4 per motor in the group of mines, minerals, etc., and 28.0 in the group of textiles.

The groups are not sufficiently well defined to admit of detailed comparisons of data as to employees. The large excess of female

over male employees in the group of textiles may be noted, however, and especially of females of 15 years of age or under, as compared with males of the same age group.

Casa Sane, Economiche e Popolari. Comune di Venezia. 23 pp., 16 appendixes. 1906.

This report issued by a commission of the city of Venice on sanitary housing at moderate rentals consists of a general report of 23 pages and 16 appendixes of varying sizes, presenting text, statistical tables, plates, etc. The city is making a moderate growth, the population having increased from 158,305 in 1895 to 167,096 in 1905. Attention was called in 1886 to the necessity of providing the working classes with moderately priced homes, suitably supplied with light and air and protected against the dangers of excessive dampness so easily prevalent in a city built as Venice is. Numerous proposals were submitted, from a consideration of which it was concluded that three general methods were open to the commune for assisting in the movement for sanitary housing: (1) By encouraging private enterprise, granting premiums to offset financial losses occasioned by investments producing smaller returns than usual; (2) by undertaking directly the work of construction and management of the houses; (3) by favoring the formation of special companies for the prosecution of the work under private initiative.

The granting of premiums was agreed upon in 1891, and was to continue for a definite period, and under requirements as to size and type of the structures and a guarantee as to the maintenance of the buildings for the uses and according to the types agreed upon. A premium was offered of 0.20 lira (4 cents) per cubic meter (1.3 cubic yards) of structures in open areas, and of 0.15 lira (3 cents) per cubic meter (1.3 cubic yards) of structures built on ground already occupied, such premiums to be paid annually for 10 years, the buildings to be ready for occupancy by December 31, 1894. In 1905 the premium for structures on areas previously unoccupied was raised to 0.25 lira (5 cents) per cubic meter (1.3 cubic yards), and the payment of all premiums was to be continued until the close of the year 1906. A premium of 0.15 lira (3 cents) per cubic meter (1.3 cubic yards) was also granted to encourage the maintenance or restoration of hygienic conditions in houses not included under the conditions of the communal regulations of 1891. Under these various grants payments were made of 883.31 lire (\$170.48) in 1893, 2,334.25 lire (\$450.51) in 1894, 3,439.60 lire (\$663.84) in 1895, the payments increasing to 17,816.96 lire (\$3,438.67) in 1905, the total for 13 years being 29,409.84 lire (\$19,186.10). In the 5-year period, 1901 to 1905, buildings were erected under the premium system having a total content of 180,284.31 cubic meters (235,811.9 cubic yards).

The conclusion was reached in the year 1893 that private initiative would not supply in satisfactory numbers the class of dwellings desired, and 80 per cent of the net returns from the Savings Bank of Venice (*Cassa di Risparmio di Venezia*) were set apart for a period of 35 years, from 1893 to 1927, for the construction by the commune of sanitary and economical dwellings. This has afforded annual sums of varying amounts, the lowest in 12 years being 25,902.12 lire (\$4,999.11) in 1896, and the highest, 54,797.57 lire (\$10,575.93) in 1904. The aggregate for the period 1893 to 1904 was 508,734.79 lire (\$98,185.81). In order to provide a fund for the immediate commencement of the work the sum of 500,000 lire (\$96,500) was appropriated at the same time. This sum became available in the years 1897 to 1899. In 1903 a like sum was added by the commune, which was paid over in 1904 and 1905. The total receipts available for the erection of dwellings, from 1897 to 1905, including earlier payments from the Savings Bank, were 1,419,574.55 lire (\$273,977.89). The work of construction and administration is in the hands of a commission of 6 persons, 3 nominated by the communal council, and 3 by the Savings Bank. A report made in March, 1906, shows that at that date 37 houses had been completed or were in course of construction, furnishing from 6 to 15 apartments each, the total number of apartments being 396. Estimates for 36 dwellings with 390 apartments place the number of tenants to be accommodated at 2,150. Rentals range from 10 lire (\$1.93) to 60 lire (\$11.58) per month. There are but 12 apartments, however, which command a rate in excess of 30 lire (\$5.79) per month, while 47 apartments rent at 14 lire (\$2.70) and a like number at 21 lire (\$4.05). The next highest numbers are 34 at 23 lire (\$4.44) and 29 at 13 lire (\$2.51). The total annual income from rentals, at the scale fixed, would be 91,842 lire (\$17,725.51).

In admitting tenants, a preference is given to employees, pensioners, and manual laborers, and to persons whose family income does not exceed 1,400 lire (\$270.20) per annum, or 280 lire (\$54.04) per capita where the family consists of more than 5 persons. Natives and residents of Venice are preferred, and those who have children rather than those who have not.

A list of the occupations of the tenants of 94 apartments showed 13 workmen at the royal arsenal, 10 on the State railway, and 22 in various other industries; 8 were classed as private employees and 8 were employees in public service; 15 were salaried persons in the same service, 6 were public pensioners, 6 were underofficials in the royal marine, and 6 were watchmen.

OPINIONS OF THE ATTORNEY-GENERAL ON QUESTIONS AFFECTING LABOR.

[It is one of the duties of the Attorney-General of the United States to furnish opinions advising the President and the heads of the Executive Departments in relation to their official duties when such advice is requested. Opinions on questions affecting labor will be noted from time to time under the above head.]

EIGHT-HOUR LAW—EXTRAORDINARY EMERGENCIES—JETTY WORK—*Advance sheets 26 Op., page 278.*—The Secretary of War submitted an inquiry as to the construction of the eight-hour law and its application to the jetty work at the mouth of the Columbia River, which is being conducted directly by the Government. The facts on which the opinion is based are reproduced herewith:

The jetty, when completed, will consist of a pile trestle $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length, with an enrockment of rubblestone superimposed. About 5 miles of the jetty have been constructed, and the work is now centered upon the outer 2 miles of this portion, which "is exposed to the full force of the breakers which have made the bar of the Columbia River a terror to all navigators. The seas are never smooth and often rough, even during the summer season, rendering the operation of constructing the pile trestle and conveying rock over it a matter of considerable risk to life and property." The work seems to be steadily progressing, but it is liable to frequent interruptions. Sometimes there is no interruption for two or three days, and again all work, except small jobs on shore, must be suspended for periods varying from a few hours to several days. The delays are occasioned partly by fogs, which prevent the barges bearing the stone from reaching their destination as soon as required, and partly because of vibrations imparted to the trestle by the action of the waves, which stop, for varying periods, the work of the pile driver and the carriage of the stone. On account of these natural causes, hindering the speedy completion of the jetty, it seems that laborers and mechanics are worked over eight hours a day when conditions are favorable. The question of preventing this overtime work has been considered by the officer in charge of the construction, but he believes that the employment of an extra gang of men is not practicable. The impracticability of employing an extra shift, however, does not arise from any difficulty inherent in the project. It is based almost entirely on economical considerations of speedy and cheap methods. He says:

"The question of providing an extra gang of men has had careful consideration, but it is believed to be wholly impracticable. If an extra gang were employed, the two gangs would have probably not

over five hours per day, on an average, a month during the working season, and many days at a time at least one gang would be in idleness * * *. Even if the employment of two gangs were feasible from other reasons, it would still be very objectionable from the delays that would result in changing from one gang to another, such changes being likely to come at a time when the interruption would mean the loss of a valuable opportunity. It is estimated that the labor item alone would be increased from 60 to 80 per cent if it should become necessary to employ two gangs of laborers."

Following this statement of facts the Attorney-General said:

Upon consideration of all the facts, it fairly appears, in my opinion, that the difficulties of construction are such as were known and fully appreciated at the time of the preliminary survey. They are not so grave as to compel the conviction that Congress never could have intended the statute to apply to such work. In the cases of the *Eastern Dredging Company v. The United States* and *Bay State Dredging Company v. The United States* (206 U. S., 246 [Bulletin No. 71, p. 361]), the Supreme Court, in holding that dredging an artificial channel is not one of the "public works" intended by Congress, assigned as one of its reasons "the very great difficulty, if not impossibility, of dredging in the ocean, if such a law is to govern it * * *." Here, however, it appears to me that the difficulty results at most merely in an inconvenience, and, as was pointed out in the dissenting opinion in those cases, that "is a consideration fit to be addressed to Congress" rather than to the courts or administrative officers. The work belongs to the United States and is a complete whole, having structural unity and a permanent existence, and is within the rule laid down in those cases.

Nor does it seem to me that the facts show a case of extraordinary emergency within the exception to the law contained in its first section, "in case of extraordinary emergency." That exception was not intended to have a wide but a narrow operation, and was mainly designed to excuse overtime work which must be rendered to avert some sudden, unusual exigency quickly and unexpectedly arising and calling for prompt action. In *Ellis v. The United States* (206 U. S., 246, 257), it was said:

"It needs no argument to show that the disappointment of a contractor with regard to obtaining some of his materials, a matter which he knew involved some difficulty of which he took the risk, does not create such an emergency as is contemplated in the exception to the law."

In the lower court the judge had instructed the jury:

"* * * an extraordinary emergency * * * is the sudden, unexpected happening of something not of the usual, customary, or regular kind, demanding prompt action to avert imminent danger to life, limb, health, or property. The possibility of danger is not enough."

This ruling, indirectly approved by the Supreme Court, was adopted in the case of *The United States v. The Sheridan Kirk Contract Company* (149 Fed. Rep., 809, 813); by Attorney-General Moody, now Mr. Justice Moody, in a circular letter dated October 31, 1906, and by your Department in two circulars.

In Circular No. 33, under date of July 30, 1906, it was said:

"Attention is called to the fact that the emergency provision in the law is considered to cover any extraordinary emergencies which can not be foreseen, such as might be necessary for saving life or property of the United States, and not cases which depend for their emergency solely upon economical methods of work or importance of rapid construction."

Again, in Circular No. 62, under date of December 26, 1906, it was said:

"An 'extraordinary emergency' under the act is one not to be foreseen in time to avoid the necessity of exceeding the limit of the fixed daily hours of labor by the employment of more men or more shifts of men. *Mere economical considerations do not affect the question at all. It is to be assumed that in making the requirement Congress knew that under many conditions the law would impose great expense upon the Government.*"

Although there can be no doubt that in the prosecution of this work in this dangerous locality extraordinary emergencies within the exception to the law have arisen and will arise, still, upon the facts stated, I am of opinion that no case of continuing extraordinary emergency exists, and, therefore, upon the questions suggested by your communication you are advised that the eight-hour law applies to this work, and that I fully concur with the view of your Department, as expressed in the circulars quoted above, that those who fairly come within the ordinary meaning of the words "laborers and mechanics" should be restricted to no more than eight hours of effective labor upon each calendar day, irrespective of enforced idleness on other days, except when a sudden emergency must be met by prompt action.

IMMIGRATION—CONTRACT LABOR—SKILLED LABORERS—INSUFFICIENT SUPPLY—*Advance Sheets, 26 Op., page 284.*—An inquiry was submitted to the Attorney-General by the Secretary of Commerce and Labor on the subject of the admission of two lithographic artists coming from Germany. These men were detained as violators of the contract labor law, having come to the United States under contract of employment, and appealed. An agent of the American Lithographic Company, of New York, made the contract abroad and prepaid the passage of the persons in question. Other facts, and the statutes involved, are set forth in the opinion of the Attorney-General, which is in the main as follows:

Unless saved by an excepting clause or a proviso, this contract is squarely within the prohibition of the statutes referred to. While this is not denied by the appellants, it is insisted in their behalf that, under the first proviso of section 5 of the act of February 26, 1885 (23 Stat. 332), and the second and third provisos of section 2 of the act of March 3, 1903 (32 Stat. 1213), they should be admitted.

The material part of section 5 of the act of 1885 reads as follows:

"Provided, That skilled labor for that purpose can not be otherwise obtained; nor shall the provisions of this act apply to profes-

sional actors, artists, lecturers, or singers, nor to persons employed strictly as personal or domestic servants:"

Section 2 of the act of 1903 specifies certain classes of persons who shall be excluded; among others, "those who have been, within one year from the date of application for admission to the United States, deported as being under offers, solicitations, promises, or agreements to perform labor or service of some kind therein." This section also contains the following provisos:

"* * * *And provided further*, That skilled labor may be imported if labor of like kind unemployed can not be found in this country: *And provided further*, That the provisions of this law applicable to contract labor shall not be held to exclude professional actors, artists, lecturers, singers, ministers of any religious denomination, professors for colleges or seminaries, persons belonging to any recognized learned profession, or persons employed strictly as personal or domestic servants."

Unless, then, it can be shown that these aliens are artists within the meaning of the statutes, or that skilled labor of like kind, unemployed, can not be found in this country, the appeal must be dismissed. A decision upon either point in favor of the aliens would entitle them to admission.

As the appeal should clearly be sustained on the second ground upon the evidence submitted, I deem it unnecessary to determine whether the appellants are artists.

On the former point the evidence is so free from contradiction that were the case being tried by a judge and jury the court would be obliged to direct a verdict for the aliens. Their counsel, at the hearing before the board of inquiry, called officers of five different lithographic companies to testify to the scarcity of lithographic artists in this country. Henry W. Kupfer, superintendent of the art drawing department of the American Lithographic Company, testified that he had been for four years in charge of that department, and that during all that time part of his duty had been to hire lithographic artists; that while his company could use to advantage twenty or twenty-two artists it had only ten. He further testified that for three or four years there had been the same difficulty in securing men to do this work. It also appears from his testimony that the company, in the belief that to meet this situation it was necessary to bring men in from abroad, applied early in 1907 to your Department to know how this might be done. The Commissioner-General of Immigration suggested that before any steps were taken looking to the importation of labor it was advisable to demonstrate to the satisfaction of the authorities that no labor of like kind, unemployed, was available in this country. In accordance with his suggestions advertisements were inserted three times a week for four weeks in twelve newspapers of general circulation in the eight cities where it seemed most likely that lithographic artists could be secured. There were thirty-two answers to these advertisements. No personal applications were made, and the company did not secure a single lithographic artist as a result of its efforts. The reasons why none of the thirty-two who communicated with the company were selected are clearly and satisfactorily explained in the record you have submitted for my consideration. The company thereupon entered into

contract, above referred to, with Kurzdorfer and Haering, informing the Commissioner-General of Immigration of the fact and of the date upon which the aliens would reach New York in order that a test case might thus be made.

All of these witnesses swore that the demand for high-grade lithographic artists was constantly increasing in this country. The work, however, has been going abroad, because the lack of skilled lithographic artists, according to the statements of these witnesses, prevents its being done in this country.

Counsel for appellants has also put in evidence a report of the Bureau of Statistics, showing that the value of lithographic importations has increased from under \$950,000 for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1898, to approximately \$2,700,000 for the last fiscal year. This development has been gradual and steady, every year showing an increase over the year before, and the figures for the first nine months of the current fiscal year show a still further increase.

This testimony as to the scarcity of labor is practically uncontradicted. Counsel for the Lithographic Artists, Engravers, and Designers' League attempted to show that the difficulty in securing men was due to a strike which had been declared in August, 1906. This idea is negatived by the statements of the witnesses above referred to to the effect that the shortage existed for several years prior to the time the strike was declared. Nowhere in the record is there a scintilla of evidence even tending to contradict this.

Richard Kitchett, president of that National Lithographic Artists, Engravers, and Designers' League, testified that there were about two hundred and forty members of his organization unemployed in the United States, and that this was a sufficient number to fill all vacancies and to meet the demands of the lithographic business. Counsel for the aliens then put in evidence a circular issued, with the knowledge of Mr. Kitchett, by the national advisory board of the Lithographic Artists, Engravers, and Designers' League, of which he admitted he was the head, which ran in part as follows: "The employers' own figures show that the number of men they lack in the art department is actually greater than the whole number now out, so that were the strike to be settled to-morrow there would not be enough men to fill all vacancies."

In view of this statement, issued with his authority by a board of which he was the head, his testimony to the contrary is entitled to but little weight.

I therefore advise you that the record you have submitted shows beyond any reasonable doubt that there are not in the country at this time a sufficient number of lithographic artists, employed and unemployed, to meet the demands of the business. The decision of the board of special inquiry should, therefore, be reversed, and the aliens admitted.

IMMIGRATION—PROMISE OF EMPLOYMENT—PAYMENT OF PASSAGE—
STATE INTERVENTION—*Advance Sheets, 26 Op., page 411.*—The Secretary of Commerce and Labor submitted an inquiry to the Attorney-General on the question of the admission of a Cuban laborer, brought

to New Orleans by the Louisiana State board of agriculture and immigration. The facts as submitted by the Secretary are as follows:

Geronimo Garcia arrived at the port of New Orleans from Cuba on August 5, 1907. His passage was paid by Mr. Reginald Dykers, who at the time was the regularly authorized agent of the Louisiana State board of agriculture and immigration, out of funds appropriated in regular manner by the State legislature. Mr. Dykers and a Mr. L. H. Allen, the latter also being a representative of the said board, approached the alien in Habana and solicited him to immigrate to the State of Louisiana, assuring him that employment as a farm laborer would be secured for him on his arrival in said State. In exchange for the passage money the alien gave to the said officials a receipt, in which he promised to return to the Louisiana State board of agriculture and immigration within a year the sum so advanced. It is the expectation of the State agent that in such cases, upon the alien securing employment, his employer will loan him the amount necessary to reimburse the State and deduct the same from his wages; but no method has been provided whereby an employer can be compelled to make such loan, it being the intention of the State board to rely upon the moral obligation of the alien's promise to reimburse the State, and not upon any legal measures against him or his employer. The alien is left free to select such employer as he pleases, although the expectation of the agent is that aliens selected by him under this plan will be of such a reliable class that they will usually seek employment from parties who can be depended upon to advance to the alien the amount of the passage and enable him to therewith reimburse the State fund. It also appears that, while the alien Garcia had seen advertisements published abroad by the Louisiana State board of agriculture and immigration, reciting the inducements the State of Louisiana offers for immigration thereto, he was not induced to come to the United States solely by reason of such inducements; nor was the sole inducement the fact that his passage was paid by another, nor the fact, brought out in the testimony, that his father had previously come to this country. These facts operated to some extent, however, to lead him to endeavor to avail himself of the assurances given by the above-named agents that employment as a farm laborer would be secured for him on his landing in Louisiana.

Although the desire of the State agent is that Garcia, if landed, shall enter the employ of an *individual* planter who would be willing to loan him the cost of his passage and gradually deduct it from his wages, thus enabling said alien to immediately reimburse the State fund, he is, as above stated, left free to accept other employment if he so desires; and there is no evidence that shows positively that the said Garcia (or any other alien imported in accordance with the plan) might not, after landing, be employed by a corporation, association, or society as freely and in the same manner as by an individual; suggesting a possibility that, under the indirect method of attempting to eventually secure reimbursement to the State fund of the amount of the alien's passage, a condition could *arise which might, perhaps, be regarded as being, remotely but yet*

in effect, a payment of such passage by a corporation, society, or association.

Upon these facts the Attorney-General ruled that Garcia was not entitled to admission, as appears from his opinion, which construes the immigration act of February 20, 1907, and is as follows:

1. It appears that from this statement representatives of the Louisiana State board approached Garcia in Habana and solicited him to emigrate to Louisiana, assuring him that employment as a farm laborer would be secured for him on his arrival, and that such assurances operated as a material, if not the principal, inducement to his immigration, since neither the advertisements published by the State, nor the payment of his passage, nor his father's previous coming, was the sole inducement to his coming, but these matters operated to some extent to lead him to endeavor to avail himself of the assurances of employment given him by the representatives of the State board.

Among the classes of aliens excluded by section 2 of the act of 1907 (34 Stat. 898) are: "Persons hereinafter called contract laborers, who have been induced or solicited to migrate to this country by offers or promises of employment or in consequence of agreements, oral, written or printed, express or implied, to perform labor in this country of any kind, skilled or unskilled." This provision, as stated in my opinion rendered the President on March 20, 1907, excludes "aliens solicited or induced to immigrate by reason of offers or promises, even when there is no contract of employment." (26 Op. 199, 207.)

The assurances given to Garcia by the State agents constitute, in my opinion, promises of employment within the inhibition of the statute. While it is provided that aliens coming to this country in consequence of advertisements by a State of its inducements to immigration shall not be treated as coming under a promise of employment (sec. 6), there is no exception in favor of a State in reference to specific promises of employment to individual immigrants such as were held out to Garcia by the representatives of the State board. Neither is there any requirement in the act that the promises of employment in order to work exclusion must be the sole inducement to the immigration.

Therefore, since, as stated in my opinion rendered the President on March 6, 1907, the unquestionable right of Congress to regulate the admission of aliens into the United States clearly controls the action of any State agent in this respect (26 Op. 180, 193), it follows that on account of the assurances of employment that were given to Garcia as an inducement to his immigration, he should be excluded from admission.

2. Furthermore, as his passage was paid out of State funds, unless it was also clearly shown that he did not belong to any of the classes, such as paupers, etc., specifically excluded by the act, he comes within the provision of section 2 of the act (34 Stat., 898) excluding "any person whose ticket or passage is paid for with the money of another, or who is assisted by others to come, unless it is affirmatively and satisfactorily shown that such person does not belong to one of the foregoing excluded classes, and that said ticket or passage was not paid for

by any corporation, association, society, municipality, or foreign government, either directly or indirectly." Under this provision, while the payment of an immigrant's passage out of State funds does not of itself require his exclusion, yet such payment by a State, just as by an individual, operates to throw upon the immigrant the burden of clearly showing that he does not come within any of the otherwise excluded classes, and in case of his failure to so show he is not entitled to admission.

3. In reference to your suggestion that, under the indirect method of attempting to eventually secure reimbursement to the State fund of the amount of the alien's passage, a condition might arise which could perhaps be regarded as in effect a payment of his passage by a corporation, society, or association, as the statement of facts does not show that any such condition actually exists, or that his passage money is in fact to be so repaid, I am of the opinion, without passing upon the question as to what would be the effect of such a condition if it did arise, that the mere hypothetical possibility of such a condition would not be a ground of exclusion.

DECISIONS OF COURTS AFFECTING LABOR.

[Except in cases of special interest, the decisions here presented are restricted to those rendered by the Federal courts and the higher courts of the States and Territories. Only material portions of such decisions are reproduced, introductory and explanatory matter being given in the words of the editor. Decisions under statute law are indexed under the proper headings in the cumulative index, page 283 et seq.]

DECISIONS UNDER STATUTE LAW.

ARBITRATION OF LABOR DISPUTES—CONSTRUCTION OF AGREEMENTS—SCOPE—JUDGMENT—CONSTRUCTION OF STATUTE—*In re Southern Pacific Company et al., United States Circuit Court, Northern District of California, 155 Federal Reporter, page 1001.*—This case was before the court to review the findings of a board of arbitration appointed under the provisions of the act of June 1, 1898, 30 Stat. 424, commonly known as the "Erdman Act." The questions submitted to the board were four in number, and are as follows:

(a) Whether members of the Order of Railroad Telegraphers in the employ of the employer shall legislate for train dispatchers respecting rates of pay and hours of service, or otherwise. (b) The question of reduction of hours of service on Sundays for employees. (c) The question of percentage and general increase in salaries of employees. (d) The question of eliminating from the operation of the schedule certain important agencies where the duties of soliciting traffic are paramount.

These questions were answered by the board after hearing the evidence, which was very voluminous, covering 1,500 pages of type-writing, besides a volume of exhibits, and in due course the following answers were rendered:

(a) That the members of the Order of Railroad Telegraphers in the employ of the employer shall not legislate for train dispatchers regarding rates of pay and hours of service or otherwise.

(b) That the regular hours of service on Sundays shall be one-half the regular hours of labor on other days: *Provided*, That at any station, where it is impracticable or inconvenient for the employer to arrange the service so as to reduce Sunday labor to one-half time, he may arrange to give the employees leave of absence and full pay for 26 days per annum, at such time or times as will cause the employer and the public the least inconvenience.

(c) That the percentage of general increase in salaries of employees shall be seven and one-half ($7\frac{1}{2}$) per cent, and that the apportionment of this general increase among divisions and subdivisions of the employer's lines shall be such as may be mutually agreed upon by the employer and the Order of Railroad Telegraphers.

(*d*) That the appointment of station agents whose regular duties do not include telegraphic work, and whose annual earnings in the form of salaries and commissions equal or exceed \$1,300, shall not be controlled by the schedule or agreement between the employer and the Order of Railroad Telegraphers.

The act under which the submission was made provides:

That the award and the papers and proceedings, including the testimony relating thereto, certified under the hands of the arbitrators, and which shall have the force and effect of a bill of exceptions, shall be filed in the clerk's office of the circuit court of the United States for the district wherein the controversy arises or the arbitration is entered into, and shall be final and conclusive upon both parties, unless set aside for error of law apparent on the record.

Also that:

The award being filed in the clerk's office of a circuit court of the United States, as hereinbefore provided, shall go into practical operation and judgment shall be entered thereon accordingly at the expiration of ten days from such filing unless within such ten days either party shall file exceptions thereto for matter of law apparent upon the record, in which case said award shall go into practical operation and judgment be entered accordingly when such exceptions shall have been finally disposed of, either by said court or on appeal therefrom.

In accordance with these provisions the telegraphers (designated as employees in the opinion) filed exceptions to the awards designated as (*a*) and (*d*), claiming that each was contrary to the law and not supported by the evidence, that the board erred in admitting certain evidence, and that finding (*d*) was not responsive to the question submitted under the agreement. They also asked for the enforcement of awards (*b*) and (*c*) by entry of judgment in due legal form.

Judge Van Vleet, before whom the matter came for hearing, disallowed the exception as to (*a*), sustained the exceptions to (*d*), and ruled that under the terms of the law he was unable to enter judgment on a part of the findings while others were in abeyance. The case is of interest as being the first in which the law in question has been in court on the points involved. The facts involved and the principles on which the various conclusions were reached are set forth in the following portions of Judge Van Vleet's opinion:

1. The record discloses that the controversy involved in the arbitration grew out of antecedent negotiations had between the parties, the employees represented by their "General Committee" and the employer by certain of its officers, in an effort to bring about certain modifications in the schedule or agreement designated "Rules and Regulations of Pay of Telegraphers," then in force between the parties, commonly referred to as the "Schedule of 1902," the date of its adoption. These negotiations, which had been in progress for several weeks without the ability to come to a complete adjustment of differences, finally culminated in the agreement of arbitration which forms the basis of the proceeding. On the hearing before the board

of arbitration, the employees took the initiative, and in submitting their case as to issue A, above stated, they introduced evidence showing that the train dispatchers in the service of the employer on the system involved, a majority of whom were members of the employees' order, had, by a vote of about two-thirds, authorized the general committee of the employees to represent and "legislate" for them in negotiations "in securing a new contract with the Southern Pacific Company." These authorizations were in writing in the form of letters and telegrams, and, while varying slightly in phraseology, were all of the same general import. They also introduced evidence tending to show the nature of the duties of train dispatchers, their status as employees, and the general mode of performing their service; and also showed that, under the existing schedule, the employees had, for a period of some eight years, been representing and legislating for the dispatchers in all negotiations of the kind. The employer did not attempt to rebut the evidence as to the fact that the dispatchers had given the employees authority to act for them, but was permitted on its part, over the objection of employees, to introduce evidence, largely expert or opinion in character, tending to show that a train dispatcher is an entirely different functionary from a telegrapher or "operator" so-called; that, while the dispatcher may be an operator, he is not necessarily such, his duties being very dissimilar in character, largely administrative, and of much greater importance, not only to his employer in carrying on the service, but to the safety and convenience of the public; that he stands in a different relation to his employer, as well in fact as in law, representing him in the discharge of his duties as an alter ego or vice-principal in his relations with other employees; and, finally, that the feature of the schedule in force permitting the employees' order to legislate for the dispatchers as to rules of employment and rates of wages had been found to work very unsatisfactorily and injuriously to the service, and was a rule which did not obtain on the lines of any other general system.

The objection urged by the employees to the action of the board under this issue, and the only point made under their exceptions thereto, is that all the evidence thus admitted in behalf of the employer, so far as it affected that particular issue, was wholly irrelevant and incompetent, and outside the issue; that the sole question involved in that issue, when properly construed, was whether the employees had been duly authorized by the train dispatchers to "legislate" for them respecting rates of pay, etc., and to represent them in the arbitration proceedings; that the moment such authorization was made to appear by the evidence the inquiry under this issue was closed, and the board was without authority to go further, but was bound to find the issue in the affirmative. But manifestly the language of that issue will not support this construction. It may be conceded that the contention is correct as to the merely incidental right of the employees to represent the dispatchers before the board of arbitration. That was purely a question of agency, and the dispatchers had a right perhaps to delegate it to any one they saw fit, regardless of the wishes of the employer. In fact, while some objection appears to have been made by the employer before the board of arbitration, it was overruled, and is not now being insisted upon. *But the question whether the order "shall legislate for train dis-*

patchers respecting rates of pay, hours of service, or otherwise" involves more than a mere question of agency, where the will and desire of the party conferring the power is alone to be considered. The language of the question is in the future tense, and very clearly involves a question of principle or policy affecting the relations of the parties and the methods of conducting the dealings of the employer with its dispatchers; whether, in other words, it shall for the future be permitted to deal with them directly, or shall be subject to the control of a third party, in establishing the rules, regulations, and rates of pay that shall obtain in their service. This was a question in which both parties to the controversy were at least equally interested, and one upon which it was very evidently the purpose of the framers that both parties should be heard. Had it been the purpose to submit the simple inquiry whether the employees had been empowered by the dispatchers, the issue, if put at all, would doubtless have been framed very differently; but, moreover, it would be convicting both parties to the controversy of a piece of idle folly to hold that they intended to submit to arbitration a mere question of fact so easily ascertainable. It is not contended that the character of the evidence was improper, if it was admissible at all, nor that it was not sufficient to sustain the finding, if the board's interpretation of the issue was the proper one. I am satisfied that the construction adopted by the board as to the nature of the question was correct, and that the exception can not be allowed.

2. The only ground of exception to finding D which I deem it necessary to notice is whether the facts found thereby are within the issues submitted by the agreement. A difference arose between counsel of the respective parties in the hearing before the arbitrators, as to the meaning of question D as stated in the agreement, and as to the scope of the inquiry thereunder. The employees were confining their investigation purely to the literal terms of the question by inquiring as to the number and location of stations or agencies where the paramount duty of the agent was that of soliciting traffic. The employer objected that this was unduly restricting the inquiry under that issue; that its real meaning, and the question intended to be thereby submitted, was as to the elimination from the operation of the schedule and the rule of seniority therein provided of stations or agencies, termed "starred stations," where the business of the company was such that the other duties of the agent were more important than telegraphing, where it was necessary to employ as agents men apt in business methods, familiar with traffic conditions, able successfully to solicit and gain business, superintend the men under their charge, look after the operation of freight and warehouses, handle and sell tickets of all kinds, and transact other commercial business—stations, in other words, where such qualities in the agent were of more essential consideration than his ability as an operator. And it was urged that, if the issue had been misunderstood, it should be amended or cleared up; and the board was requested to make a ruling for the guidance of the parties as to its interpretation of the question. The employees took the ground that there could be no misapprehension of the meaning of the question, that it was to be interpreted by its terms and the inquiry restricted, as therein specified, to agencies where the chief or paramount duty of the agent was soliciting traffic; and they

objected to any amendment or any such construction thereof, as suggested by the employer, as being equally without the power of the board. After some considerable argument the board requested the parties each to file in writing his interpretation of the question for their information, and that it would then determine its meaning. This request was complied with by the employer, but the employees declined, upon the ground that they regarded the language of the issue as free from ambiguity, and preferred to stand upon its terms.

Thereupon the arbitrators, by a majority vote, ruled, in effect, that, while they could not amend the language of the question, it should be construed substantially as covering the ground contended for by the employer; and they permitted the evidence to take that scope. At the outset it may be remarked, in response to certain suggestions made at the argument, that the proceeding has its inception in and rests solely upon the agreement of arbitration entered into between the parties; that it is by the terms of that instrument, when properly construed, that not only the rights of the parties thereto, but the extent of the powers of the arbitrators thereunder, are to be limited and determined. The act puts the arbitration proceedings therein provided for in no different category in this respect than the ordinary common-law arbitration. Moreover, while the proceeding is judicial in character, the relation of the parties is purely a contractual one, and in no respect, other perhaps than in the application of the rules of evidence, does the proceeding partake of the nature of a civil action. Therefore the rules of construction and interpretation applicable to contracts rather than those applicable to pleadings obtain. Nor is there anything in the act indicating, as suggested by one of the parties, that its provisions, either as to the requirements of the agreement for arbitration or the proceedings thereunder, are to be tested by any different or more liberal rules of construction than those applicable to other contracts or proceedings of a similar nature.

We are therefore to have resort, in determining the purpose of the parties under this agreement, to those usual and well-established canons of construction applicable to contracts generally; and, applying those principles, I am satisfied that, taking the language of the contract alone, the finding made in response to question D is not responsive to the issue thereby submitted. One of the cardinal rules for the interpretation of an instrument *inter partes* is that primarily it must be interpreted by its language, taken in its ordinary and accepted meaning, and, if that language is plain and unambiguous in itself, there is no room for construction, but it will be held to mean precisely what its terms imply. Very obviously this rule was violated in the construction placed by the arbitrators upon this feature of the agreement. The question related solely to agencies "where the duties of soliciting traffic are paramount." Nothing could well be plainer than this language. It is in no sense ambiguous, and there is nothing in itself nor elsewhere in the contract to indicate that it was employed in any technical sense, or otherwise than according to its ordinary import. It referred, neither directly nor by implication, to the character of agencies described in the finding, and the finding says nothing about the character of agencies referred to in the question. Counsel for the employer urge that the *finding need not follow the precise terms as to descriptive words employed in the question, that it is sufficient if the finding involve in*

substance the issue submitted, and that every intendment is to be indulged that the award is responsive to the submission. This is perfectly true, but it does not mean that the ordinary rules of construction may be set aside nor the plain import of language ignored, nor that the contract may be given an interpretation it will not bear, merely because in the judgment of the board it did not cover all that the parties should have included in it.

Counsel also insist that the terms of the contract must be construed with reference to the circumstances and the spirit in which they were understood by the parties at the time when they were employed, and, for this purpose, the antecedent negotiations and respective claims of the parties may be looked to. The general rule in this regard is that if the language of a particular clause or feature of a contract is plain, explicit, and unambiguous, not involving an absurdity on its face, and not repugnant to the context, the meaning of that language can not be controverted or affected by evidence either of the surrounding circumstances or of the understanding of the parties. What the court is to ascertain is, not what the parties may have meant or intended, but what is the meaning of the words they have used. It is only when the language is susceptible of more than one construction that the intent may be inquired into.

I am satisfied that the construction placed by the board on question D was unwarranted, and that its finding thereunder was outside the issues submitted by the parties. The facts therein found, not being within the issues, the finding must be held nugatory and not binding upon either party.

3. As to the motion for judgment on findings B and C, it is at least doubtful if, under this act, a judgment can be had on part of the award when a part is set aside; and it is likewise doubtful, independently of the act, whether under the general rules applicable to proceedings of this character the issues submitted here are not so interdependent and inseparably a part of one controversy that they must all stand or fall together. But, if I am correct in my reading of the act, the motion is premature, and those questions not now before the court. As we have seen above, the act provides that, where exceptions are filed to the award, it shall go into effect, "and judgment be entered accordingly when such exceptions shall have been finally disposed of, either by said circuit court or on appeal therefrom." The same section further provides:

"At the expiration of ten days from the decision of the circuit court upon exceptions taken to said award, as aforesaid, judgment shall be entered in accordance with said decision, unless during said ten days either party shall appeal therefrom to the circuit court of appeals. * * * The determination of said circuit court of appeals upon said questions shall be final, and being certified by the clerk thereof to said circuit court, judgment pursuant thereto shall thereupon be entered by said circuit court."

From these provisions it would seem that it is not contemplated by the act, where exceptions are urged against the award, that judgment shall be entered by the circuit court until the expiration of ten days after the decision on the exceptions. If no appeal has then been taken from such decision, judgment shall be entered, either putting into effect or setting aside the award as the circumstances may warrant. *If within the ten days, however, an appeal be taken, then the*

entry of judgment must await the determination of such appeal, when final judgment may be entered pursuant thereto. Very evidently the act does not warrant a piecemeal-judgment such as contemplated by the motion; but one final judgment, which shall be determinative of the whole matter.

Having in view the very commendable object aimed at by the act, I regret much the necessity of reaching a conclusion the result of which, if sustained, will be partially, if not entirely, to set at large the differences between the parties out of which the controversy arises. The evident purpose of the law was to afford a ready, summary, and speedy method of amicably adjusting labor disputes arising between the class of employers and employees to which it applies; and, the case being a pioneer thereunder, a more satisfactory result of its operation would have been desirable. There are certain features of the act, however, which, although doubtless intended to add to the simplicity of the procedure provided therein, are calculated to result, as in this case, in making cumbersome and burdensome its operation, and to largely negate and defeat the object of a speedy determination of a controversy. As noted above, the entire record—papers, testimony, and exhibits—consisting in this case of something over 3,000 pages, is treated as a bill of exceptions for the purpose of review in this court. This would not be so objectionable in itself if there was any requirement at the hands of the excepting party of presenting a specification of the errors relied upon in some such form as would definitely point out the objections involved in the exceptions. In this instance, the exceptions filed were in the most general terms, with no attempt therein or in the brief of counsel to point out the particular page, or even the volume in which any obnoxious evidence or ruling was to be found. As a result, the evidence upon all the issues being intermingled, the court has been put to the necessity of searching through the entire record at the expense of much valuable time, and the great and unnecessary delay of its conclusion. This result could be avoided, either by providing, as in other instances, for a bill of exceptions presenting only the specific errors relied upon, or by a provision requiring the party excepting to the award to file such a specification of errors as would serve to point more particularly the rulings complained of.

For the reasons above stated, the exceptions to finding A will be overruled, the exception to finding D will be sustained, and the motion for judgment will be denied. Let an order be entered to that effect.

CONTRACTS OF EMPLOYMENT WITH INTENT TO DEFRAUD—ADVANCES—PUNISHMENT FOR FAILURE TO REPAY—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—*Vance v. State, Supreme Court of Georgia, 57 South-eastern Reporter, page 889.*—A case was before the court of appeals involving the constitutionality of the act relating to the fraudulent procuring of advances, No. 345, Acts of 1903, which reads as follows:

SECTION 1. From and after the passage of this act if any person shall contract with another to perform for him services of any kind with intent to procure money, or other thing of value thereby, and

not to perform the service contracted for, to the loss and damage of the hirer; or after having so contracted, shall procure from the hirer money or other thing of value, with intent not to perform such service, to the loss and damage of the hirer, he shall be deemed a common cheat and swindler, and upon conviction shall be punished as prescribed in section 1039 of the Code.

SEC. 2. Satisfactory proof of the contract, the procuring thereon of money or other thing of value, the failure to perform the services so contracted for, or failure to return the money so advanced with interest thereon at the time said labor was to be performed, without good and sufficient cause and [with] loss or damage to the hirer, shall be deemed presumptive evidence of the intent referred to in the preceding section.

A series of questions on the various points involved was submitted by the court of appeals to the supreme court of the State, which upheld the constitutionality of the act. From the opinion of the court, as given by Judge Lumpkin, the following is quoted:

1. Is the act of 1903 unconstitutional as being repugnant to and in contravention of clause 1, sec. 14, art. 8, of the Constitution of the United States (continued in Civ. Code 1895, sec. 6030), as to the provision therein contained that no State shall deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws? The contention is that, in the class of contracts dealt with and contemplated by the act, the person or persons contracting to perform services are denied, as against the person or persons for whom such services are to be rendered, the equal protection of the laws, in that it subjects the former, under certain contingencies, to prosecution and punishment, and at the same time affords the latter absolute immunity from prosecution or punishment by reason of any infraction of said contractual obligations. If the act of 1903 sought to make it penal to violate a contract or fail to pay a debt, it would be patently unconstitutional. But this court has held that "such act does not violate the constitutional inhibition against imprisonment for debt; the legislative purpose being, not to punish for a failure to comply with the obligation, but for the fraudulent intention with which the money or other thing of value is procured." (*Lamar v. State*, 120 Ga. 312, 47 S. E. 958; *Banks v. State*, 124 Ga. 15 (4), 52 S. E. 74, 2 L. R. A. (N. S.) 1007; *Townsend v. State*, 124 Ga. 69, 52 S. E. 293.) This being true, it is apparent that the objection is without merit. In the nature of things the master does not ordinarily procure advances from his servant, or the employer from his employee. Legitimate classification is not unjust discrimination. There are a very large number of laws upon the statute books imposing penalties upon certain persons, without also providing for penalties as to others, though having some relation with them. The abandonment of a child by its father is a misdemeanor. (Pen. Code 1895, sec. 114.) But it is not declared criminal for a child to abandon its father. It is evident that the same duty does not rest upon both, and the two are not in the same situation. Enticing away apprentices is unlawful. (Pen. Code 1895, sec. 119.) But nothing is said as to putting any penalty on the employer. * * * It is criminal for bank officers to purchase any bill, check, or other evidence of debt issued by the bank for less than its face

value; but the seller is not punished. (Pen. Code 1895, sec. 209.) These are only a few of the many instances which might be cited; but they will suffice to show that, where two persons deal with each other and the conduct of one requires safeguarding, criminal laws have been shaped for that purpose, and they have never been considered unconstitutional.

2. It is further urged that the equal protection of the law is denied, because the person contracted with, and for whom services are to be rendered, is permitted to testify to a state of facts declared to be sufficient to carry the presumption of fraudulent intent, whereas the accused is not permitted to testify, and has no opportunity or means equal to those afforded to the person contracted with of proving, that no fraudulent intent existed, and the act lays down no measure of proof by which such presumption may be overcome. Here, again, the error is made of treating the act as punishing a breach of contract, instead of a fraudulent transaction. To say that the equal protection of the law is denied, because a prosecutor can testify and the person accused of crime can not, would upset the practice in criminal procedure for centuries past. The privilege to the accused to testify as a witness is conferred by statute in some States. It is not a common-law right. In this State it does not exist generally, but only in certain cases.

3. The contention that no measure of proof is laid down by the act of the legislature by which such presumption may be overcome is without merit. The general law in regard to criminal procedure is to be considered in connection with this act. The presumption of sanity, of a continuance of a state of facts permanent in its nature when once shown to have existed, and other disputable presumptions, are declared by law. Upon the whole case, in a criminal prosecution, the State must show the guilt of the accused beyond a reasonable doubt. But the act is not unconstitutional because on its face it does not declare the exact amount of proof which will overcome a disputable presumption raised by law from a given state of facts.

4. It is further contended that the act is violative of paragraph 1, sec. 4, art. 1, of the State constitution (Civ. Code 1895, sec. 5732), and especially that portion thereof which declares that "laws of a general nature shall have uniform operation throughout the State." It is argued that the act of 1903 does not have uniform operation, in that it singles out and deals with a given character of contracts, and prescribes with reference thereto "different rules, different conditions, and different penalties from all other contracts of whatever nature," and because it imposes heavier burdens upon the person or persons who contract to perform services, while affording to the person or persons for whom such services are to be performed immunity from prosecution and punishment, and also because it groups a class of citizens who contract with reference to the performance of services, and imposes on some of them certain conditions, prosecutions, and punishments not inflicted upon others. Here, again, the error of treating the act as punishing for a violation of a contract appears. The law is general and uniform, applying uniformly throughout the State to all persons falling within its terms. It is well settled that reasonable classification may be made, and if the law applies *uniformly to all within the class* it is not unconstitutional. If this were

not so, all the laws giving liens to laborers, material men, contractors, and others against the person with whom they contract, or for the improvement of whose property they furnish labor or materials, without providing a counter lien of some sort in favor of the other party to the contract, would be unconstitutional. We deem it unnecessary to cite authorities in support of this well-settled proposition.

5. Again, it is urged that section 2 of the act is repugnant to paragraph 5 of section 1 of article 1 of the constitution of the State (Civ. Code 1895, sec. 5702), and particularly to that portion of the paragraph which provides that the accused shall have a public and speedy trial by an impartial jury, in that said act arbitrarily fixes the measure of evidence by which the jury may presume guilt, whereas the constitutional provision contemplates that the jury alone shall determine that question. This point is in effect controlled by the decision in *Banks v. State*, 124 Ga. 15 (6), 52 S. E. 74, 2 L. R. A. (N. S.) 1007, where it was held that "a provision of the act of 1903 to the effect that proof of the contract of hiring, the procuring thereon of money or other thing of value, the failure to perform the service so contracted for or to return the money or other thing of value, the failure to perform the service so contracted for or to return the money so advanced, with interest thereon to the time the labor was to be performed, without good and sufficient cause, and loss or damage to the hirer, shall be presumptive evidence of a fraudulent intent in the procurement of the advances, is not an assumption of judicial functions by the legislature." If the act made the presumption of intent arising from proof of certain facts conclusive, rather than disputable, or if the inference was arbitrary and without reasonable connection with the premises on which it was predicated, a more serious question would arise. But such is not the case. * * * The act is not unconstitutional on this ground.

6. It is still further contended that the act, particularly the second section thereof, is repugnant to the provisions of paragraph 17, section 7, art. 3, of the constitution of the State (Civ. Code 1895, sec. 5779), wherein it is provided that "no law or section of the Code shall be amended or repealed by mere reference to its title, or to the number of the section of the Code, but the amending or repealing act shall distinctly describe the law to be amended or repealed, as well as the alteration to be made." It is said that the provisions of the act of 1903 are in direct conflict with section 1033 of the Penal Code of 1895, which provides that "on the trial of all criminal cases the jury shall be the judges of the law and the facts, and shall give a general verdict of 'guilty' or 'not guilty;'" that the act necessarily works a repeal of this section as to the class of prosecutions within its purview; and that no reference is made to that section of the Code. The particular point of conflict between the section and the act urged is that the latter provides what evidence will raise a presumption of guilt, whereas under the provisions of the section of the Code the jury are the sole judges of the facts and of their probative value. What has been said in the preceding division of this opinion substantially decides this objection. The act of 1903 is not in conflict with and does not repeal the section of the Code quoted above. Upon the whole case that section is still the law, construed as it has heretofore been by this court. The two laws are to be construed in harmony. The establishment by

legislation of a rule of presumptive intent from acts done in carrying out that intent does not violate the constitutional provisions last mentioned above.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—RAILROAD COMPANIES—POWERS OF FEDERAL GOVERNMENT—INTERSTATE COMMERCE—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—*Howard v. Illinois Central Railroad Company; Brooks v. Southern Pacific Company, Supreme Court of the United States, Nos. 216, 222, October Term, 1907.*—These cases were before the Supreme Court on appeal from the United States circuit court for the western district of Tennessee [see Bulletin No. 68, p. 192] and for the western district of Kentucky [see Bulletin No. 68, p. 188], respectively, the Federal employers' liability law of 1906 having been in both instances declared unconstitutional. The employees in both instances were firemen employed on locomotives engaged in moving interstate commerce trains, and on judgment against the plaintiffs appeals were taken, the cases being argued not only by the attorneys of the parties in interest, but also by the Attorney-General of the United States, the two cases being combined and heard as one. The facts are immaterial, as the decision turned entirely on the question of the constitutionality of the law, which was decided in the negative, by a divided court. On account of the importance of the cases, both the opinion of the court and the principal part of the dissenting opinion are reproduced, as well as the text of the law itself.

Judge White, who announced the opinion of the court, after a statement of the history of the cases, said:

Before coming to consider the contentions concerning the constitutionality of the act,^a we notice certain suggestions which proceed upon the assumption that they may concern the issue for decision. It

^a CHAPTER 3073. An act relating to liability of common carriers in the District of Columbia and Territories and common carriers engaged in commerce between the States and between the States and foreign nations to their employees.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That every common carrier engaged in trade or commerce in the District of Columbia, or in any Territory of the United States, or between the several States, or between any Territory and another, or between any Territory or Territories and any State or States, or the District of Columbia, or with foreign nations, or between the District of Columbia and any State or States or foreign nations, shall be liable to any of its employees, or, in the case of his death, to his personal representative for the benefit of his widow and children, if any; if none, then for his parents; if none, then for his next of kin dependent upon him, for all damages which may result from the negligence of any of its officers, agents, or employees, or by reason of any defect or insufficiency due to its negligence in its cars, engines, appliances, machinery, track, roadbed, ways or works.

SEC. 2. That in all actions hereafter brought against any common carriers to recover damages for personal injuries to an employee, or where such injuries have resulted in his death, the fact that the employee may have been guilty of contributory negligence shall not bar a recovery where his contributory negli-

is said that the statute inordinately extends the power of Congress and unduly diminishes the legislative authority of the States, since it seeks to exert the power of Congress as to the relation of master and servant, a subject hitherto treated as being exclusively within the control of the States, and that in practice its execution will cripple the State and enlarge the Federal judicial power, since its effect will be to cause every action concerning an injury to a servant employed by a common carrier who may engage in interstate commerce to cease to be a matter of State jurisdiction and to be cognizable in the Federal courts. Moreover, it is said, the statute will create confusion and uncertainty as to the rights of those dwelling within the States, that it will operate injuriously upon all who choose to engage in interstate commerce as a common carrier, since those who so do will become subject to the liability which the statute creates, to be tested by the rules of negligence which the statute embodies, although such rules be unknown to the laws of the several States. Besides, the statute, it is urged, discriminates against all who engage as common carriers in interstate commerce, since it makes them responsible without limit as to the amount to one servant for an injury suffered by the acts of a coservant, even in a case where the negligence of the injured servant has contributed to the result, hence placing all employers who are common carriers in a disfavored and all their employees in a favored class. Indeed it is insisted the statute proceeds upon contradictory principles, since it imposes the increased responsibility just stated upon the master presumably in order to make him more careful in the selection of his servants, and yet minimizes the necessity for care on the part of the servant by allowing recovery, although he may have been negligent.

But, without even for the sake of argument conceding the correctness of these suggestions, we at once dismiss them from consideration as concerning merely the expediency of the act and not the power of Congress to enact it. We say this since, in testing the constitutionality of the act, we must confine ourselves to the power to pass it and may not consider evils which it is supposed will arise from the execution of the law, whether they be real or imaginary.

gence was slight and that of the employer was gross in comparison, but the damages shall be diminished by the jury in proportion to the amount of negligence attributable to such employee. All questions of negligence and contributory negligence shall be for the jury.

Sec. 3. That no contract of employment, insurance, relief, benefit, or indemnity for injury or death entered into by or on behalf of any employee, nor the acceptance of any such insurance, relief, benefit, or indemnity by the person entitled thereto, shall constitute any bar or defense to any action brought to recover damages for personal injuries to or death of such employee: *Provided, however,* That upon the trial of such action against any common carrier the defendant may set off therein any sum it has contributed toward any such insurance, relief, benefit, or indemnity that may have been paid to the injured employee, or in case of his death to his personal representative.

Sec. 4. That no action shall be maintained under this act unless commenced within one year from the time the cause of action accrued.

Sec. 5. That nothing in this act shall be held to limit the duty of common carriers by railroads or impair the rights of their employees under the safety-appliance act of March second, eighteen hundred and ninety-three, as amended April first, eighteen hundred and ninety-six, and March second, nineteen hundred and three.

Approved, June 11, 1906.

All the questions which arise concern the nature and extent of the power of Congress to regulate commerce. That subject has been so often here considered and has been so fully elaborated in recent decisions, two of which are noted in the margin,^(a) that we content ourselves, for the purposes of this case, with repeating the broad definition of the commerce power as expounded by Mr. Chief Justice Marshall in *Gibbons v. Ogden*, 9 Wheat. 1, 196, where he said:

"We are now arrived at the inquiry, What is this power? It is the power to regulate; that is, to prescribe the rule by which commerce is to be governed. This power, like all others vested in Congress, is complete in itself, may be exercised to its utmost extent, and acknowledges no limitations other than are prescribed in the Constitution. * * * If, as has always been understood, the sovereignty of Congress, though limited to specified objects, is plenary as to those objects, the power over commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, is vested in Congress as absolutely as it would be in a single government, having in its constitution the same restrictions on the exercise of the power as are found in the Constitution of the United States."

Accepting, as we now do and as has always been done, this comprehensive statement of the power of Congress, we also adopt and reiterate the perspicuous statement made in the same case (p. 194), of those matters of State control which are not embraced in the grant of authority to Congress to regulate commerce:

"It is not intended to say that these words comprehend that commerce, which is completely internal, which is carried on between man and man in a State, or between different parts of the same State, and which does not extend to or affect other States. Such a power would be inconvenient and is certainly unnecessary. Comprehensive as the word 'among' is, it may very properly be restricted to that commerce which concerns more States than one. * * * The genius and character of the whole Government seem to be, that its action is to be applied to all the external concerns of the Nation, and to those internal concerns which affect the States generally; but not to those which are completely within a particular State, which do not affect other States, and with which it is not necessary to interfere, for the purpose of executing some of the general powers of the Government."

We think the orderly discussion of the question may best be met by disposing of the affirmative propositions relied on to establish that the statute conflicts with the Constitution.

In the first place, it is asserted that there is a total want of power in Congress in any conceivable aspect to regulate the subject with which the act deals. In the second place it is insisted the act is void, even although it be conceded, for the sake of argument, that some phases of the subject with which it is concerned may be within the power of Congress, because the act is confined not to such phases, but asserts control over many things not in any event within the power to regulate commerce.

While it may be, if we indulged, for the sake of argument, in the hypothesis of limited power upon which the second proposition rests, it would result that a consideration of the first proposition would be

^a *Lottery Case*, 188 U. S. 321, 345, et seq.; *Northern Securities Co. v. United States*, 193 U. S. 197, 235, and cases cited.

unnecessary because the act would be found to be repugnant to the Constitution, because embracing provisions beyond such assumed and restricted authority we do not think we are at liberty to avoid deciding whether, in any possible aspect, the subject to which the act relates is within the power of Congress. We say this, for if it be that from the nature of the subject no power whatever over the same can, under any conceivable circumstances, be possessed by Congress, we ought to so declare, and not by an attempt to conceive the inconceivable assume the existence of some authority, thus it may be, misleading Congress and giving rise to future contention.

1. The proposition that there is an absolute want of power in Congress to enact the statute is based on the assumption that as the statute is solely addressed to the regulation of the relations of the employer to those whom he employs and the relation of those employed by him among themselves, it deals with subjects which can not under any circumstances come within the power conferred upon Congress to regulate commerce.

As it is patent that the act does regulate the relation of master and servant in the cases to which it applies, it must follow, that the act is beyond the authority of Congress if the proposition just stated be well founded. But we may not test the power of Congress to regulate commerce solely by abstractly considering the particular subject to which a regulation relates, irrespective of whether the regulation in question is one of interstate commerce. On the contrary, the test of power is not merely the matter regulated, but whether the regulation is directly one of interstate commerce, or is embraced within the grant conferred on Congress to use all lawful means necessary and appropriate to the execution of the power to regulate commerce. We think the unsoundness of the contention, that because the act regulates the relation of master and servant, it is unconstitutional, because under no circumstances and to no extent can the regulation of such subject be within the grant of authority to regulate commerce, is demonstrable. We say this because we fail to perceive any just reason for holding that Congress is without power to regulate the relation of master and servant, to the extent that regulations adopted by Congress on that subject are solely confined to interstate commerce, and therefore are within the grant to regulate that commerce or within the authority given to use all means appropriate to the exercise of the powers conferred. To illustrate: Take the case of an interstate railway train, that is, a train moving in interstate commerce, and the regulation of which therefore is, in the nature of things, a regulation of such commerce. It can not be said that because a regulation adopted by Congress as to such train when so engaged in interstate commerce deals with the relation of the master to the servants operating such train or the relations of the servants engaged in such operation between themselves, that it is not a regulation of interstate commerce. This must be, since to admit the authority to regulate such train, and yet to say that all regulations which deal with the relation of master and servants engaged in its operation are invalid for want of power would be but to concede the power and then to deny it, or at all events to recognize the power and yet to render it incomplete.

Because of the reasons just stated we might well pass from the *consideration of the subject*. We add, however, that we think the

error of the proposition is shown by previous decisions of this court. Thus the want of power in a State to interfere with an interstate commerce train, if thereby a direct burden is imposed upon interstate commerce, is settled beyond question. (*Mississippi R. R. Co. v. Illinois Cent. R. R.*, 203 U. S. 335, 343, and cases cited; *Atlantic Coast Line R. R. v. Wharton et al., Railroad Commissioners*, 207 U. S. — [28 Sup. Ct. 121].) And decisions cited in the margin,^a holding that State statutes which regulated the relation of master and servant were applicable to those actually engaged in an operation of interstate commerce, because the State power existed until Congress acted, by necessary implication, refute the contention that a regulation of the subject, confined to interstate commerce, when adopted by Congress would be necessarily void because the regulation of the relation of master and servant was, however intimately connected with interstate commerce, beyond the power of Congress. And a like conclusion also persuasively results from previous rulings of this court concerning the act of Congress, known as the Safety Appliance Act. (*Johnson v. Southern Pacific Co.*, 196 U. S. 1 [Bulletin No. 56, p. 303]; *Schlemmer v. Buffalo, Rochester, etc., Ry.*, 205 *Ib.*, 1 [Bulletin No. 71, p. 385].)

2. But it is argued, even though it be conceded that the power of Congress may be exercised as to the relation of master and servant in matters of interstate commerce, that power can not be lawfully extended so as to include the regulation of the relation of master and servant, or of servants among themselves, as to things which are not interstate commerce. From this it is insisted the repugnancy of the act to the Constitution is clearly shown, as the face of the act makes it certain that the power which it asserts extends not only to the relation of master and servant and servants among themselves as to things which are wholly interstate commerce, but embraces those relations as to matters and things domestic in their character and which do not come within the authority of Congress. To test this proposition requires us to consider the text of the act.

From the first section it is certain that the act extends to every individual or corporation who may engage in interstate commerce as a common carrier. Its all-embracing words leave no room for any other conclusion. It may include, for example, steam railroads, telegraph lines, telephone lines, the express business, vessels of every kind, whether steam or sail, ferries, bridges, wagon lines, carriages, trolley lines, etc. Now, the rule which the statute establishes for the purpose of determining whether all the subjects to which it relates are to be controlled by its provisions is that any one who conducts such business be a "common carrier engaged in trade or commerce in the District of Columbia, or in any Territory of the United States, or between the several States," etc. That is, the subjects stated all come within the statute when the individual or corporation is a common carrier who engages in trade or commerce between the States, etc. From this it follows that the statute deals with all the concerns of the individuals or corporations to which it relates if they engage as common carriers in trade or commerce between the States, etc., and

^a *Sherlock v. Ailing*, 93 U. S. 99; *Missouri Pacific Ry. Co. v. Mackey*, 127 *Ib.* 205; *Minneapolis, etc., Ry. Co. v. Herrick*, 127 *Ib.* 210; *Chicago, &c., Ry. Co. v. Pontius*, 157 *Ib.* 209; *Tullis v. Lake Erie & W. R. R.*, 175 U. S. 348 (Bulletin No. 29, p. 890).

does not confine itself to the interstate commerce business which may be done by such persons. Stated in another form, the statute is addressed to the individuals or corporations who are engaged in interstate commerce and is not confined solely to regulating the interstate commerce business which such persons may do—that is, it regulates the persons because they engage in interstate commerce and does not alone regulate the business of interstate commerce.

And the conclusion thus stated, which flows from the text of the act concerning the individuals or corporations to which it is made to apply, is further demonstrated by a consideration of the text of the statute defining the servants to whom it relates.

Thus the liability of a common carrier is declared to be in favor of "any of its employees." As the word "any" is unqualified, it follows that liability to the servant is coextensive with the business done by the employers whom the statute embraces; that is, it is in favor of any of the employees of all carriers who engage in interstate commerce. This also is the rule as to the one who otherwise would be a fellow-servant, by whose negligence the injury or death may have been occasioned, since it is provided that the right to recover on the part of any servant will exist, although the injury for which the carrier is to be held resulted from "the negligence of any of its officers, agents or employees."

The act then being addressed to all common carriers engaged in interstate commerce, and imposing a liability upon them in favor of any of their employees, without qualification or restriction as to the business in which the carriers or their employees may be engaged at the time of the injury, of necessity includes subjects wholly outside of the power of Congress to regulate commerce. Without stopping to consider the numerous instances where although a common carrier is engaged in interstate commerce such carrier may in the nature of things also transact business not interstate commerce, although such local business may indirectly be related to interstate commerce, a few illustrations showing the operation of the statute as to matters wholly independent of interstate commerce will serve to make clear the extent of the power which is exerted by the statute. Take a railroad engaged in interstate commerce, having a purely local branch operated wholly within a State. Take again the same road having shops for repairs, and it may be for construction work, as well as a large accounting and clerical force, and having, it may be, storage elevators and warehouses, not to suggest besides the possibility of its being engaged in other independent enterprises. Take a telegraph company engaged in the transmission of interstate and local messages. Take an express company engaged in local as well as in interstate business. Take a trolley line moving wholly within a State as to a large part of its business and yet as to the remainder crossing the State line.

As the act thus includes many subjects wholly beyond the power to regulate commerce and depends for its sanction upon that authority, it results that the act is repugnant to the Constitution, and can not be enforced unless there be merit in the propositions advanced to show that the statute may be saved.

On the one hand, while conceding that the act deals with all common carriers who are engaged in interstate commerce because they *so engage*, and indeed, while moreover conceding that the act was

originally drawn for the purpose of reaching all the employees of railroads engaged in interstate commerce to which it is said the act in its original form alone related, it is yet insisted that the act is within the power of Congress, because one who engages in interstate commerce thereby comes under the power of Congress as to all his business and may not complain of any regulation which Congress may choose to adopt. These contentions are thus summed up in the brief filed on behalf of the Government:

"It is the *carrier* and not its employees that the act seeks to regulate, and the carrier is subject to such regulations because it is engaged in interstate commerce.

* * * * *

"By engaging in interstate commerce the carrier chooses to subject itself and its business to the control of Congress, and can not be heard to complain of such regulations.

"* * * It is submitted that Congress can make a common carrier engaged in interstate commerce liable to *any one* for its negligence who is affected by it; and if it can do that, necessarily it can make such carrier liable to all of its employees."

On the other hand, the same brief insists that these propositions are irrelevant, because the statute may be interpreted so as to confine its operation wholly to interstate commerce or to means appropriate to the regulation of that subject, and hence relieves from the necessity of deciding whether, if the statute could not be so construed, it would be constitutional. In the oral discussion at bar this latter view was earnestly insisted upon by the Attorney-General. Assuming, as we do, that the propositions are intended to be alternative, we disregard the order in which they are pressed in argument, and therefore pass for a moment the consideration of the proposition that the statute is constitutional, though it includes all the subjects which we have found it to embrace, in order to weigh the contention that it is susceptible on its face of a different meaning from that which we have given it, or that such result can be accomplished by the application of the rules of interpretation which are relied upon.

So far as the face of the statute is concerned, the argument is this, that because the statute says carriers engaged in commerce between the States, etc., therefore the act should be interpreted as being exclusively applicable to the interstate commerce business and none other of such carriers, and that the words "any employee" as found in the statute should be held to mean any employee when such employee is engaged only in interstate commerce. But this would require us to write into the statute words of limitation and restriction not found in it. But if we could bring ourselves to modify the statute by writing in the words suggested the result would be to restrict the operation of the act as to the District of Columbia and the Territories. We say this because immediately preceding the provision of the act concerning carriers engaged in commerce between the States and Territories is a clause making it applicable to "every common carrier engaged in trade or commerce in the District of Columbia or in any Territory of the United States." It follows, therefore, that *common carriers* in such Territories, even although not engaged in interstate commerce, are by the act made liable to "any" of their employees, as therein defined. The legislative power of Congress over

the District of Columbia and the Territories being plenary and not depending upon the interstate commerce clause, it results that the provision as to the District of Columbia and the Territories, if standing alone, could not be questioned. Thus it would come to pass, if we could bring ourselves to modify the statute by writing in the words suggested; that is, by causing the act to read "any employee when engaged in interstate commerce," we would restrict the act as to the District of Columbia and the Territories, and thus destroy it in an important particular. To write into the act the qualifying words, therefore, would be but adding to its provisions in order to save it in one aspect, and thereby to destroy it in another; that is, to destroy in order to save and to save in order to destroy.

The principles of construction invoked are undoubted, but are inapplicable. Of course, if it can be lawfully done, our duty is to construe the statute so as to render it constitutional. But this does not imply, if the text of an act is unambiguous, that it may be rewritten to accomplish that purpose. Equally clear is it, generally speaking, that where a statute contains provisions which are constitutional and others which are not, effect may be given to the legal provisions by separating them from the illegal. But this applies only to a case where the provisions are separable and not dependent one upon the other, and does not support the contention that that which is indivisible may be divided. Moreover, even in a case where legal provisions may be severed from those which are illegal, in order to save the rule applies only where it is plain that Congress would have enacted the legislation with the unconstitutional provisions eliminated. All these principles are so clearly settled as not to be open to controversy. They were all, after a full review of the authorities, restated and re-applied in a recent case. (*Illinois Central Railroad v. McKendree*, 203 U. S. 514, and authorities there cited.)

As the act before us by its terms relates to every common carrier engaged in interstate commerce and to any of the employees of every such carrier, thereby regulating every relation of a carrier engaged in interstate commerce with its servants and of such servants among themselves, we are unable to say that the statute would have been enacted had its provisions been restricted to the limited relations of that character which it was within the power of Congress to regulate. On this subject the opinion in the Trade-mark cases, 100 U. S. 82, where an act of Congress concerning trade-marks was held to be unconstitutional, because too broad in its scope, is pertinent and instructive. The court said (p. 99):

"If we should, in the case before us, undertake to make by judicial construction a law which Congress did not make, it is quite probable we should do what, if the matter were now before that body, it would be unwilling to do, namely, make a trade-mark law which is only partial in its operation, and which would complicate the rights which parties would hold, in some instances under the act of Congress, and in others under State law. *Cooley Const. Lim.* 178, 179; *Commonwealth v. Hitchings*, 5 Gray (Mass.) 482."

3. It remains only to consider the contention which we have previously quoted, that the act is constitutional, although it embraces subjects not within the power of Congress to regulate commerce, because one who engages in interstate commerce thereby submits all his business concerns to the regulating power of Congress. To state the prop-

osition is to refute it. It assumes that because one engages in interstate commerce he thereby endows Congress with power not delegated to it by the Constitution, in other words, with the right to legislate concerning matters of purely State concern. It rests upon the conception that the Constitution destroyed that freedom of commerce which it was its purpose to preserve, since it treats the right to engage in interstate commerce as a privilege which can not be availed of except upon such conditions as Congress may prescribe, even although the conditions would be otherwise beyond the power of Congress. It is apparent that if the contention were well founded it would extend the power of Congress to every conceivable subject, however inherently local, would obliterate all the limitations of power imposed by the Constitution, and would destroy the authority of the States as to all conceivable matters which from the beginning have been, and must continue to be, under their control so long as the Constitution endures.

4. Reference was made to the report of a committee submitted to the House of Representatives on the coming in of the bill which finally became the act in question. We content ourselves on this subject with saying that that report, we think, instead of adding force to the argument that the plain terms of the act should be disregarded, tends to the contrary. And the same observation is appropriate to the reference made to the text of the Safety Appliance Act of March 2, 1893, which, it is insisted, furnishes a guide which, if followed, would enable us to disregard the text of the act. We say this because the face of that act clearly refutes the argument based upon it. It is true that the act, like the one we are considering, is addressed to every common carrier engaged in interstate commerce, but this direction is followed by provisions expressly limiting the scope and effect of the act to interstate commerce, which are wholly superfluous if the argument here made concerning the statute before us be sound.

We deem it unnecessary to pass upon the merits of the contentions concerning the alleged repugnancy of the statute, if regarded as otherwise valid, to the due process clause of the Fifth Amendment to the Constitution, because the act classifies together all common carriers. Although we deem it unnecessary to consider that subject, it must not be implied that we question the correctness of previous decisions noted in the margin,^(a) wherein State statutes were held not to be repugnant to the Fourteenth Amendment, although they classified steam railroads in one class for the purpose of applying a rule of master and servant. We further deem it unnecessary to express an opinion concerning the alleged repugnancy of the statute to the Seventh Amendment, because of the provision of the act as to the power of the jury. In saying this, however, we must not be considered as intimating that we think the provision in question is susceptible of the construction placed on it in argument, or that if it could be so construed it would be constitutional.

Concluding, as we do, that the statute, whilst it embraces subjects within the authority of Congress to regulate commerce, also includes subjects not within its constitutional power, and that the two are so interblended in the statute that they are incapable of separation, we

^a *Missouri Pacific Ry. Co. v. Mackey*, 127 U. S. 205; *Minneapolis, etc., Ry. Co. v. Herrick*, 127 *Ib.* 210; *Chicago, etc., R. R. v. Pontius*, 157 *Ib.* 268.

are of the opinion that the courts below rightly held the statute to be repugnant to the Constitution and nonenforceable; and the judgments below are, therefore, affirmed.

Mr. Justice Day concurs in this opinion.

Mr. Justice Peckham concurring.

I concur in the result of the foregoing opinion, but I am not prepared to agree with all that is stated as to the power of Congress to legislate upon the subject of the relations between master and servant.

I concur in the proposition, that as to traffic or other matters within the State, the act is unconstitutional, and it can not be separated from that part which is claimed to be valid as relating to interstate commerce. As that is all that is necessary to decide in this case, I place my concurrence upon that part of the opinion which decides it.

I am authorized to state that the Chief Justice and Mr. Justice Brewer agree in this view.

Mr. Justice Moody dissenting.

I am unable to agree in the judgment of the Court. Under ordinary circumstances, where the judgment rests exclusively, as it does here, upon a mere interpretation of the words of a law, which may be readily changed by the lawmaking branches of the Government, if they be so minded, a difference of opinion may well be left without expression. But where the judgment is a judicial condemnation of an act of a coordinate branch of our Government it is so grave a step that no member of the Court can escape his own responsibility, or be justified in suppressing his own views, if unhappily they have not found expression in those of his associates. Moved by this consideration, and solicitous to maintain what seems to me the lawful powers of the nation, I have no doubt of my duty to disclose fully the opinions which, to my regret, differ in some respects from those of some of my brethren.

The only question which these cases presents is the constitutionality of the Employers' Liability Act, which, briefly stated, provides a remedy for the injury or death of the employees of territorial, interstate and foreign common carriers, caused by the negligence of the carrier. The defendants were both interstate carriers, and these actions were brought to recover for the deaths of their employees who, at the time, were engaged in interstate transportation. The judgment of the Court does not deny that it is within the power of the Congress to provide a remedy for the injury or death of employees engaged in the conduct of territorial, interstate and foreign commerce. It rests upon the ground that this statute is unconstitutional, because it seeks to do more than that, and regulates the liability of employers while engaged in interstate commerce or in manufacture. At the threshold I may say that I agree that the Congress has not the power directly to regulate the purely internal commerce of the States, and that I understand that to be the opinion of every member of the Court.

The constitutionality of the act was attacked in the arguments upon three grounds. First, because it seeks to control by laws so inseparable that they are incapable of resolution into several parts, not only the territorial, foreign and interstate commerce of carriers, but also their intrastate business, within the jurisdiction reserved for the government of the States. Second, because the act should be interpreted as not intruding upon the States by lawfully regulating commerce exclusively in interstate and foreign commerce, but legislation fixing the obligation of employers and employees for injuries suffered by the latter in interstate commerce, which any power conferred by the Constitution forbids, even if the act is concerned with a subject within the power of Congress, yet the specific provisions of the common law rules governing the relations of employers and employees exceed the legislative power or violate the constitutional prohibitions which restrict that power. Third, because that the act is not open to any of the constitutional objections against it, and shall consider all of the objections which I have stated them.

The scope of the statute for the purpose of whether it seeks to control that part of commerce which is within the power of Congress and subject only to the government of the States, it is to be observed that the opening words of Congress declare the limitation of its authority and of the distinction between commerce among the States and with foreign nations on the one hand and commerce within the States on the other. The command of the law are addressed only to "commerce engaged in trade and commerce" in the territories, with foreign nations and among the States, and with respect to carriers of commerce within the States the law is impressively silent. The enumeration of the parts of commerce which are within the control of Congress is equivalent to an exclusion of those which are not within its control. In the careful selection of the words of the law the legislators may well have had in mind the views of Chief Justice Marshall which have received the approval of the Court. [See quotation above, p. 100.] With the enumeration of territorial, interstate, and foreign commerce and the omission of the internal commerce of the State, is it to be inferred that the commerce which is exclusively internal to the State and which does not affect any other character of commerce, was intended to be outside the purview of the law? Does not a proper construction of the act of Congress, and the strong presumption that it was intended to regulate commerce, as frequently declared by this Court, require that when the kinds of commerce within its jurisdiction are carefully enumerated all the words of the law, which are not to be referred solely to that commerce and no

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are separated by a clear line of division, so that one if exclusively in interstate and foreign commerce, were engaged exclusively in commerce within the State, of course, occur to any mind that this act had State carriers. But there is no such

hard and fast line of division. Carriers often, and where they are railroads, usually are, as a matter of fact, engaged both in interstate and foreign commerce over which Congress has the control, and intrastate commerce over which the States have the control. Applying the law under consideration to the conditions as they actually exist, it is said that its words are so general and sweeping as to comprehend within its benefits not only the employees of the interstate carrier engaged in the business of interstate carriage, but also the employees of the same carrier engaged in the business of intrastate carriage which it may and usually does conduct. Counsel illustrated their argument by suggesting that if a carrier doing an interstate business on the Pacific slope also conducted a local trolley line wholly along the Atlantic seaboard within a single State, an employee on the local trolley line would, by the terms of this act, be entitled to its benefits. If such be the necessary interpretation of the statute plainly it exceeds the power of Congress, for Congress certainly has no right to regulate the purely internal commerce of a State. Nor can the statute be saved by rejecting that part of it which is unconstitutional because its provisions are single and incapable of separation. The vicious part, if such exist, is so intermingled with that which is good that it can not be eliminated without destroying the whole structure.

Which interpretation, then, should be adopted? That which regards the law as prescribing the liability of the carrier only to those employees who are engaged in the work of interstate and foreign commerce, or that which extends the benefits of the law also to those employees engaged in work which has no relation whatever to such commerce. In answering this question it must not be forgotten that, if the latter interpretation be adopted, in the opinion of the whole Court the act is beyond the constitutional power of Congress. That is a consideration of vast importance, because the Court has never exercised the mighty power of declaring the acts of a coordinate branch of the Government void except where there is no possible and sensible construction of the act which is consistent with the fundamental organic law. The presumption that other branches of the Government will restrain themselves within the scope of their authority, and the respect which is due to them and their acts, admits of no other attitude from this Court. This is more than a canon of interpretation, it is a rule of conduct resting upon considerations of public policy, and, in the exercise of the delicate function of condemning the acts of coordinate and equal branches of the Government, under the same obligation to respect the Constitution as ourselves, has been observed from the beginning.

Judge Moody cited a number of cases in support of the rule, and continuing, said:

There is no doubt that the rule exists, there is no doubt that it is wise, and promotes the mutual respect between the different branches of the Government which is so essential to the welfare of all, and that it requires us, if it is within our power, to give to the words of the statute before us a meaning which will confine its provisions to subjects within the control of Congress. If two interpretations are possible our plain duty is to adopt that which sustains the statute as a lawful exercise of authority and not that which condemns it as a usurpation.

The argument which supports a construction of the statute which would include within its provisions intrastate commerce is readily stated. It is said that "every common carrier" engaged in territorial, foreign, or interstate trade is made "liable to any of its employees * * * for all damages which may result from the negligence of any of its officers, agents, or employees, or by reason of any defect" in its instrumentalities, and that, as there is no qualification of or exception to the generality of the language descriptive of the employees or instrumentalities, it must be deemed to include those engaged and used solely in intrastate commerce, and even in manufacture, as well as those engaged and used in other commerce. But I venture to think that this argument rests upon too narrow ground. It contemplates merely the words of the statute; it shuts out the light which the Constitution sheds upon them; it overlooks the significance of the enumeration of the kinds of commerce clearly within the national control and the omission of the commerce beyond that control—an enumeration and omission which characterizes, colors, and restrains every word of the statute—and it neglects the presumptions in favor of the validity of the law and of the obedience of Congress to the commands of the Constitution, which can not with propriety be disregarded by this Court. Taking into account these missing aids to construction, it becomes quite easy, quite reasonable, and, in my opinion, quite necessary, to construe the act as conferring its benefits only upon employees engaged in some fashion in the commerce which is enumerated in it and is undoubtedly under the control of Congress. Even without these guides for discovering the intent of Congress, which the uniform practice of the Court compels us to use, it is natural to suppose that, when territorial, interstate, and foreign carriers only are mentioned and every such carrier is declared to be liable "to any of its employees," only its employees in such commerce are intended. With those guides the conclusion appears to me irresistible, for they show that if the words, "any of its employees," in the context where they are used, are capable of meaning all of the employees upon any kind of work, yet their generality should be restrained so as to include only those who are subject to the power of the lawmaking body. The case of *McCullough v. Virginia*, 172 U. S. 102, is precisely in point here. An act of the general assembly of the State of Virginia provided for refunding the State debt by the issue of coupon bonds for two-thirds of the total amount of that debt. It was enacted that the coupons should "be receivable at and after maturity for all taxes, debts, dues, and demands due the State." There was at the time of the passage of the refunding act a provision of the constitution of Virginia requiring all school taxes to be paid in cash, and it had been held by this Court that the constitutional provision disabled the Virginia legislature from providing that the coupons should be receivable for such taxes. *McGahey v. Virginia*, 135 U. S. 662. The argument was then made that as the statute providing for the receivability of the coupons for "all taxes, debts, dues, and demands on the State" was in part beyond the constitutional power of the legislature, the contract evidenced by that statute was entirely void. The Court, speaking by Mr. Justice Brewer, answered this argument by saying, *p. 112*: "*It ignores the difference between the statute and the contract, and confuses the two entirely distinct matters of construction and*

validity. The statute precedes the contract. Its scope and meaning must be determined before any question will arise as to the validity of the contract which it authorizes. It is elementary law that every statute is to be read in the light of the Constitution. However broad and general its language, it can not be interpreted as extending beyond those matters which it was within the constitutional power of the legislature to reach. It is the same rule which obtains in the interpretation of any private contract between individuals. That, whatever may be its words, is always to be construed in the light of the statute; of the law then in force; of the circumstances and conditions of parties. So, although general language was introduced into the statute of 1871, it is not to be read as reaching to matters in respect to which the legislature had no constitutional power, but only as to those matters within its control. And if there were, as it seems there were, certain special taxes and dues which under the existing provisions of the State constitution could not be affected by legislative action, the statute is to be read as though it in terms excluded them from its operation." The language quoted was not obiter. The case turned upon the construction of the statute and reversed the construction by the highest court of the State of its own statute, as well as its judgment, that the statute thus construed was inconsistent with the State constitution, because "all taxes" included taxes beyond the power of the legislature. I am unable to reconcile the judgment in that case with the conclusion which is reached by the Court in this. The reasoning which, in that case, led the Court to construe a statute providing that the coupons should be receivable for "all taxes" to mean only for such taxes as the legislature had the constitutional power to declare payable in such a manner, is equally potent to lead the Court, in the case at bar, to construe a statute providing for the liability of the interstate and foreign carrier to "any of its employees" to mean only to any of its employees for whom Congress has the constitutional power to make such a provision. In that case there were taxes within the legislative control, and taxes without the legislative control of the Virginia assembly; in this case there are employees within the legislative control and employees without the legislative control of Congress; in that case the statute provided for "all taxes;" in this case the statute provides for "any employees;" in that case, examining the statute "in the light of the Constitution," this Court declared that "however broad and general its language, it can not be interpreted as extending beyond those matters which it is within the constitutional power of the legislature to reach," and if it appears that there were taxes beyond the control of the legislature, that the statute should be read "as though it in terms excluded them from its operation;" I am unable to imagine any reason why, examining the statute in this case with the aid of the same light, the Court should not make the same declaration of its meaning. Moreover, it should be remembered that a circumstance leading in the same direction is present in the case at bar which was absent in that case, for, to repeat what has already been said, here the general words are used in a context which suggests, if it does not require, the less extended meaning.

It should be observed that the McCullough case was simply a case of construction. The Court made no judicial amendment of the

statute or exception from its provisions of any subject which came within them according to their proper meaning, ascertained with the aid of the light of the constitutional limits of the legislative power. Mr. Justice Brewer pointed out the distinction between the construction of the statute and its validity, saying: "The statute precedes the contract. Its scope and meaning must be determined before any question will arise as to the validity of the contract which it authorizes." Thus the case is distinguished from some others, much relied upon in the argument, which establish the proposition, that a single statutory provision is void if it is expressed in general words so used as to manifest clearly the intention to include within those words subjects beyond the constitutional power of the lawmaking body. The courts have no power to read into such a provision an exception for the purpose of saving that which is left from condemnation. A law which can not endure the test of the Constitution without judicial amendment must perish. [Cases cited.] But the rule derived from these cases is by no means decisive of the inquiry whether this statute must be construed as seeking to accomplish objects beyond the power of Congress. It can be made decisive only by begging the very question to be determined, and, in the words of Mr. Justice Brewer, confusing "the two entirely distinct matters of construction and validity."

* * * * *

The natural meaning of the words of the statute considered together, each word receiving significance from those with which it is allied, the respect which is due to Congress, the belief which I hold that it would not intentionally overstep the clearly defined limits of its authority, and the principles of construction heretofore acted upon by this Court, lead my mind to the settled conviction that the statute can be interpreted, and ought to be interpreted, as affording the remedy therein prescribed only to the employees of foreign, interstate, and territorial carriers, who are themselves engaged in some capacity in such commerce in some of its manifold aspects. If this meaning be attributed to the words of the law, it is apparent that in the opinion of a majority of the Court the law, in its main features at least, would be constitutional.

Entertaining these views of the meaning of the statute, I am compelled [to] go further and consider the other objections to it. I agree entirely with all that was said in the opinion of Mr. Justice White in support of the power of the Congress to enact a law of this general character, but, as I think that the judgments in these cases ought to be reversed, I can not escape dealing with specific objections to the statute which he has not deemed it necessary to discuss. I think it better, therefore, to deal with all the questions that are necessarily raised in these cases.

I come now to the question whether the statute, thus construed, is in the execution of any power conferred by the Constitution upon the Congress. It is apparent that there is no such power unless it be found in that clause of the Constitution which authorizes Congress "to regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several States and with the Indian tribes." * * *

The different kinds of commerce described have the common qualities that they are more extensive than the jurisdiction of a single

State and liable to injury from conflicting State laws, and thereby are all alike distinguished from the purely internal commerce of the States. There is nothing in the words of the grant that permits the belief that the power is not coextensive over foreign, interstate, and Indian trade, or is anything less than the whole power which any government may properly exercise over either, though it may well be that the restrictive parts of the Constitution, its prohibitions and reservations, may operate differently on different kinds of commerce, or even on different aspects of the same kind of commerce.

It is said that Congress has never before enacted legislation of this nature for the government of interstate commerce on land, though it has for the government of such commerce upon the water and for the government of foreign commerce; that on the contrary the relations affected have been controlled by the undoubted power of the States to govern men and things within their respective dominions; and that this omission of Congress is of controlling significance. The fundamental fallacy of this argument is that it misunderstands the nature of the Constitution, undervalues its usefulness, and forgets that its unchanging provisions are adaptable to the infinite variety of the changing conditions of our national life. Surely there is no statute of limitations which bars Congress from the exercise of any of its granted powers, nor any authority, save that of the people whom it represents, which may with propriety challenge the wisdom of its choice of the time when remedies shall first be applied to what it deems wrong. It can not be doubted that the exercise of a power for the first time may be called upon to justify itself. The fact that it is for the first time is a circumstance to be considered. But in this case it is a circumstance whose significance disappears in the light of history. * * *

It was not reasonably to be expected that a phenomenon so contrary to the experience of mankind, so vast, so rapidly developing and changing, as the growth of land commerce among the States, would speedily be appreciated in all its aspects, or would at once call forth the exercise of all the unused power vested in Congress by the commerce clause of the Constitution. Such a phenomenon demands study and experience. The habit of our people, accentuated by our system of representative government, is not so much in legislation to anticipate problems as it is to deal with them after experience has shown them to exist. So Congress has exercised its power sparingly, step by step, and has acted only when experience seemed to it to require action. A description of its action in this respect was given *In re Debs*, 158 U. S. 504 [1895] * * *

Since this decision other laws more fully regulating interstate commerce on land have been enacted, which need not here be stated. They show a constantly increasing tendency to exercise more fully and vigorously the power conferred by the commerce clause. It is well to notice, however, that Congress has assumed the duty of promoting the safety of public travel by enacting the safety-appliance law; an act to require reports of casualties to employees or passengers (31 Stat. 1446); a resolution directing the Interstate Commerce Commission to investigate and report on the necessity for block signals (34 Stat. 838); an act limiting the hours of service of employees, and the act *under consideration*. These acts, all relating to interstate

transportation, demonstrate the belief of Congress that the safety of interstate travel is a matter of national concern, and its deliberate purpose to increase that safety by laws which it deems conducive to that end. I think, therefore, that we may consider whether this act finds authority in the commerce clause of the Constitution without embarrassment from any inferences which may be drawn from the inaction of Congress.

It is settled beyond the necessity of citing cases that the transportation of persons and property is commerce, in other words, that the business of carriers is commerce. Where, therefore, the business is foreign or interstate, Congress, it has frequently been decided, has the paramount, if not the sole, power to legislate for its direct control. An obstruction of such commerce by unlawful violence may be made punishable under the laws of the United States, suppressed by the armies of the United States, or, at the instance of the United States, enjoined in its courts. (In re Debs, ubi sup.) It is difficult to conceive how legislation may effectively control the business if it can not regulate the conduct of those engaged in the business, while engaged in the business, in every act which is performed in the conduct of the business. The business of transportation is not an abstraction. It is the labor of men employed with the aid of instrumentalities, animal and mechanical, in carrying men and things from place to place. In every form of transportation, from the simplest to the most complex, whether the man carries the burden on his back, or drives an animal which carries it, or a locomotive which draws a car which carries it, the one and only constant factor is the labor of mankind. I am quite unable to understand the contention made at the bar that the power of Congress is to regulate commerce among the States and not to regulate persons engaged in commerce among the States, for in the case of transportation at least the labor of those engaged in it is commerce itself. How poor and meager the power would be if, whenever it was exercised, the legislator must pause to consider whether the action proposed regulated commerce or merely regulated the conduct of persons engaged in commerce. The contention derives some plausibility from its vagueness. Of course the power to regulate commerce does not authorize Congress to control the general conduct of persons engaged therein, but, unless it is an idle and useless power, it authorizes Congress to control the conduct of persons engaged in commerce in respect to everything which directly concerns commerce, for that is commerce itself. It would seem, therefore, that when persons are employed in interstate or foreign commerce, as the employment is an essential part of that commerce, its terms and conditions, and the rights and duties which grow out of it, are under the control of Congress subject only to the limits on the exercise of that control prescribed in the Constitution. This has been the view always expressed or implied by this Court. In his concurring opinion in *Gibbons v. Ogden*, 9 Wheat. 1, Mr. Justice Johnson said, p. 229, "Commerce, in its simplest signification, means an exchange of goods, but in the advancement of society, labor, transportation, intelligence, care and various mediums of exchange become commodities and enter into commerce; the subject, the vehicle, the agent and their various operations become the objects of commercial regulations." * * *

The case of *Pierce v. Van Dusen*, 78 Fed. 693, was decided by the Court of Appeals of the Sixth Circuit by Mr. Justice Harlan and Judges Taft and Lurton. The opinion was delivered by Mr. Justice Harlan. After sustaining a State statute, which modified the common law rules with respect to the liability for injuries of a carrier to its employees, he said of it: "The Ohio statute is not applicable alone to railroad corporations of Ohio, engaged in the domestic commerce of this State. It is equally applicable to railroad corporations doing business in Ohio, and engaged in commerce among the States, although the statute, in its operation, may affect in some degree a subject over which Congress can exert full power. The States may do many things affecting commerce with foreign nations and among the several States until Congress covers the subject by national legislation. * * * Undoubtedly the whole subject of the liability of interstate railroad companies for the negligence of those in their service may be covered by national legislation enacted by Congress under its power to regulate commerce among the States."

We may not trust implicitly to the accuracy of statements gathered from opinions where the precise question was not for decision. But where, as in these quotations, the statements were an essential part of the course of reasoning deemed appropriate for the disposition of the cases, where the same thought clothed in different words has been expressed at intervals from early times to the present day, and where no decision or judicial utterance has been found in opposition to them, they are entitled to profound respect, and furnish cogent evidence of what the law has always been supposed to be by the members of this Court. They can not be regarded lightly, and if we follow them they lead us to the conclusion that the national power to regulate commerce is broad enough to regulate the employment, duties, obligations, liabilities, and conduct of all persons engaged in commerce with respect to all which is comprehended in that commerce. Upon what principle except this could this Court have twice enforced the safety-appliance act, undisturbed by a doubt of its constitutionality? (*Johnson v. Railroad*, 196 U. S. 1 [Bulletin No. 56, p. 303], *Schlemmer v. Railroad*, 205 U. S. 1 [Bulletin No. 71, p. 385].) That act (27 St. 531) compelled interstate railroads to equip all their trains with power brakes operated from the engine, and all their cars with automatic couplers, grab irons, and hand holds, by enacting that the use of engines and cars not thus equipped should be unlawful. There was no express provision that an employee injured by the failure of a railroad to comply with the law should be entitled to damages, but without doubt the liability of the railroad is implied. The common law rule governing the liability was materially changed by section 8, which abolished in part the doctrine of the assumption of risk, by providing that the employee should "not be deemed to have assumed the risk" of the unlawful conditions, though he knew of them and continued in his employment. This section was enforced in most emphatic matter [manner] in the *Schlemmer* case, where Mr. Justice Holmes said, "An early, if not the earliest, application of the phrase 'assumption of risk' was the establishment of the exception to the liability of a master for the negligence of the servant when the person injured was a fellow-servant of the injured man." If the statute now before us is beyond the constitutional power of Congress, surely the

safety-appliance act is also void, for there can be no distinction in principle between them. If Congress can create a liability to an injured employee for the existence of conditions in certain mechanisms which he uses, by declaring those conditions unlawful, it may create the same liability for negligence of the agents and imperfections in the instruments used in the carrier's work; if it may change the common law rule of the assumption of the risk of imperfect appliances, it may change the rule of the assumption of the risk of a careless fellow-servant. I can conceive of no principle of constitutional law which enables us to say that the commerce clause authorizes Congress to fix upon the carrier a liability for an insufficient brake but not for a defective rail, for the absence of automatic couplers, but not for the negligent order which brings trains into collision, for an insecure grab iron, but not for a heedless switchman. If Congress has the right to control the liability in any way it may control it in every way, subject, as all powers are subject, to the express prohibitions of the Constitution. Unless the cases on the safety-appliance acts are deemed to have been inadvertently decided, they seem to be conclusive of this branch of the case. This seems to have been feared by counsel for one of the defendants, who in his brief said "that the giving of a right of recovery to an injured employee is a proper and necessary method for making effective the safety-appliance act. * * * we do not admit."

But if we put aside the authority of precedents, and examine the nature and extent of the grant to Congress of power over commerce in the light of the settled principles of interpretation fit to be applied to the exposition of a constitution, we shall arrive at the same result. One main purpose and effect of the Constitution was to devise a scheme of efficient government. In order to accomplish this all the powers usually exercised by governments were distributed between the States and the Nation, except those deemed unfit or unsafe to be intrusted to either and withheld from both. In the allotment of powers to the nation they were enumerated rather than defined. In the enumeration words of the largest import were employed, comprehending within their meaning grand divisions of the powers of government. The nature of the Constitution, said Chief Justice Marshall, (*McCulloch v. Maryland*, 9 Wheat., p. 407,) "requires that only its great outlines should be marked, its important objects designated, and the minor ingredients which compose those objects be deduced from the nature of the objects themselves." The wide extent of the powers granted to Congress is expressed in a few simply worded provisions, all of which might be printed on a single page of its book of annual laws. Counsel have argued that the power to regulate commerce does not include the power to regulate the conduct of persons engaged in that commerce in respect of that commerce. This is what Mr. Justice Miller (110 U. S., p. 658) described as "the old argument often heard, often repeated, and in this Court never assented to, that when a question of the power of Congress arises the advocate of the power must be able to place his finger on words which expressly grant it." Suppose that method of reasoning had been applied to the power "to establish post-offices and post-roads," under which Congress governs the postal system of the country as fully and freely in every detail as it is governed by any other nation. It could be said to Congress, you can not carry the mail, you can not issue money

orders, you can not determine what shall be excluded from the mail, you can not regulate the conduct of those who are employed in the mail service, you can not exempt them from militia duty, you can not punish their theft or embezzlement, you can not punish him who breaks and enters the post-office or mail car—all these powers are reserved to the States. You can only establish post-offices and post-roads, and when that is done your power is exhausted. Yet Congress has done all these things and no one now doubts its power to do them, because the grant of power is of the whole governmental power over the subject. So, too, the power to regulate interstate and foreign commerce is the whole power which any government can exercise over that subject, it "is vested in Congress as absolutely as it would be in a single government having in its constitution the same restrictions on the exercise of the power as are found in the Constitution of the United States." Marshall, C. J., in *Gibbons v. Ogden*, ub. sup., p. 197; *The Lottery case*, 188 U. S. 321. We are brought then directly to the inquiry whether a power so extensive is a sufficient warrant for the enactment of the statute before us.

By what has been called the auxiliary power Congress may "make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution" its granted powers. It is settled that this provision authorizes the enactment of laws which, in the exercise of a wide discretion, Congress deems adapted to secure a legitimate end and calculated to effect any of the objects intrusted to it, and the exercise of that discretion, unless it violates some prohibition of the Constitution or is used as a pretext to accomplish some object not intrusted to the National Government, can not be reviewed by the judicial branch of the Government without trespassing upon a domain which is peculiarly and exclusively the province of the legislative branch. If the statute under consideration be brought to the test of these principles there can be no doubt of its validity.

It can not be denied that in that part of commerce which consists in transportation, the safety of those who are concerned in it as passengers or employees is of the first importance. As was said by Mr. Justice Gray, in *Chicago, etc., Railway Co. v. Solan*, 169 U. S. 135, "the fundamental principle on which the law of common carriers was established was the securing of the utmost care and diligence in the performance of their public duties." The Government having the relations which the National Government has to interstate commerce, pronounced by the Court in the *Debs* case to be "those of direct supervision, control, and management," which neglects to do what it is fitting for a government to do to insure the safety of public travel, fails in the performance of its highest duty.

It follows that if Congress, in the exercise of its plenary power over interstate and foreign transportation, deems that the safety of that transportation would be increased by enacting that those employed in it shall have a different remedy for injuries sustained by its negligent conduct than that furnished by the laws of the States, this Court can not, without overstepping the boundary which separates the judicial from the legislative field, declare the enactment void.

The power of Congress to enact the law under consideration, which seems so clearly to result from a just interpretation of the commerce

clause, might not have been disputed but for the fact that up to this time the subject has been left to be dealt with by the States. If a doubt ever existed that the States could lawfully deal with the subject under the general legislative authority to govern their territory, which was undisturbed by the Constitution, that doubt was dispelled by the decision in *Sherlock v. Alling*, ubi sup., and it is now agreed that the State may, in the absence of action by Congress, fix and determine the liability of all carriers while operating within the State, to those whom they employ for the injuries which are suffered in the course of the employment. But such authority in the State is not inconsistent with a like authority in the Nation. Where, as in the case of our dual government, the same territories and the same individuals are subject to two governments, each supreme within its sphere, both governments by virtue of distinct powers may legislate for the same ends. * * *

"If a State," said Chief Justice Marshall (in *Gibbons v. Ogden*, ubi sup., 204), "in passing laws on subjects acknowledged to be within its control, and, with a view to those subjects, shall adopt a measure of the same character with one which Congress may adopt, it does not derive its authority from the particular power which has been granted, but from some other, which remains with the State and may be executed by the same means. All experience shows that the same measure or measures, scarcely indistinguishable from each other, may flow from distinct powers; but this does not prove that the powers themselves are identical." That the States may by their laws fix the relative rights, duties, obligations, and liabilities of all persons or corporations within their territorial jurisdictions, and thus control in that respect those who are engaged in interstate and foreign commerce; that such laws do not proceed from any power to regulate such commerce, though incidentally and indirectly they do regulate it, but are to be referred to their general power over persons and things within their territories, and that all such laws, so far as they affect such commerce, must yield to the superior authority of the laws of Congress, is, I think, conclusively shown by the following cases: *Sherlock v. Alling*, 93 U. S. 99; *Smith v. Alabama*, 124 U. S. 465; [etc.].

There remains to be considered the objection that the specific provisions of the act exceed the legislative power over the subject. * * * The only limit upon the authority of Congress relevant to the discussion of this branch of the case is that which forbids Congress from depriving any person of his life, liberty, or property without due process of law. Amendment 6. It is contended that, although the law deals with a subject under the control of Congress, it deals with it in such a manner as to violate that prohibition, and is therefore void. Before considering the contention it is desirable to state clearly the substantial provisions of the act. The remedy afforded by it is more generous to the employee than that given by the common law in several respects. The common law recognized no recovery of damages for death resulting from negligence; by the statute damages are recoverable for death as well as for injury. The common law allowed no recovery against the employer for the neglect of a fellow-servant engaged in a common employment; by the statute the employer is held responsible for the negligence of any of its officers, agents, or employees, even though the guilty person is a fellow-servant of him

who is injured or killed. The common law denied to one who by his negligence had contributed to his own injury the right to a remedy for the neglect of another which had been a concurring cause; by the statute the negligent sufferer may recover if his negligence be slight, and that of the employer gross in comparison, though the contributing negligence must be taken into account in reduction of the damages. The common law, as adjudged by this Court, permitted the employee to enter into a contract renouncing his right to damages in case he incurred injuries in the course of his employment; the statute forbids such a contract. Thus four doctrines of the common law restrictive of the employees' rights are supplanted by others more favorable to him.

There can be no doubt of the right of a legislative body, having jurisdiction over the subject, to modify the first three of these rules of the common law in the manner in which this act of Congress does it. They are simply rules of law, unprotected by the Constitution from change, and like all other such rules must yield to the superior authority of a statute. They have so generally been modified by statute that it may well be doubted if they exist in their integrity in any jurisdiction. * * * Whenever the legislative power to change any of these rules of the common law has been drawn in question in this Court it has been sustained. * * *

But it is earnestly urged upon us that the statute under consideration, applying to all interstate common carriers and all their employees in that business, without distinguishing between that part of the business and employment which is dangerous and hazardous and that part which is not, and confined solely to the business of common carriage and its employers, is a deprivation of the employer's property without due process of law, in violation of the fifth amendment of the Constitution. The manner in which due process of law is said to be denied is by the denial of the equal protection of the laws by imposing unusual burdens upon a class of persons arbitrarily and capriciously selected. In support of this position cases from State courts interpreting State constitutions and cases from this Court interpreting the restriction upon State action imposed by the fourteenth amendment, are indiscriminately cited. They furnish little aid.

It is not necessary in this case to determine how far, if at all, the requirement from the States of the equal protection of the laws made by the fourteenth amendment is included in the requirement from the Nation of due process of law made by the fifth amendment to the Constitution. It is enough to say that this statute complies with both. It is rather startling to hear that in enacting laws applicable to common carriers alone Congress has made a capricious and arbitrary classification. From time immemorial the common law has set apart those engaged in that business as a peculiar class, to be governed in many respects by laws peculiar to themselves. In separating carriers from those engaged in other interstate and foreign commerce, Congress has but followed the ancient classification of the common law, based upon reasons so obvious that they need no statement. Whether the law should be made to apply to all carriers or to carriers by railroad alone, or whether the employees should be classified according to the *degree of danger which surrounds their employment*, is a matter

of legislative discretion with which we have no right to meddle. (See *Union Pacific Railway Co. v. Mackey*, *ub. sup.*)

I have confined my observations up to this point to the first three changes in the common law made by the statute. The fourth change, that forbidding the employee to make a contract releasing his employer from the consequences of his negligence, is open to a possible objection not common to the others. It is asserted that this part of the act violates the right of free contract which in some cases this Court has protected against the exercise of the legislative power. Without intimating any opinion on that subject, it is enough to say that that part of the statute is separable from and independent of the remainder, and may stand or fall by itself, and that no question concerning it is raised in these cases. I see nothing in the provision that "all questions of negligence or contributory negligence shall be for the jury" which affects the right of jury trial guaranteed by the seventh amendment. Such questions always have been for the jury, and I can not see that this enactment makes any change whatever.

I am of opinion, therefore, that the act should be sustained as a legitimate exercise of the authority of Congress, and that orders in these cases should be made accordingly.

Mr. Justice Harlan, (with whom concurred Mr. Justice McKenna,) dissenting.

Mr. Justice McKenna and myself are of opinion that it was within the power of Congress to prescribe, as between an interstate commerce carrier and its employees, the rule of liability established by the act of June 11, 1906. But we do not concur in the interpretation of that act as given in the opinion delivered by Mr. Justice White, but think that the act, reasonably and properly interpreted, applies, and should be interpreted as intended by Congress to apply, only to cases of interstate commerce and to employees who, at the time of the particular wrong or injury complained of, are engaged in such commerce, and not to domestic commerce or commerce completely internal to the State in which the wrong or injury occurred. We concur in the views expressed by Mr. Justice Moody as to the scope and interpretation of the act. We think the act is constitutional, and, therefore, that the judgment should be reversed.

Mr. Justice Holmes dissenting.

I must admit that I think there are strong reasons in favor of the interpretation of the statute adopted by a majority of the Court. But, as it is possible to read the words in such a way as to save the constitutionality of the act, I think they should be taken in that narrower sense. The phrase "every common carrier engaged in trade or commerce" may be construed to mean "while engaged in trade or commerce" without violence to the habits of English speech, and to govern all that follows. The statute then will regulate all common carriers while so engaged in the District of Columbia or in any Terri-

tory, thus covering the whole ground as to them; and it will regulate carriers elsewhere while engaged in commerce between the States, etc., thus limiting its scope where it is necessary to limit it. So construed I think the act valid in its main features under the Constitution of the United States. In view of the circumstances I do not discuss details.

EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN—AGE LIMIT—DANGEROUS EMPLOYMENTS—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—EFFECT ON EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—*Lenahan v. Pittston Coal Mining Company, Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, 67 Atlantic Reporter, page 642.*—Margaret Lenahan sued in the court of common pleas of Luzerne County to recover damages for injuries received by a lad, Munley, aged 14 years and 4 months, employed, as alleged, as an oiler in a mine, in violation of law. The case was thrown out on a nonsuit, and on refusal to remove the same an appeal was taken to the supreme court of the State, which directed that the case be heard. The action was based on the statute which forbids the employment of children under 15 years of age as oilers in mines, and the ruling of the court turned on the validity and effect of this statute.

From the opinion of the court, which was delivered by Judge Elkin, and which upheld the statute, the following is quoted:

When this case again comes up for trial in the court below, much will depend upon the exact duties which the boy, Munley, was required to perform by the appellee company. If it was a part of his duties to oil the "scraper line," as is the contention of appellant, the negligence of the appellee would be established. If, on the other hand, as is asserted by appellee, it was no part of his duty to oil the "scraper line," the rule relied on by the court below would control the case.

At the trial the learned court below directed a compulsory nonsuit to be entered, which, on motion made, he refused to take off on the ground that the boy was guilty of contributory negligence in attempting to oil dangerous parts of the machinery while in motion, which was in violation of the statute, and therefore negligent. This would be the correct rule if the injured boy had the right under the law to engage in the employment which occasioned the injury. The learned trial judge took the view that the boy, being over 14 years of age, was presumed under the common-law rule to have sufficient capacity to be sensible of danger and to have the power to avoid it, and that such presumption had not been overcome by the evidence produced at the trial. The exact question raised by this appeal is whether this common-law rule was modified or changed by the statutory regulation. The injured boy was under 15 years of age, and, if the appellee company employed him for the purpose of oiling machinery, it did so in violation of the statute. Is it, therefore, in position to set up in this case the rule which presumes a boy over 14 to be capable of appreciating danger so as to apply the rule of contributory negligence to his acts, when the legislature in express terms provided that an employer shall not engage a person under the age of 15 years to perform

this dangerous work? After full consideration we are unanimously of the opinion that the legislature, under its police power, could fix an age limit below which boys should not be employed, and, when the age limit was so fixed, an employer who violates the act by engaging a boy under the statutory age does so at his own risk, and if the boy is injured while engaged in the performance of the prohibited duties for which he was employed, his employer will be liable in damages for injuries thus sustained. This rule is founded on the principle that when the legislature definitely established an age limit under which children should not be employed, as it had the power to do, the intention was to declare that a child so employed did not have the mature judgment, experience, and discretion necessary to engage in that dangerous kind of work. A boy employed in violation of the statute is not chargeable with contributory negligence or with having assumed the risks of employment in such occupation.

INJUNCTION—MODE OF MODIFICATION—VIOLATION—CONTEMPT—APPEAL—*Vilter Manufacturing Company v. Humphrey, Supreme Court of Wisconsin, 112 Northwestern Reporter, page 1095.*—The manufacturing company named had secured an injunction against an iron molders' union and certain individuals to prevent interference with the business of the company. It was charged that the union and other defendants had conspired to compel the company to grant demands as to piecework, the employment of nonunion men and apprentices, weekly payment of wages, etc. A strike had been instituted, and it was stated that picketing, persuasion, threats, and other means were used to compel the company to assent. The injunction restrained the defendants, among other things, "from interfering in any way with the plaintiff's business or property, from compelling, or attempting to compel, by threats or intimidation, fraud, persuasion, or violence, any of the plaintiff's employees from leaving its employ, or any other person from entering its employ, from congregating about the plaintiff's shop or picketing or guarding the streets for such purpose, from assaulting employees, or going to their homes to intimidate or coerce them, from persuading or inducing any person to join said conspiracy, and from doing any act tending or intended to compel the plaintiff against its will or the will of its officers to operate its factory or employ or discharge any workmen in any manner or upon any terms prescribed by any association or union, or to refrain against its will or the will of its officers from operating its said factory in any lawful manner."

The defendant, Humphrey, knew of the injunction, but engaged in such conduct as led to a charge of violation, and affidavits were made on which was based an order to show cause why he should not be punished for contempt. These affidavits set forth acts of abuse and violence, picketing and intimidation in furtherance of the alleged con-

spiracy, and in violation of the injunction. On hearing, however, the circuit court of Milwaukee County denied the motion to punish, holding that, on the evidence, no act of violation had been committed. From this the company appealed, and the order was reversed and the defendant was fined and assessed the costs of the proceedings.

The grounds of this reversal and a discussion of certain collateral questions are set forth in the appended opinion of Judge Winslow, who spoke for the supreme court:

It is very plain, by the terms of the order to show cause, that this is a proceeding seeking to punish a party to an action, under subdivision 3, sec. 3477, St. 1898, for disobedience of a lawful order of the court. Such a proceeding is brought for the primary purpose of protecting the rights of the opposite party, and is a civil proceeding. Where it is desired to punish an act as a criminal contempt, the proceeding should be brought in the name of the State, under section 2565 et seq., St. 1898. This was clearly pointed out in *Emerson v. Huss*, 127 Wis. 215, 106 N. W. 518. The latter proceeding is primarily for the purpose of vindicating the dignity of the court and enforcing respect for its authority. There are doubtless some acts which are civil as well as criminal contempts. The willful disobedience of an order of the court by a party to the action would seem to be such an act if the rights or remedies of the opposing party are injured or prejudiced thereby. (See subdivision 3, section 2565, and subdivision 3, section 3477, St. 1898.) In such case the form in which the proceeding is brought will necessarily determine its character. If the proceeding is brought and prosecuted in the name of the State, it should be held to be a criminal proceeding, under section 2565, supra. If, however, as in the present case, it be entitled in the civil action in which the alleged violated order was made and charges injury to the rights or remedies of the opposing party by reason of the violation, it is plainly a civil proceeding, under section 3477, supra, brought primarily in the interest of the aggrieved party. The proceeding before us was therefore a civil proceeding, and hence an appeal lies from the final order.

The appeal, however, brings before us only the question of fact, namely, whether it was proven that the respondent violated the injunctive order. We are not concerned with the much-debated question whether there may lawfully be peaceful picketing to carry out the purposes of a strike. The injunctive order in question was very broad and sweeping in its terms, and not only prohibited all picketing which should intimidate or obstruct plaintiff's employees, but also prohibited the doing of any act tending or intended to compel the plaintiff to operate its factory or employ or discharge workmen in the manner or upon the terms demanded by the union. The order in question may have been too broad, but it was within the jurisdiction of the commissioner, and, if erroneous, the remedy was by motion to modify its terms, not by disregarding them. The orders of a court having jurisdiction must be obeyed. If they can with impunity be disregarded, they should never be made. A court which makes such orders can give no good reason for its existence. It should be abolished. *It is not a court in any true sense of the term.*

The question whether the respondent disobeyed this sweeping injunctive order is not open to doubt under the respondent's own evidence. It is true that he denies that he at any time interfered with plaintiff's employees, or called them names, or endeavored to dissuade them from working for the plaintiff or to coerce them; but he admits that he continuously picketed the plaintiff's premises with other strikers from the time of the making of the injunctive order until the commencement of the contempt proceedings, and that this was done in pursuance of the strike, in furtherance of its purposes, and under the direction of the strike leaders. He further testified as follows: "A strike is carried on by me and those associated with me to compel the employers to take us and those associated with us back on the terms proposed by our committee, and that is what I have been working for right along, and every act I have done has been for that purpose. I understand every act done by the other members of the union and the strikers is done for that purpose. Q. And you understand, do you not, that, if you and those associated with you can prevent handy men and your union from going to work in the foundry, you win the strike, don't you? A. Yes, sir; that is what all of us were trying to do. All of us were engaged in that, and whatever any of us did, as far as I know, was done toward the accomplishment of that end." Here is a distinct and unmistakable admission that the picketing which he did was intended to compel the plaintiff to accede to the demands of the union and conduct its business in the manner which the union prescribed. This was precisely what the injunctive order commanded him not to do in practically so many words. Whether the order was not too sweeping in its terms we do not decide. The question is not before us. While it stood it was respondent's duty to obey it. If he thought it too broad he should have moved to modify it.

The fact of the respondent's violation of the injunctive order being undisputedly shown by his own evidence, it is evident that the court's finding that he had not violated the order is erroneous. We construe this finding to mean that the court believed the respondent's testimony to the effect that he had committed no act of violence or abuse, but had simply done peaceful picketing. We are unable to say that this conclusion is against the clear preponderance of the evidence, and hence we accept it as a fact. No actual money loss was shown as the result of the respondent's acts. Hence no indemnification should have been adjudged, but simply a fine under section 3490, St. 1898. In view of the conclusion of the trial court as to overt acts of violence or abuse, we think the fine should not be large, but should be fixed at what may be called practically a nominal sum, i. e., \$10, together with the costs and expenses of the proceedings.

Order reversed, and proceeding remanded, with directions to enter an order adjudging the defendant guilty of contempt and imposing a fine in accordance with the statute and as in this opinion indicated.

PAYMENT OF WAGES—MONTHLY PAY DAY—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—*Toledo, St. Louis & Western Railroad Company v. Long*, Supreme Court of Indiana, 82 *Northeastern Reporter*, page 757.—THIS

case was before the supreme court of Indiana on appeal from the circuit court of Clinton County, in which Charles Long had secured judgment for wages, penalties, and attorney's fees against the railroad company. The action was based on sections 7056 and 7057, Burns' An. Stat. 1901, which provide that companies, corporations, and associations doing business in the State must pay the wages due their employees engaged in manual or mechanical labor at least once a month. The company's contention that these sections are violative of the Federal Constitution was upheld by the supreme court, and the judgment of the lower court reversed. The reasons therefor appear in the following extract from the opinion of the court, which was delivered by Judge Monks:

It will be observed that said sections, so far as they affect employers, only apply to "every company, corporation or association," and, so far as their employees are concerned, only apply to those "engaged in manual or mechanical labor for every company, corporation or association," but deny the right to such of their employees as are not "engaged in manual or mechanical labor." Employees of an individual, although engaged in manual or mechanical labor for such individual, are excluded from the benefit of said sections of the statute. They give the right to recover penalties and attorney's fees to a certain class of employees of companies, corporations, and associations, but deny such right to the same class of employees of an individual engaged in the same business under the same conditions. They impose new burdens on "every company, corporation and association" doing business in the State, while an individual engaged in like business under like circumstances and conditions is left without any such burden. This brings said sections within the rule declared in *Bedford Quarries Co. v. Bough* (168 Ind. —, 80 N. E. 529), and the cases there cited, and upon the authority of said case we hold that they are unconstitutional.

SUNDAY LABOR—BARBERS—VOLUNTARY SERVICE—*McCain v. State*, *Court of Appeals of Georgia*, 58 *Southeastern Reporter*, page 550.—Slaughter McCain was convicted of violating the Sunday law of Georgia and appealed. McCain was a barber, working in a shop during the week, but on Sundays he occupied a room at a clubhouse, where he shaved such members as requested his services, no compulsory charge being made, though the members paid twenty-five cents a shave. The court held that the law (Pen. Code 1895, sec. 422), making the pursuit of business or engagement in one's ordinary calling, "on the Lord's Day, works of necessity or charity only excepted," a misdemeanor, had been violated.

The conclusions of law are presented in the following syllabus, which was prepared by the court:

1. A barber who pursues the work of his ordinary calling on the Lord's Day by shaving the members of a club at a room in the club-

house, and receives compensation therefor, violates Pen. Code 1895, sec. 422.

2. The criminal character of such act is not affected by the fact that the compensation for said work is not compulsory, but voluntary; nor by the fact that the work is confined to members of the club.

3. The courts will judicially recognize that shaving by a barber is not a work of necessity permitted by the statute to be done on the Sabbath Day.

4. The verdict having been demanded by the undisputed evidence, the errors of law complained of were immaterial and harmless.

DECISIONS UNDER COMMON LAW.

BOYCOTT—CONSPIRACY—INJUNCTION—*Shine et al. v. Fox Brothers Manufacturing Company, United States Circuit Court of Appeals, Eighth Circuit, 156 Federal Reporter, page 357.*—This case was before the circuit court of appeals on appeal from the circuit court for the eastern district of Missouri, in which an injunction had been granted restraining one Shine and others, members of a labor organization, from interfering with the business of the company. The representatives of the union appealed, with the result that the order of the circuit court was affirmed.

The facts appear in the opinion, which was delivered by Judge Hook, and which is in the main as follows:

The action of the trial court was in view of the following facts: The complainant, the manufacturing company, is engaged in the manufacture of sash, doors, blinds, and other articles used in the construction of buildings. Its factory is located in St. Louis, Mo., and is what is known as an "open shop;" that is to say, the complainant did not discriminate between union and nonunion labor, but left that matter to the voluntary choice of its employees. So far as complainant was concerned, workmen of both classes could obtain employment there. In fact, however, its employees, numbering from 50 to 75, were nonunion. The rules of the union labor organizations did not permit their members to work in an open shop except in special cases and for specific purposes. There were 23 open-shop factories in St. Louis like complainant's, and their product, which was commonly called "trim," was about 80 per cent of the total amount used annually in the building operations in that city. The employees in these factories, about 1,000 in number, were nonunion, excepting perhaps 3 or 4. By far the greater proportion, probably upward of 90 per cent, of the carpenters engaged in the erection of buildings in St. Louis belonged to the union labor organizations. In this state of affairs, a representative of the national organization known as the "United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America" came from New York to St. Louis for the purpose of organizing the open-shop factories in St. Louis into closed or union shops. He took charge of and directed the course of the defendants to accomplish that end. Although action was taken against some of the other open-shop factories, it is quite clear from the evidence

that complainant was selected for especial attention. There seemed to be in its case more persistent and concentrated efforts. The defendants did not go about it by approaching complainant's employees and persuading them to join the union labor organizations, but they endeavored to make it impossible for complainant to continue its business unless it would adjust the wages and hours of labor to the union scale and require its employees to join the unions or leave its service. The defendants did not seek the assent or cooperation of the nonunion employees. Their efforts were not solicited by those employees, nor did the complainant invite their intervention. The relations between complainant and its employees were mutually satisfactory. There was no strike, and no controversy about wages, hours, or other conditions of service. The defendants sought to accomplish their purpose in this way: Upon the arrival of the organizer, a committee known as the "trim committee" was appointed by the central governing body of the defendant organizations. The organizer was ex-officio a member of this committee. To them was committed the active duty of organizing the open shops. They caused to be printed circulars giving lists of the factories which were run as closed shops, and delivered them to contracting builders and architects of St. Louis, who would have to do with the preparation of plans and specifications and the construction of buildings. They also gave them to owners of property who were about to improve the same. They watched the records of building permits to learn as early as possible of projected building enterprises. The list of closed shops implied that all those not named in the list were, to use the expression employed, "unfair." The circulars contained a warning that union carpenters would not be permitted to work upon any building materials not the product of a closed shop. They kept track of the output of complainant's factory and where it was delivered for use in building. Some contractors who had been customers of complainant for many years were required to sign a contract which put an end to this patronage. Building operations in which the product was used were suspended by strikes of union workmen which were ordered by the defendants. In some instances the union carpenters did not desire to cease work, but they were required to do so by threats of discipline at the hands of the organizations, which meant fines and ultimate expulsion. In one instance, union workmen, upon a building in which complainant's product was used, were fined by their organizations for refusing to cease work at the direction of individual defendants, and the contractor who employed them, though not a member of any union, was also fined and required to pay a sum of money as a condition to his being allowed to continue work with the use of union labor. In most instances where obligations had been incurred by builders requiring them to use the product of complainant's factory, they were allowed to continue with union labor upon the condition that a contract be executed, wherein the builder agreed that in the future he would not use such material. The defendant organizations also had what is known as a "we don't patronize" list. This was applied to a brewing association which had allowed nonunion "trim" to be used in the construction of one of its buildings. When the brewing company learned that its product was being boycotted, it canceled its contract for the use of the non-

union product, and the organizer sent forth a statement that the concern was no longer unfair to union labor. It does not appear, however, that this method was employed against the complainant.

We are of the opinion that the combination and concert of action of the defendants and the character of the active measures taken against the complainant, its product and its customers, including the enforced signing of contracts by such customers putting an end to future business relations with the complainant, and the notices and warnings to those who might become customers in the future, make the case indistinguishable from that of *Hopkins v. Oxley Stave Co.*, 83 Fed. 912, 28 C. C. A. 99.

The order of the circuit court is affirmed.

BOYCOTT — CONSPIRACY — “UNFAIR LISTS” — INJUNCTION — *Buck Stove and Range Company v. American Federation of Labor, et al.*, *Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, 35 Washington Law Reporter, page 797.*—The Buck Stove & Range Company, a corporation organized under the laws of Missouri and having its principal place of business at St. Louis, made a complaint against the American Federation of Labor, its officers, and the remaining members of its council, and against Electrottype Molders' and Finishers' Union No. 17, having headquarters in Washington, and certain individuals comprising its officers and executive board. The bill of complaint states that the company has been engaged in the manufacture of stoves and ranges since 1846, doing an annual business of about one and a quarter million dollars, extending to nearly all States and Territories of the Union; that it employs on an average seven hundred and fifty workmen, of whom ten per cent are in the nickel department, the labor of whom is essential to the conduct of the business; that it maintains an “open shop,” union men to the number of several hundred being satisfactorily employed; that the company is a member of the Stove Founders' National Defense Association, and as such is party to an agreement with the Iron Molders' Union of North America, which in turn has an agreement with the Metal Polishers', etc., International Union of North America, providing for the adjustment of grievances, and that for many years the company has faithfully kept and observed its agreement.

The bill then recites that the American Federation of Labor has a membership of more than two million persons, comprising one hundred and twenty national or international and twenty-seven thousand local unions, besides State federations, city central unions, etc., all of which have officials who act in concert with and in obedience to the directions of the American Federation of Labor, its executive officers and agents, and who are reached by the circulars and publications of the Federation, notably the monthly journal known as the

American Federationist. The custom of the Federation to appoint at its annual convention a committee on boycotts is set forth, with the statement that in twelve years, four hundred and eight boycotts have been approved of and declared. Quotations from the recommendations of the boycott committees, adopted by the conventions of 1905 and 1906, are made a part of the bill. In the earlier year it was said:

We must recognize the fact that a boycott means war, and to successfully carry out a war we must adopt the tactics that history has shown are most successful in war. The greatest master of war said that "war was the trade of a barbarian, and that the secret of success was to concentrate all your forces upon one point of the enemy, the weakest, if possible." In view of these facts, the committee recommends that the State federations and central bodies lay aside minor grievances and concentrate their efforts and energies upon the least number of unfair parties or places in their jurisdiction. One would be preferable. If every available means at the command of the State federations and central bodies were concentrated upon one such, and kept up until successful, the next on the list would be more easily brought to terms and within a reasonable time none opposed to fair wages, conditions or hours but would be brought to see error of their ways and submit to the inevitable. Under the present system, our efforts are largely wasted and our ammunition scattered. Let us reduce the boycotts to the lowest possible number and concentrate our efforts upon these, and we feel certain better results will be obtained.

And in 1906:

We believe that some measure must be adopted to find out if the national, international, and local unions, who are responsible for the boycotts, are doing their duty to bring about the desired results. Therefore, we recommend that the organizations that have firms on the "We Don't Patronize" list of the American Federation of Labor, beginning January 1, 1907, report every three months to the Executive Council of the American Federation of Labor what efforts they are making to render the boycott effective. Failure to report for six months shall be sufficient cause to remove such boycotts as are not reported on from the "We Don't Patronize" list.

The methods of deciding to boycott are detailed, both for this body and for the Metal Polishers, etc., International Union, which has its own organ and determines its own "unfair list" which is published therein. A strike by the members of this union in violation of their agreement is alleged, the purpose named being the reduction of the working hours from ten to nine per day, though the other departments ran ten hours, and though the polishers, buffers, and platers were paid by the piece. The history of the dispute is set forth in detail, showing the final action of both unions named in placing the company on the "unfair" or "we don't patronize" list, and in distributing and posting circulars containing the words "Do not purchase of said firm." The methods of the boycott, the consequent loss of business, and the abandonment of contracts are set forth, and a variety of cases instanced.

Affidavits were filed by the defendants, defining the technical use of the word "unfair;" setting forth conditions in the iron molding and metal polishing trades, and alleging the discharge of employees on the ground of their membership in the labor organizations.

The case was heard before Judge Gould, who granted the injunction, setting forth his reasons as shown in the following quotations from his opinion:

There appear two general questions upon this record: First, has the plaintiff shown the existence of an unlawful combination and conspiracy to destroy his business; and, second, does the testimony so connect the defendants, or any of them, with such combination and conspiracy as to make them amenable to the injunctive power of this court.

Upon the first proposition there is little room for argument or discussion. One of the counsel for defendant stated in argument: "The American Federation of Labor has refused intercourse with the plaintiff, business intercourse, such as comes from the purchase of stoves. It has persuaded its friends to refuse that intercourse. It says: 'Have nothing to do with this man or anything he makes as long as this condition of affairs exists.'" (Record, p. 235.) There is no attempt to deny that plaintiff's customers, even those under contract, have refused to continue business dealings with it under threat of being boycotted by the local organizations affiliated with the Federation. It does not become necessary in this case to discuss whether placing plaintiff's name on the "Unfair" list, or on the "We Don't Patronize" list in the Federationist, amounts to what is technically called a boycott, for the reason that the affidavits as to what has been actually done with reference to plaintiff's customers leaves no doubt as to what has been in fact accomplished. A boycott is defined in volume 8 of the Cyclopaedia of Pleading and Practice, p. 639, as follows: "This term generally means the confederation, generally secret, by many persons whose intent is to injure another by preventing all persons from doing business with him through fear of incurring the displeasure, persecution, and vengeance of the conspirators." A better definition, to my mind, is that given by Taft, circuit judge, in Toledo, etc., Ry. v. Penn. Co., 54 Fed. 730, 19 L. R. A. 357: "A boycott is a combination of many to cause a loss to one person by coercing others, against their will, to withdraw from him their beneficial business intercourse, through threats that, unless those others do so, the many will cause serious loss to them." This definition was given in March, 1893, and it was of such combinations that the same judge said, in July, 1894, in deciding the case of Thomas v. Cincinnati, etc., Ry. Co., 62 Fed., at p. 819: "Boycotts, though unaccompanied by violence or intimidation, have been pronounced unlawful in every State of the United States where the question has arisen, unless in Minnesota; and they are held to be unlawful in England." Since this statement was made, boycotts have been held unlawful in Minnesota. Ertz v. Produce Exchange, 79 Minn. 140.

It is not surprising that there is so little difference of opinion among the courts upon the question involved. The conclusion reached is based upon an appreciation of the fundamental rights of free men in a free country. In his work on Trade Unions, page 12,

Sir W. Erle says: "Every person has a right under the law as between himself and his fellow-subjects to full freedom in disposing of his own labor or his own capital according to his will. It follows that every other person is subject to the correlative duty arising therefrom and is prohibited from any destruction of the fullest exercise of the right which can be made compatible with the exercise of similar rights by others." Defendants have the right, either individually or collectively, to sell their labor to whom they please, on such terms as they please, and to decline to buy plaintiff's stoves; they have also the right to decline to traffic with dealers who handle plaintiff's stoves. But Sailor Bros., for instance, have an equal right to buy plaintiff's stoves and plaintiff has an equal right to sell said stoves to Sailor Bros., and when defendants and those associated with them combine to interfere with or obstruct, without justifiable cause, the freedom of buying and selling which should exist between plaintiff and Sailor Bros. they infringe upon the rights of both and do an unlawful act. The same principle which is the basis of their trade freedom is also the basis of the freedom of plaintiff and Sailor Bros. to deal with each other untrammelled by the interference of defendants. Such interference is an unlawful invasion upon the rights of plaintiff. Just what constitutes "justifiable cause" for interference, as remarked by Chief Justice Field, in *Vegeahn v. Guntner*, 167 Mass. 92, remains in some respects undetermined. Defendants claim the motive of wishing to better their condition affords such legal justification; but this motive is too remote, as compared with their immediate motive, which is to show what punishment and disaster necessarily follows a defiance of their demands. As quoted with approval by the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania, in *Purvis v. Brotherhood*, 214 Pa. 348: "True, the defendants contend and testify that their purpose was to benefit their own members. This, doubtless, in a sense, is true, but the benefits sought were the remote purpose, which was to be secured through the more immediate purpose of coercing the plaintiffs into complying with their demands, or otherwise injuring them in their business, and the court can not, in this proceeding, look beyond the immediate injury to the remote results. Such is the doctrine laid down in *Eddy on Combinations* and quoted with approval in the case of *Erdman v. Mitchell*, 56 Atl. 327, as follows: 'The benefit of the members of the combination is so remote, as compared to the direct and immediate injury inflicted upon the nonunion workmen (in this case nonunion mill owners) that the law does not look beyond the immediate loss and damage to the innocent parties to the remote benefits that might result to the union.'"

In the case of *Plant v. Woods*, 176 Mass. 492, the court says: "The necessity that the plaintiffs (members of one union) should join this association (defendants' union) is not so great nor is its relation to the rights of the defendants as compared with the rights of the plaintiff to be free from molestation, such as to bring the acts of the defendants under the shelter of the principles of trade competition. Such acts are without justification and therefore are malicious and unlawful, and the conspiracy thus to force the plaintiffs was unlawful. Such conduct is intolerable and is inconsistent with the spirit of our law."

In the case of *Curren v. Galen*, 152 N. Y. 33, it is said, "The social principle which justifies such organization is departed from when they are so extended in their operation as either to intend or to accomplish injury to others."

It is earnestly contended by defendants' counsel, however, that as each one of the defendants has the right to refuse to patronize the customers of plaintiff unless such customers will discontinue handling plaintiff's stoves, that, therefore, they may combine in their refusal; in other words, that there can not be an unlawful combination where each member thereof might do, individually, the thing contemplated, without responsibility to the law therefor. This contention has much of plausibility. It is undoubtedly difficult to formulate the legal basis of the proposition that what is lawful for one to do becomes unlawful when done in combination. It seems to evade accurate analysis. This feature is brought out in the dissenting opinion of Mr. Justice Holmes in *Vegelein v. Guntner*, *supra*, although he adds: "It would be rash to say that some as yet unformulated truth may not be hidden under this proposition," and admits: "That whatever may be the law in the case of a single defendant, that when a plaintiff proves that several persons have combined and conspired to injure his business, and have done acts producing that effect, he shows temporal damage and a cause of action, unless the facts disclose or the defendants prove some ground of excuse or justification, and I take it to be settled, and rightly settled, that doing that damage by combined persuasion is actionable, as well as doing it by falsehood and force." But, however unsatisfactory may be the statement of the "as yet unformulated truth" hidden under the proposition, the proposition itself is too firmly ingrafted upon both the civil and criminal law to be ignored. Mr. Justice Harlan, in the case of *Arthur v. Oakes*, 25 L. R. A., at page 429, thus states it: "It is one thing for a simple individual or for several individuals each acting upon his own responsibility and not in cooperation with others, to form the purpose of inflicting actual injury upon the property or rights of others. It is quite a different thing in the eye of the law for many persons to combine or conspire together with the intent not simply of asserting their rights or of accomplishing lawful ends by peaceable methods, but of employing their united energies to injure others or the public. An intent on the part of a single person to injure the rights of others or of the public, is not in itself a wrong of which the law will take cognizance, unless some injurious act be done in execution of the unlawful intent. But a combination of two or more persons with such an intent and under circumstances that give them when so combined a power to do an injury they would not possess as individuals acting jointly, has always been recognized as in itself wrongful and illegal."

It was next contended on behalf of defendants that to restrain the publication of plaintiff's name on the "Unfair" or "We Don't Patronize" list would be an infringement on their constitutional rights and an assault upon the freedom of the press; or that if plaintiff had any redress for such publication it was by action for the libel, and that equity will not join the publication of a libel. All this would have merit, if the act of defendants in making such publication stood alone, unconnected with other conduct both preceding and following it. But it is not an isolated fact; according to the al-

legations of the bill and the supporting affidavits it is an act in a conspiracy to destroy plaintiff's business, an act which has a definite meaning and instruction to those associated with defendants and an act which is the basis for conduct on the part of defendant's associates, which unlawfully interferes with plaintiff's right of freedom to trade with whom he pleases. The argument of counsel is fully answered by the language of Mr. Justice Holmes in the case of *Aikens v. Wisconsin*, 195 U. S. 194: "No conduct has such an absolute privilege as to justify all possible schemes of which it may be a part. The most innocent and constitutionally protected of acts or omissions may be made a step in a criminal plot, and if it is a step in a plot, neither its innocence nor the constitution is sufficient to prevent the punishment of the plot by law."

It is asserted in the answer of defendants, and urged in the argument, that the defendant, the American Federation of Labor, is a federation of organizations and has no individual membership. It would be difficult to understand how the different organizations, made up of individual members, and existing only by reason of such individual membership, could be federated into a central organization without such individual members becoming also members of such central organization; especially would this be difficult in a court of equity which looks through the forms to reach the substance. But if this could be accomplished as a legal or equitable fact, the testimony shows conclusively that the defendant has not done so. On page 177, of the printed affidavits, is given a facsimile from the report of the proceedings of the convention of the Federation, 1904, showing that it claimed to be then composed of more than 1,650,000, individual members. And on page 293, in the report of the defendant, Gompers, as president of said Federation, he refers to the activity of "all our organizers, our organizations, and our members."

It is further insisted by counsel for defendants that plaintiff's business is not property or a property right; that it is a mere abstraction, incapable of judicial protection.

In the case of *My Maryland Lodge v. Adt*, 100 Md. 238, a boycott case, Chief Judge McSherry, in delivering the unanimous opinion of the court, uses this language: "It is too late to doubt the jurisdiction of a court of equity to grant relief in such cases as this if the averments of the bill are sustained by the evidence. The adjudged cases are all one way." (Citing nine cases from the State and Federal courts.) "This list of cases might be swelled a hundred-fold, but we do not deem it necessary to cite any others. Those that we have referred to are quite analogous to the one before us."

In the case of *Purvis v. United Brotherhood*, 214 Pa. 348, the court adopts this language: "The business of the plaintiffs is property within the meaning of the law. The defendants sought, by concerted action, to injure them in their business; in other words, their property, in order to coerce them into submission to the demands of the union."

In *Gray v. Building Trades Council*, 91 Minn. 171, the court uses this language: "In restraining boycotts the authorities proceed on the theory that they are unlawful interferences with property rights. * * * A person's occupation or calling, by means of which he earns a livelihood and endeavor[s] to better his condition,

and to provide for and support himself and those dependent upon him, is property within the meaning of the law, and entitled to protection as such; and as conducted by the merchant, by the capitalist, by the contractor or laborer, is, aside from the goods, chattels, money, or effects employed and used in connection therewith, property in every sense of the word."

As stated by Judge McSherry, the list of cases asserting this proposition might be extended indefinitely.

Second. The second point to be considered is, Does the testimony so connect the defendants, or any of them, with such combination and conspiracy as to make them amenable to the injunctive power of this court?

The record in this case leaves no doubt that plaintiff has been and still is the object of a "Boycott," using that in the most obnoxious sense, viz, an unlawful conspiracy to destroy its business; such a conspiracy as has received the condemnation of every Federal and State court in the country before which it has been brought for criminal action, legal redress, or equitable injunction. This conspiracy originated, as I have stated, in the action, by Metal Polishers' Local No. 13, in St. Louis, in the fall of 1906, a body federated with the defendant American Federation of Labor through the International Metal Polishers, etc., Union. It was advanced in accordance with the procedure of the said Federation until in March, 1907, it received the active indorsement of the executive council, the controlling body of said Federation. It is true that when this body acted it did not use the word "Boycott" but the more euphemistic terms of "Unfair" and "We Don't Patronize."

But an examination of the record convinces me that whatever the term used, the effect intended was what naturally happened, viz, a boycott. In fact, that the terms mean the same thing in the procedure of the Federation does not seem doubtful. Its constitution provides for a committee on boycotts to be appointed by the president at the annual convention; it was to such a committee on boycotts that the resolution of Bechtold was referred, and by that committee it was referred to the executive council. Over fifteen pages of the printed affidavits are filled with reports of the "organizers" of the Federation from all parts of the country, published in the Federationist.

These almost invariably contain the statement that "all American Federation of Labor boycotts are being pushed as thoroughly as possible." In the convention of the Federation held in November, 1906, a motion to concur in the report of a certain committee was carried; this report is as follows:

"At the twenty-fifth annual convention of the American Federation of Labor, held in Pittsburg, attention was called to the large number of firms on the unfair list and the necessity of reducing the same so that we could make our declarations of unfairness effective.

"This committee finds that not many changes have occurred during the past year and believe that some action must be taken in order to secure the cooperation of the labor press. We can't expect the labor press to give the space it would require to publish the names of all these firms, and without publicity the intent of the boycott is defeated.

"We believe that some measure must be adopted to find out if the national, international or local unions who are responsible for the boycott are doing their duty to bring about the desired results. Therefore we recommend that the organizations that have firms on the 'We Don't Patronize' list of the American Federation of Labor, beginning January 1, 1907, report every three months to the executive council of the American Federation of Labor what efforts they are making to render the boycott effective. Failure to report for six months shall be sufficient cause to remove such boycotts as are not reported on from the 'We Don't Patronize' list of the American Federation of Labor."

It will be noticed that here the terms "Unfair," "We Don't Patronize" and boycott are used interchangeably. In the affidavit of one of the defendants in this case, he speaks of the resolution introduced at the Minneapolis convention relative to a dispute "between one of the organizations affiliated with the American Federation of Labor" and plaintiff as follows: "This resolution sought the indorsement of the American Federation of Labor in the declaration of a boycott by that organization, the International Brotherhood of Foundry Employees."

It is well settled law that all who accede to a conspiracy after its formation and while it is in execution, and all who with a knowledge of the facts concur in the plans originally formed and aid in executing them are fellow-conspirators.

They commit an offense when they become parties to the transaction or further the original plan. (*Ochs v. People*, 124 Ill. 399.)

As stated by Judge Dillon, in *U. S. v. Babcock*, 24 Fed. 915: "Any one, who after a conspiracy is formed, and who knows of its existence, joins therein, becomes as much a party thereto from that time as if he had originally conspired." In the recent case of *U. S. v. Standard Oil Co.*, 152 Fed. 294, the court uses this language:

"Again, the alleged conspiracy is one. Its scheme is single. It has but one object. Perhaps none of the alleged conspirators participates in every part of the conception and of the work of the combination, but every one of them takes his part in the plan, or in its execution, a part promotive of its purpose, the restraint and monopolization of commerce in the product of petroleum among the States. To the Waters-Pierce Company, the resident defendant, has been allotted no inconsiderable portion of the execution of this plan. * * * One who knows of a conspiracy after it is formed, and then joins it, or knowingly aids in the execution of its scheme, and shares in its profits, becomes from that time as much a coconspirator as if he was one of those who originally designed it and put it in operation. * * * 'If a series of acts are to be performed with a view to produce a particular result, he who aids in the performance of these acts in order to bring about the result must have an intention to effectuate the end proposed, and if he cooperate with others, knowing them to have the same design, there is in fact an agreement between him and them.'"

Upon the record as presented, and for the reasons stated, I am of the opinion that the plaintiff is entitled to be protected by an injunction until the final hearing of the case, and I will sign an order *restraining the defendant substantially as prayed in the bill.*

The injunction is in part as follows:

It is ordered that the defendants, The American Federation of Labor [and persons named], their and each of their agents, servants, attorneys, confederates, and any and all persons acting in aid of or in conjunction with them or any of them be, and they hereby are, restrained and enjoined until the final decree in said cause from conspiring, agreeing or combining in any manner to restrain, obstruct or destroy the business of the complainant, or to prevent the complainant from carrying on the same without interference from them or any of them, and from interfering in any manner with the sale of the product of the complainant's factory or business by defendants, or by any other person, firm or corporation, and from declaring or threatening any boycott against the complainant, or its business, or the product of its factory, or against any person, firm or corporation engaged in handling or selling the said product, and from abetting, aiding or assisting in any such boycott, and from printing, issuing, publishing, or distributing through the mails, or in any other manner any copies or copy of the American Federationist, or any other printed or written newspaper, magazine, circular, letter or other document or instrument whatsoever, which shall contain or in any manner refer to the name of the complainant, its business or its product in the "We Don't Patronize," or the "Unfair" list of the defendants, or any of them, their agents, servants, attorneys, confederates, or other person or persons acting in aid of or in conjunction with them or which contains any reference to the complainant, its business or product in connection with the term "Unfair" or with the "We Don't Patronize" list, or with any other phrase, word or words of similar import, and from publishing or otherwise circulating, whether in writing or orally, any statement, or notice, of any kind or character whatsoever, calling attention of the complainant's customers, or of dealers or tradesmen, or the public, to any boycott against the complainant, its business or its product, or that the same are, or were, or have been declared to be "Unfair," or that it should not be purchased or dealt in or handled by any dealer, tradesman, or other person whomsoever, or by the public, or any representation or statement of like effect or import, for the purpose of, or tending to, any injury to or interference with the complainant's business, or with the free and unrestricted sale of its product, or of coercing or inducing any dealer, person, firm, or corporation, or the public, not to purchase, use, buy, trade in, deal in, or have in possession stoves, ranges, heating apparatus, or other product of the complainant, and from threatening or intimidating any person or persons whomsoever from buying, selling, or otherwise dealing in the complainant's product, either directly, or through orders, directions or suggestions to committees, associations, officers, agents or others, for the performance of any such acts or threats as hereinabove specified, and from in any manner whatsoever impeding, obstructing, interfering with or restraining the complainant's business, trade or commerce, whether in the State of Missouri, or in other States and Territories of the United States, or elsewhere wheresoever, and from soliciting, directing, aiding, assisting or abetting any person or persons, company or corporation to do or cause to be done any of the acts or things aforesaid.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—VICE-PRINCIPALS—CHARACTER OF ACT AS TEST—*Peters v. George, United States Circuit Court of Appeals, 154 Federal Reporter, page 634.*—Elias George, a Syrian, had been awarded damages in the circuit court of the United States for the eastern district of Pennsylvania, for injuries received while at work in a quarry, and the quarry owners appealed. George was a general laborer, not experienced in the matter of drilling or blasting, and had been directed by one Blose to drill out an unexploded charge. Blose acted as sort of a head quarryman or gang boss, under the general direction of the superintendent. George was not warned as to the dangerous character of the work, and only the most elementary directions as to how to proceed were given.

The judgment of the lower court was affirmed, principally on grounds which appear in the following quotation from the opinion of the circuit court of appeals, as delivered by Judge Gray:

We are dealing now with what must be conceded to be a primary and absolute duty of the master to the servant, the liability for the nonperformance of which the master can not relieve himself by delegating it to any other person, whether of the highest or lowest rank in the service. Much argumentation has been devoted by counsel on both sides to the question whether David Blose was to be considered as a vice-principal of the defendants, or merely a fellow-servant of the plaintiff, the consequence on the one hand being that defendants would be responsible for injuries occasioned by his negligence, while on the other, it would be merely the negligence of a fellow-servant, and one of the risks assumed by plaintiff in entering defendants' employment. While at one time the so-called theory of vice-principal was much resorted to, in working out the liability of a master for injuries to an employee incurred in his service, it has, subsequently to the decision of the Ross Case, 112 U. S. 377, 5 Sup. Ct. 184, 28 L. Ed. 787, been largely discarded, at least in the Federal courts, and the distinction between negligence that is to be imputed to the master, and that which is to be considered as merely and solely the negligence of a fellow-servant, has been placed upon a more satisfactory and rational basis. In the opinion of Mr. Justice Brewer, delivering the judgment of the Supreme Court in *B. & O. R. R. Co. v. Baugh*, 149 U. S. 368, 13 Sup. Ct. 914, 37 L. Ed. 772, the whole subject has been instructively discussed, and it has been clearly and logically settled upon what grounds a master may be held liable for injuries incurred by a servant in the course of his employment. The question is always, whether the negligence charged is the neglect of a primary and absolute duty of the master to the servant. If such be its character, no delegation of the performance of that duty to another, no matter how inferior his rank may be in the master's service, can, as we have already said, relieve the liability of the master for its neglect. The master does not insure the safety of the servant, but he does undertake that the place in which he works, and the appliances with which he works, and the conditions under which he works, shall be reasonably safeguarded. A dereliction of the humblest employee in the master's service, to whom any part of such duty has been dele-

gated, is the dereliction of the master. Nothing short of actual notice of the danger to the workman who is to encounter it, with such cautionary explanation as may enable him to avoid it, will satisfy the requirement of the law, and the default of the intermediary, whether he be the highest officer in control, or merely a fellow-workman of the one exposed to the danger, is the default of the master. In such a case, all question as to whether the immediate cause of the injury was the negligence of a fellow-servant, is eliminated, and inquiry as to the extent of the control and authority committed by the master to the culpable agent, beside the issue, which is solely as to the character of the act or omission, and not the rank, of the offending servant.

INJUNCTIONS—PUBLICATIONS INCITING VIOLATIONS—*National Telephone Company of West Virginia v. Kent, United States Circuit Court, Northern District of West Virginia, 156 Federal Reporter, page 173.*—The telephone company above named had secured a preliminary injunction restraining Kent and other defendants, electrical workers and members of a labor union, from interfering with the conduct of its business. Subsequently an amended bill was filed, containing the complaints of injury and violence set forth in the original bill, and incorporating new matter relative to the action of one Hilton, editor and proprietor of a newspaper in the city of Wheeling, and the acts of certain persons, members of the Ohio Valley Trades and Labor Assembly, and alleging that these parties had joined the conspiracy presented in the original bill, and asking an injunction against them also. A preliminary injunction was granted on this bill, to which the defendants named demurred.

On hearing before Judge Dayton, the demurrer was overruled. From his opinion the following is quoted as setting forth the grounds on which the injunction was continued:

It is alleged in the amended bill that these new defendants, Hilton, Hecker, Corcoran, and Wessel, the three last mentioned acting in their capacity as officers of the Ohio Valley Trades and Labor Assembly, did subsequently to the granting of the preliminary injunction, granted upon the prayer of the original bill, join the conspiracy alleged in the original bill, and that they did, in pursuance of the said conspiracy, print and distribute a boycott circular, which appears among the exhibits to the amended bill, and that the defendant Hilton published in his paper certain matters intended to explain the carefully worded circular and to make the boycott inaugurated effective.

Counsel for the defendants, in the very able arguments presented, have very aptly said that this is an age of combinations. It is an age of combinations—combinations of capital and combinations of labor. These combinations, so long as they are kept within the bounds of the law, are certainly lawful, are in many instances beneficial to the persons interested, and may be, in some cases, of benefit to the general public; but when a combination of capital is made for unlawful pur-

poses, or, being made for an avowed lawful purpose, seeks to accomplish its purpose by unlawful methods, it becomes the duty of the courts to restrain the unlawful practices and to punish the unlawful acts. Likewise, when a combination of labor is made for unlawful purposes, or, being made for an avowed lawful purpose, seeks to accomplish its purpose by unlawful methods, it becomes the duty of the courts to restrain the unlawful practices and to punish the unlawful acts. The law knows no distinction between the rich and the poor, recognizes no distinction between unlawful acts of combinations of capital and unlawful acts of combinations of labor. The same principles applying to one must apply to the other, and when a combination of laborers is organized for unlawful purposes, or, being organized for lawful purpose, employs unlawful methods, it will be suppressed by the courts, its unlawful acts restrained, and its crimes punished as promptly and as effectively as like combinations of capital are suppressed, restrained, and punished.

There is further involved here, after considering the rights of the complainant company and the rights of the defendants, the rights of those citizens who desire to exercise their God-given right to earn their bread by the sweat of their brow in the employment of this telephone company. It is charged that the defendants threatened, abused, pursued, and even assaulted these men, who were doing no wrong, but were merely exercising their right to work upon terms satisfactory to them; yet they were made to suffer the persecution of these defendants, and their rights, as it is charged, were denied them. There is to be considered also the rights of the general public. It appears from the bill that this company and another company are engaged in the interstate commerce of carrying messages between the States, and that the conspiracy and combination complained of sought to interfere with and tie up this interstate commerce. This being a public business by a "quasi" public corporation, the rights of the public are involved and are not to be interfered with by any unlawful methods.

It is urged by counsel for the defendants that the injunction interferes with the rights of the press. The injunction granted does not deprive the newspaper in question of any lawful right to publish the truth or express its opinions in a lawful manner, but no newspaper has the right to publish any matter intended to aid wrongdoers in accomplishing a wrongful purpose or doing unlawful things, or to aid unlawful combinations in making effective an unlawful conspiracy. Some newspapers, certainly the one involved in this case, have misconstrued the freedom of the press until they seem to interpret the right to be a license to publish what may please them, even though the publication should be an express violation of the law. There is no intention on the part of the court to interfere with the freedom of the press, but this court is not ready to accept the theory that the freedom of the press means a right to advocate crime or to encourage the violation of the law.

The laborers in the organization, appearing as defendants in this case, have the right to organize for lawful purposes and to proceed to accomplish their purposes by lawful methods; but when they resort to force, violence, and destruction of property, coercion of peaceable citizens, combinations, and conspiracies to injure property and interfere with business by threats, menaces, and boycotts, as has been

charged in this case, they lose the moral support of the public and bring upon themselves the condemnation and restraining as well as the punishing power of the court. They approve the application of these principles to combinations of capital, and they can not be heard to complain of the application of the same principles to their own combinations, when they step beyond the bounds of the law.

Applying these principles to this case, and considering the bill as being uncontradicted, I have no hesitation whatever in promptly overruling the demurrer, and an order to that effect may be now entered.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS—APPLICATION FOR MEMBERSHIP—QUALIFICATIONS—PROTECTION BY UNION—*Levin v. Cosgrove et al., Supreme Court of New Jersey, 67 Atlantic Reporter, page 1070.*—Louis Levin applied for membership in a labor union of painters, decorators, and paperhangers, stating that accompanying his application was the required fee of twenty-five dollars. This fee was in fact paid in installments, and on his rejection on grounds of incompetency, he sued for the return of this fee. The district court of Elizabeth gave judgment against Levin, who appealed, securing a reversal of the ruling of the court below, and orders for a new trial. The following syllabus by the court sets forth with sufficient fullness both the facts involved and the conclusions of law in the case:

1. The constitution of the Brotherhood of Painters, providing that the initiation fee paid by an applicant for membership must accompany the application and be returned in case the applicant is rejected, with a proviso that, if the fee is paid in installments while the applicant is "working at the trade and receiving the protection of the brotherhood," such payments shall be forfeited to the brotherhood if the applicant has made any false statements or is unable to qualify as a member, and there being evidence tending to show a custom of the brotherhood not to permit its members to work with men who were not members.

Held, that evidence that an applicant, pending his application, worked at the trade together with members of the brotherhood, did not show that plaintiff was "receiving the protection of the brotherhood," within the meaning of the constitution.

2. Plaintiff's right to seek and gain employment in his lawful occupation was a right secured to him by the constitution of this State. The fact of the brotherhood, having no right to interfere with him, did not interfere, can not be construed as "protection" extended by the brotherhood to him; nor was it in a legal sense a benefit to him.

3. An applicant for membership in a trade union stated in his application that he was able to command the average wages in his locality. *Held*, not to amount to a representation with respect to an existing state of facts, except that it was equivalent to an assertion that he believed himself able to command the average wages; and that, in order to forfeit money paid by the applicant on the ground of the falsity of this statement, it was necessary to show that he did not reasonably believe that he was able to command the average wages.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS—TRADE AGREEMENTS—ENFORCEMENT—STRIKES—INJUNCTIONS—*A. R. Barnes & Company v. Berry, United States Circuit Court, Southern District of Ohio, Western Division, 156 Federal Reporter, page 72.*—A. R. Barnes & Co. and others, representing an employers' association known as the United Typothetæ of America, sued for an injunction against Berry and his codefendants, officers of the International Printing Pressmen and Assistants' Union of America, to prevent the violation by the latter of a contract entered into by the two associations named in January, 1907. It appeared that agreements had been made for a number of years past, but that at the convention of the pressmen and assistants in 1907, considerable dissatisfaction was expressed with the failure to secure the recognition of the closed shop and the immediate adoption of the eight-hour day. These matters had been discussed by the committees of the respective bodies, but the only agreement reached was in the nature of a compromise which looked to the adoption of the eight-hour day in January, 1909, otherwise continuing the contract of previous years. Berry and his associates, elected to office subsequent to the making of this agreement, were alleged in the bill to have demanded an immediate modification in respect of the matter of the closed shop and the time of adopting the eight-hour day, and, in order to enforce the demand, to have incited strikes against members of the Typothetæ who would not accede to the modifications, and to have threatened to pursue the same policy in the future.

Having stated these facts, Judge Thompson, speaking for the court, proceeded as follows:

The "closed shop" is contrary to public policy, and the demand for the immediate adoption of the "eight-hour day" is violative of the contract. Now, this is the situation as I see it. This contract was made. The old officers were succeeded by new ones, who were dissatisfied with it. They insisted upon a modification of it which would recognize the "closed shop" and adopt at once the "eight-hour day." The Typothetæ stood upon its contract rights and refused to make this concession, refused to change and modify the contract made, and it is alleged in the bill that in consequence thereof strikes have been declared against certain members of the Typothetæ in different parts of the country, and that strikes are threatened as against all members of the Typothetæ who may refuse to accede or consent to the modification of the contract as demanded. Practically the union is insisting upon a new contract.

The service of the employees, members of the union, is neither special, extraordinary, nor unique, in the sense that it could not otherwise be supplied, and that its loss would cause irreparable injury, and it is not sought to restrain them from quitting the service of their employers, but only that their officers, agents, and representatives be restrained from inciting them to strike, unless the contract be so modified as to make provision for the "eight-hour day" and "closed shop," and to make it effective at once. It is not a question, there-

fore, of whether the men who work shall be enjoined from striking, but it is a question whether the officers, agents, and representatives of these men, who represent the organization and control it, shall be permitted to incite the men to strike, to induce them to strike, and thereby repudiate the contract which was made by them through their agents at the January convention of 1907. The bill charges that the executive officers and directors have conspired to force the making of a new contract which will embody these two demands, and, in the event of the refusal of the Typothetæ to agree thereto, then to enforce these demands by strikes, and that they are using their position, power, and authority to control and induce the men to strike. That, in substance, is the allegation of the bill.

The court is not asked to make an order enjoining the men from striking, and, if it were asked, would refuse to grant it, because, as already stated, no case is made, nor can be made, in which the court would compel the men to labor. They can not be made slaves. They can not be compelled to work, and it is not sought by this bill to compel them to work; but it is sought to prevent the officers of the organization from using their power and influence to induce the men to strike in violation of their contract.

It is plain that these officers have great influence and power with the body of men composing this association, and if they exercise it unlawfully—exercise it for the purpose of repudiating the contract—they may be restrained from exercising such power and influence, although the men themselves can not be restrained from striking, or from walking out, at any time, and refusing to work. In a word, the proposition dealt with is this: May the officers of this organization, in violation of this contract, induce, influence, incite, or coerce the men into resorting to a strike to compel a modification of the contract? Shall they be permitted to do that?

I am compelled to dispose of this case upon what appears in the bill and the accompanying affidavits. There is no answer, and no affidavits on behalf of the defendants, except the ones I have read. I am now disposing of the application practically upon what is shown by this bill. It is shown by the bill that, being advised of this contract, they advised the men to repudiate it, to demand that the "eight-hour day" be made operative at once, and also the "closed shop," and to enforce the demand they threatened strikes, and it is alleged that strikes have been entered upon in Chicago, and other places throughout the country, and that a strike will be instituted against every member of the Typothetæ unless it consents to this modification of the contract.

Now, so far as the men are concerned, if they take it into their own hands, they may walk out, but this court is asked to stay the hands of the officers who manage and control this organization, who have power to influence, to incite, to put on foot these strikes, who have all the machinery in their hands, and who seek to use it to induce and incite these men to violate a contract that was fairly made.

I am of the opinion, therefore, that a case is made requiring that these officers, named, be enjoined, in the respects prayed in the bill, from exercising their power, their control, and their influence to induce strikes for that purpose.

LAWS OF VARIOUS STATES RELATING TO LABOR, ENACTED SINCE
JANUARY 1, 1904.

[The Tenth Special Report of this Bureau contains all laws of the various States and Territories and of the United States relating to labor, in force January 1, 1904. Later enactments are reproduced in successive issues of the Bulletin, beginning with Bulletin No. 57, the issue of March, 1905. A cumulative index of these later enactments is to be found on page 283 et seq. of this issue.]

HAWAII.

ACTS OF 1907.

ACT No. 11.—*Hours of labor of employees on public works.*

SECTION 1. Section 122 of the Revised Laws of Hawaii is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

"Section 122. Eight hours of actual service on any working-day, except on Saturday, on which day only five hours of actual service shall constitute a day's labor for all mechanics, laborers, clerks and other employees employed upon any public work or in any public office of this Territory, or any political subdivision thereof, whether the work is done by contract or otherwise."

Approved over governor's veto.

ACT No. 96.—*Employment offices.*

SECTION 1. Chapter 102 of the Revised Laws of Hawaii is hereby amended by adding ten sections thereto to be known as section * * * 1418C, * * * and to read as follows:

* * * * *
"Section 1418C. Every person, firm or corporation conducting an employment or intelligence office or advertising as an employment or intelligence agent shall pay an annual license fee of twenty-five dollars.
* * * * *

Approved this 23d day of April, A. D. 1907.

ACT No. 98.—*Rates of wages of employees on public works.*

SECTION 1. From and after the passage of this act, the daily pay for each working-day of each laborer engaged in constructing or repairing roads, bridges or streets, waterworks or other works either by contract or otherwise, for the Territory of Hawaii, or for any political subdivision thereof, shall not be less than one dollar and twenty-five cents.

Approved over governor's veto.

ACT No. 113.—*Actions for personal injuries—Limitations.*

SECTION 1. Actions for the recovery of compensation for damage or injury to persons or property must be instituted within one year next after the cause of action accrued, and not after: *Provided*, That actions, on such causes, which accrued prior to the approval of this act, if otherwise barred hereby, may be brought within one year after such approval and not later.

Approved this 30th day of April, A. D. 1907.

ACT No. 119.—*Employment of minors in saloons—Sale of liquor to employees.*

SECTION 30. Licenses shall be subject to the following conditions and provisions:

* * * * *
(4) That no holder of a license for a saloon business shall employ any minor in or about the room or place where intoxicating liquors are furnished or sold;

(5) That no intoxicating liquor shall be sold or furnished to * * * any person whose * * * employer shall have given notice as hereinafter provided, forbidding the sale of such liquor to such person;

Approved this 30th day of April, A. D. 1907.

ILLINOIS.

ACTS OF 1907.

Accidents to employees—Reports.

(Page 308.)

SECTION 1. It shall be the duty of every person, firm or corporation employing laborers, artisans, mechanics, miners, clerks or any other servants or employees of any character, to make a report to the State bureau of labor statistics of every serious injury entailing a loss of thirty or more days' time, injury or death of every employee caused by accident while in the performance of any duty or service for such employer within thirty (30) days from the date of such injury or death. Such report shall give the name of the employer, character of business of such employer, where located, date of injury or death, name of person killed or injured, character of employment of service, and cause of such injury or death, and when injury alone, then the character and extent of such injury, residence, nativity and age of the person injured or killed, whether married or single, and, if known, how many persons are dependent upon such employee.

SEC. 2. It shall be the duty of the State bureau of labor statistics to cause such reports to be made and to enforce the provisions of this act and shall cause all of such accidents or deaths by accidents to be classified into trades or kinds of employment, and shall cause the same to be published at least once each year on or before January 1st.

SEC. 3. Any person, firm or corporation failing or refusing to make the reports as provided in section 1 of this act shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor and shall, upon conviction, be fined in a sum not less than twenty-five dollars (\$25.00) nor more than two hundred dollars (\$200.00).

Approved May 24, 1907.

Inspection of factories—Butterine and ice cream factories.

(Page 309.)

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 834, 835.)

Department of factory inspection.

(Page 310.)

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 835, 836.)

Protection of employees on buildings.

(Page 312.)

SECTION 1. All scaffolds, hoists, cranes, stays, ladders, supports or other mechanical contrivances, erected or constructed by any person, firm or corporation in this State for the use in the erection, repairing, alteration, removal or painting of any house, building, bridge, viaduct or other structure, shall be erected and constructed in a safe, suitable and proper manner, and shall be so erected and constructed, placed and operated as to give proper and adequate protection to the life and limb of any person or persons employed or engaged thereon, or passing under or by the same, and in such manner as to prevent the falling of any material that may be used or deposited thereon.

Scaffolding, or staging, swung or suspended from an overhead support more than twenty (20) feet from the ground or floor shall have, where practicable, a safety rail properly bolted, secured and braced, rising a [at] least thirty-four (34) inches above the floor or main portion of such scaffolding or staging.

and extending along the entire length of the outside and ends thereof, and properly attached thereto, and such scaffolding or staging shall be so fastened as to prevent the same from swaying from the building or structure.

Sec. 2. If in any house, building or structure in process of erection or construction in this State (except a private house, used exclusively as a private residence), the distance between the inclosing walls is more than twenty-four (24) feet, in the clear, there shall be built, kept and maintained, proper intermediate supports for the joists, which supports shall be either brick walls or iron or steel columns, beams, trussels [trusses] or girders, and the floors in all such houses, buildings or structures, in process of erection and construction shall be designed and constructed in such manner as to be capable of bearing in all their parts, in addition to the weight of the floor construction, partitions and permanent fixtures and mechanisms that may be set upon the same, a live load of fifty (50) pounds for every square foot of surface in such floors, and it is hereby made the duty of the owner, lessee, builder or contractor or sub-contractor of such house, building or structure, or the superintendent or agent of either, to see that all the provisions of this section are complied with.

Sec. 3. It shall be the duty of the owner of every house, building or structure (except a private house, used exclusively as a private residence) now under construction, or hereafter to be constructed, to affix and display conspicuously, on each floor of such building, during construction, a placard, stating the load per square foot [foot] of floor surface, which may with safety be applied to that particular floor during such construction; or if the strength of different parts of any floor varies, then there shall be such placards for each varying part of such floor. It shall be unlawful to load any such floors, or any part thereof, to a greater extent than the load indicated on such placards, and all such placards shall be verified and approved by the State factory inspector, a deputy factory inspector, or by the local commissioner or inspector of buildings or other proper authority, in the city, town or village charged with the enforcement of building laws.

Sec. 4. Whenever it shall come to the notice of the State factory inspector or the local authority in any city, town or village in this State, charged with the duty of enforcing the building laws, that the scaffolding or the slings, hangers, blocks, pulleys, stays, braces, ladders, irons or ropes of any swinging or stationary scaffolding, platform or other similar device used in the construction, alteration, repairing, removing, cleaning or painting of buildings, bridges or viaducts within this State are unsafe, or liable to prove dangerous to the life or limb of any person, the State factory inspector, or such local authority or authorities, shall immediately cause an inspection to be made of such scaffolding, platform or device, or the slings, hangers, blocks, pulleys, stays, braces, ladders, iron or other parts connected therewith. If, after examination, such scaffolding, platform or device or any of such parts is found to be dangerous to the life or limb of any person, the State factory inspector or such local authority shall at once notify the person responsible for its erection or maintenance of such fact, and warn him against the use, maintenance or operation thereof, and prohibit the use thereof, and require the same to be altered and reconstructed so as to avoid such danger. Such notice may be served personally upon the person responsible for its erection or maintenance, or by conspicuously affixing it to the scaffolding, platform or other such device, or the part thereof declared to be unsafe. After such notice has been so served or affixed, the person responsible therefor shall cease using and immediately remove such scaffolding, platform or other device or part thereof and alter or strengthen it in such manner as to render it safe.

The State factory inspector or any of his deputies, or such local authority, whose duty it is, under the terms of this act, to examine or test any scaffolding, platform or other similar device, or part thereof, required to be erected and maintained by this section, shall have free access at all reasonable hours to any building or structure or premises containing such scaffolding, platform or other similar device, or parts thereof, or where they may be in use. All swinging and stationary scaffolding, platforms and other devices shall be so constructed as to bear four times the maximum weight required to be dependent therein or placed thereon when in use, and such swinging scaffolding, platform or other device shall not be so overloaded or overcrowded as to render the same unsafe or dangerous.

Sec. 5. Any person, firm or corporation in this State hiring, employing or directing another to perform labor of any kind in the erecting, repairing, altering or painting of any water pipe, standpipe, tank, smokestack, chimney, tower,

steeple, pole, staff, dome or cupola, when the use of any scaffold, staging, swing, hammock, support, temporary platform or other similar contrivance are required or used in the performance of such labor, shall keep and maintain at all times, while such labor is being performed, and such mechanical device is in use or operation, a safe and proper scaffold, stay, support or other suitable device, not less than sixteen (16) feet or more, below such working scaffold, staging, swing, hammock, support or temporary platform, when such work is being performed, at a height of thirty-two (32) feet, for the purpose of preventing the person or persons performing such labor from falling, in case of any accident to such working scaffold, staging, swing, hammock, support or temporary platform.

SEC. 6. All contractors and owners, when constructing buildings in cities, where the plans and specifications require the floors to be arched between the beams thereof, or where the floors of [or] filling in between the floors are fireproof material or brickwork, shall complete the flooring or filling in as the building progresses, to not less than within three tiers or beams below that on which the ironwork is being erected. If the plans and specifications of such buildings do not require filling in between the beams or floors with brick or fireproof material, all contractors for carpenter work in the course of construction shall lay the under flooring thereof or a safe temporary floor on each story as the building progresses to not less than within two stories or floors below the one to which such building has been erected. Where double floors are not to be used, such owner or contractor shall keep planked over the floor two stories or floors below the story where the work is being performed. If the floor beams are of iron or steel, the contractors for the iron or steel work of buildings in the course of construction, or the owners of such buildings, shall thoroughly plank over the entire tier of iron or steel beams on which the structural iron or steel work is being erected, except such spaces as may be reasonably required for the proper construction of such iron or steel work and for the raising and lowering of materials to be used in the construction of such buildings, or such spaces as may be designated by the plans and specifications for stairways and elevator shafts.

SEC. 7. If elevating machines or hoisting apparatus are used within a building in the course of construction for the purpose of lifting materials to be used in such construction, the contractors or owners shall cause the shafts or openings in each floor to be inclosed or fenced in on all sides by a substantial barrier or railing at least eight feet in height. Any hoisting machine or engine used in such building construction shall, where practicable, be set up or placed on the ground, and where it is necessary in the construction of such building to place such hoisting machine or engine on some floor above the ground floor, such machine or engine must be properly and securely supported with a foundation capable of safely sustaining twice the weight of such machine or engine. If a building in course of construction is five stories or more in height, no material needed for such construction shall be hoisted or lifted over public streets or alleys unless such street or alley shall be barricaded from use by the public. The chief officer in any city, town or village charged with the enforcement of local building laws, and the State factory inspector, are hereby charged with enforcing the provisions of this act: *Provided*, That in all cities in the State where a local building commissioner is provided for by law, such officer shall be charged with the duty of enforcing the provisions of this act, and in case of his failure, neglect or refusal so to do, the State factory inspector shall, pursuant to the terms of this act, enforce the provisions thereof.

SEC. 7a. If elevating machines or hoisting apparatus, operated or controlled by other than hand power, are used in the construction, alteration or removal of any building or other structure, a complete and adequate system of communication by means of signals shall be provided and maintained by the owner, contractor or subcontractor, during the use and operation of such elevating machines or hoisting apparatus, in order that prompt and effective communication may be had at all times between the operator of engine or motive power of such elevating machine and hoisting apparatus, and the employees or persons engaged thereon, or in using or operating the same.

SEC. 8. It shall be the duty of all architects or draftsmen engaged in preparing plans, specifications or drawings to be used in the erection, repairing, altering or removing of any building or structure within the terms and provisions of this act, to provide in such plans, specifications and drawings for all the permanent structural features or requirements specified in this act; and any failure on the part of any such architect or draftsman to perform such duty

shall subject such architect or draftsmen to a fine of not less than twenty-five (25) dollars nor more than two hundred (200) dollars for each offense.

SEC. 9. Any owner, contractor, subcontractor, foreman or other person having charge of the erection, construction, repairing, alteration, removal or painting of any building, bridge, viaduct or other structure within the provisions of this act, shall comply with all the terms thereof, and any such owner, contractor, subcontractor, foreman or other person violating any of the provisions of this act shall, upon conviction thereof, be fined not less than twenty-five (25) dollars nor more than five hundred (500) dollars, or imprisoned for not less than three (3) months nor more than two (2) years, or both fined and imprisoned, in the discretion of the court.

And in case of any such failure to comply with any of the provisions of this act, any State factory inspector may, through the State's attorney or any other attorney, in case of his failure to act promptly, take the necessary legal steps to enforce compliance therewith.

If it becomes necessary, through the refusal or failure of the State's attorney to act, for any other attorney to appear for the State in any suit involving the enforcement of any provision of this act, reasonable fees for the services of such attorney shall be allowed by the board of supervisors or county commissioners in and for the county in which such proceedings are instituted.

For any injury to person, or property occasioned by any willful violations of this act, or willful failure to comply with any of its provisions, a right of action shall accrue to the party injured for any direct damages sustained thereby; and in case of loss of life by reason of such willful violation or willful failure as aforesaid, a right of action shall accrue to the widow of the person so killed, his lineal heirs or adopted children, or to any other person or persons who were, before such loss of life dependent for support on the person or persons so killed, for a like recovery of damages for the injuries sustained by reason of such loss of life or lives.

Approved June 3, 1907.

Mine regulations—Shot firers.

(Page 401.)

SECTION 1. An act entitled "An Act providing that operators of mines shall furnish shot firers in mines where shooting and blasting is done," approved May 18, 1905, in force July 1, 1905, is amended to read as follows:

Sec. 2. In all mines in this State where coal is blasted, and where more than two pounds of powder is used for any one blast; and also in all mines in this State where gas is generated in dangerous quantities, a sufficient number of practical, experienced men to be designated as shot firers, shall be employed by the company and at its expense, whose duty it shall be to inspect and do all the firing of all blasts, prepared in a practical, workmanlike manner in said mine or mines.

Sec. 3. The shot firers shall, immediately after the completion of their work, post a notice in a conspicuous place at the mine, in which shall be indicated the number of shots fired; also the number of shots they did not fire, if any, specifying the number of the room and designation of the entry, and giving reasons for not firing the same. In addition they shall also keep a daily permanent record in which shall be entered the number of shots or blasts fired, the number of shots or blasts failing to explode, and the number of shots or blasts that in their judgment were not properly prepared and which they refuse to fire, giving reasons for the same, the record to be in the custody of the mine manager and to be available for inspection at all times by parties interested.

Sec. 4. The superintendent or mine manager shall not permit the shot firers to do any blasting, exploding of shots, or do any firing whatever until each and every miner and employee is out of the mine except the shot firers, mine superintendent, mine manager and man or men necessarily engaged in charge of the pumps and stables: *Provided however*, That nothing in this section shall be construed to prohibit the employment in such mine of a reasonably necessary number of men during such time for the purpose of securing the workings in case of fire therein.

Sec. 5. No miner or other person shall alter or change any drill hole, by increasing its depth, diameter or otherwise, after the same shall have been approved by the shot firer.

Sec. 6. No shot firer, whether voluntarily, or by command or request of any person, shall fire any unlawful shot, or any shot which in his judgment, exer-

cised as aforesaid, from his inspection thereof, made as aforesaid, shall not be a workmanlike, proper and practical shot.

Sec. 7. No person or persons shall order, command or induce by threats, or otherwise, any shot firer to fire any unlawful shot, or any shot which in his judgment, after due inspection, shall not be a workmanlike, proper and practical shot.

Sec. 8. Any willful neglect, refusal or failure to do the things required to be done by any section, clause or provision of this act on the part of the person or persons herein required to do them, or any violation of any of the provisions or requirements hereof, or any attempt to obstruct or interfere with any person in the discharge of the duties herein imposed upon them, or any refusal to comply with the provisions of this act, shall be deemed a misdemeanor, punishable by a fine not less than one hundred dollars and not to exceed two hundred dollars, or by imprisonment in the county jail for a period not exceeding three months, or both, at the discretion of the court: *Provided*, That whoever shall discover that any section of this act, or part thereof, is being neglected or violated shall report the same to the superintendent of the mines and ask immediate compliance therewith; and in case of continued failure to comply shall, through the State's attorney, or any other attorney, in case of his failure to act promptly, take the necessary legal steps to enforce compliance herewith, through and by means of the penalties herein prescribed.

Approved May 20, 1907.

[Other acts amending the mining law were passed, the principal changes being as follows: Making an operator failing to furnish a map of his mine guilty of a misdemeanor; giving the power of appointing the State mining board to the governor instead of to the commissioners of labor; providing for 10 inspectors and inspection districts instead of 7 as heretofore; abolishing the examination fee for mine managers, hoisting engineers and mine examiners; requiring the mine examiner to use an instrument to test air currents on his daily tour of inspection prior to the commencement of work; changing the maximum amount recoverable for loss of life caused by violation of the statute from \$5,000 to \$10,000; and limiting the period in which suit must be brought to one year after the death of the injured person.]

Employment of children—School attendance.

(Page 520.)

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 684, 685.)

INDIANA.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 11.—*Railroads—Trains not to be run without sufficient crew.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any railroad company doing business in the State of Indiana, that operates more than four (4) freight trains in every twenty-four hours, to operate over its road or any part thereof, or suffer or permit to be run over its road outside of the yard limits, any freight train consisting of more than fifty (50) freight or other cars, exclusive of caboose and engine, with less than a full train crew, consisting of six persons, to wit: One conductor, one engineer, one fireman, two brakemen and one flagman (such flagman to have had at least one year's experience in train service), and it shall be unlawful for any such railroad company that operates more than four (4) freight trains in every twenty-four hours, to run over its road, or any part thereof, outside of the yard limits, any freight train, consisting of less than fifty (50) freight cars or other cars, exclusive of caboose and engine, with less than a full crew for such a train, consisting of five (5) persons, to wit: One conductor, one engineer, one fireman, one brakeman and one flagman: *Provided, however*, That a light engine without cars shall have the following crew, to wit: One conductor, one flagman, one engineer and one fireman.

SEC. 2. It shall be unlawful for any railroad company doing business in the State of Indiana to run over its road or any part of its road, outside of yard limits, any passenger, mail or express train, consisting of five (5) or more cars, with less than a full passenger crew, consisting of one engineer, one fireman, one

conductor, one brakeman and one flagman (said brakeman or flagman shall not be required to perform the duties of baggage masters or express messengers).

SEC. 3. Any railroad company doing business in the State of Indiana, who shall send out on its road, or cause to be sent out on its road, any train which is not manned in accordance with sections 1 and 2 of this act, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction shall be fined not less than one hundred dollars (\$100) nor more than five hundred dollars (\$500) for each offense, and such company shall be liable for any damages caused by the violation of any of the provisions of this act.

SEC. 4. It shall be the duty of the board of railroad commissioners to have this law enforced.

Approved February 13, 1907.

CHAPTER 26.—*Railroad relief associations—Contracts.*

SECTION 1. No railroad company now existing, or hereafter created, under and by virtue of the laws of this State or any other State or country, and having and operating a line of railway in this State, may establish or maintain, or assist in establishing or maintaining any relief association or society, the rules or by-laws of which shall require of any person or employee becoming a member thereof to enter into a contract, agreement or stipulation, directly or indirectly, whereby such person or employee shall stipulate, or agree to surrender or waive any right of damage against any railroad company for personal injuries or death, or whereby such person or employee agrees to surrender or waive, in case he asserts such claim for damages, any right whatever, and any such agreement or contract, so signed by such person shall be null and void.

Approved February 21, 1907.

CHAPTER 64.—*Sunday labor—Barber shops.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any person or persons to carry on or engage in the art or calling of hair cutting, shaving, hair dressing and shampooing, or in any work pertaining to the trade or business of a barber, on the first day of the week, commonly called Sunday, except such person or persons shall be employed to exercise such art or calling in relation to a deceased person.

SEC. 2. It shall be unlawful for any such person or persons, association, firm, corporation or club to keep open their shops or places of business aforesaid, on said first day of the week, commonly called Sunday, for any of the purposes mentioned in section one of this act: *Provided, however,* That nothing in this act shall apply to persons who conscientiously believe the seventh day of the week should be observed as the Sabbath and who actually refrain from secular business on that day.

SEC. 3. Every person violating any of the provisions of this act shall, upon conviction thereof, be punished by a fine of not less than ten dollars nor more than twenty-five dollars for each offense, to which may be added imprisonment in the county jail not more than thirty days.

Approved February 26, 1907.

CHAPTER 118.—*Railroads—Safety appliances.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any common carrier engaged in moving traffic by railroad between points within this State to use on its line any locomotive in moving such traffic not equipped with power driving wheel brakes and appliances for operating the train brake system, or to run any train in such traffic that has not seventy-five per centum of the cars in such train equipped with power or train brakes, and having the brakes used and operated by the engineer of the locomotive drawing such train, and all power brake cars in such train shall be associated together and have their brakes used and operated: *Provided,* That this section shall not apply to the handling of trains or cars in yard service, or to a local train while engaged in performing switching service.

SEC. 2. It shall be unlawful for any such common carrier to haul, or permit to be hauled or used on its line, any locomotive, car, tender or similar vehicle used in moving State traffic not equipped with couplers coupling automatically by impact, and which can be uncoupled without the necessity of men going between the ends of the cars.

SEC. 3. It shall be unlawful for any such common carrier to haul, or permit to be hauled or used on its line, any locomotive, car, tender, or similar vehicle

used in moving of State traffic not provided with secure grab irons or hand holds in the sides or ends thereof.

SEC. 4. It shall be unlawful for any such common carrier to use any locomotive, tender, car, or similar vehicle used in the movement of State traffic, that is not provided with drawbars of standard height; to wit, standard gauge cars 34½ inches; narrow-gauge cars 26 inches; measured perpendicularly from the level of the tops of the rails to the centers of the drawbars; the maximum variation from such standard heights between drawbars of empty and loaded cars shall be 3 inches.

SEC. 5. The provisions of section[s] 1, 2, and 4 of this act shall also apply to locomotives, cars and trains used in passenger traffic between points within this State, in so far as the same are applicable to the vehicles used in passenger train traffic: *Provided*, That none of the provisions of sections 1, 2, 3, and 4 of this act shall apply to any street railroad, interurban or suburban street railroad.

SEC. 6. It shall be unlawful for any common carrier in this State operating an interurban railway by electric power to operate or run upon any railroad in this State any motor car used in regular interurban passenger traffic which is not equipped with an approved power air brake, in good condition, and subject to the control and operation of the motorman in charge of such car, and of sufficient capacity to control the speed of the car.

SEC. 7. The railroad commission of Indiana may, from time to time, after full hearing and for good cause shown, increase the minimum percentage of cars in any train required to be operated by power or train brakes, and a failure to comply with any such requirement of said commission shall be subject to a like penalty as a failure to comply with any requirement of this act. The said railroad commission of Indiana is hereby authorized to grant to any common carrier, subject to this act, upon full hearing and for good cause shown, a reasonable extension of time in which to comply with the provisions of this act: *Provided*, That in no case shall such extension, or extensions, in the aggregate, exceed the period of eighteen months from and after the approval of this act.

SEC. 8. Any such common carrier may refuse to receive from its connecting lines, or from any shipper, any car not equipped in accordance with the provisions of this act.

SEC. 9. It is hereby made the duty of the railroad commission of Indiana to enforce the provisions of this act, and it is hereby authorized, with the consent and approval of the governor, to appoint and pay an inspector, or inspectors, to assist in so doing and in collecting the necessary information required for that purpose, and such commission may adopt and promulgate all needful rules and regulations, not inconsistent with this act, to control the conduct of its inspectors and such carriers in reference to this act and such inspection. All carriers subject hereto shall provide free transportation, good in this State, for the inspectors employed by said commission to be used only while traveling on the business of the commission.

SEC. 10. Every such common carrier, or the receiver thereof, using, or permitting to be used or hauled on its line, any locomotive, tender, car, or similar vehicle or train, in violation of any of the provisions of this act, shall be liable to a penalty of one hundred dollars for each violation, to be recovered in a suit or suits to be brought by and in the name of the railroad commission of Indiana for the use of the State of Indiana in any circuit or superior court of this State having jurisdiction over any such offending carrier: *Provided*, That nothing in this act contained shall apply to locomotives, tenders, cars, or trains, exclusively used in the movement of logs, and when the height of the drawbars on such locomotives, tenders and cars does not exceed 25 inches, or to locomotives, tenders, cars, similar vehicles or trains while any of which are in actual use in interstate commerce.

SEC. 11. It shall be unlawful for any steam railroad carrier in this State which operates freight trains over its line in this State to maintain over or across its line in this State any overhead bridge, viaduct or other structure, the lowest point of which is less than twenty-one (21) feet above the level of the top of the rails in the track of any such carrier, without obtaining the permission of the railroad commission of Indiana so to do. It shall also be unlawful for any party, person, association, municipal or private corporation to hereafter construct or hereafter maintain across the track of any such steam railroad carrier any such overhead bridge, viaduct or other structure, the lowest point of which is less than twenty-one (21) feet above the level of the top of

the rails in any such track, without obtaining the permission of the railroad commission of Indiana so to do: *Provided, however,* That this section shall not apply to bridges, viaducts or other structures within the limits of any city or incorporated town in this State, nor shall this act operate to repeal or modify the laws of this State concerning the location and erection of wires across railroads, street railroads, interurban or suburban railroads.

SEC. 12. It shall hereafter be unlawful for any steam railroad carrier in this State engaged in operating a line of standard gauge railroad in this State, to build any structure of any kind, or any existing railway bridge, or to rebuild an existing structure of any kind, or any existing railway bridge, along the line of any such railroad in this State, in which that part of any such structure or bridge nearest the track shall be less than eighteen (18) inches from the nearest point of contact with the cab of the widest locomotive that is now or may hereafter be used, or less than eighteen (18) inches from the nearest point of contact with the widest part of any car that is now or hereafter may be used, on any such railroad, without first obtaining the permission of the railroad commission of Indiana so to do.

SEC. 13. Every such common carrier, party, person, association or municipal or private corporation which shall violate any of the provisions of sections 11 or 12 of this act, after receiving sixty days' notice from the railroad commission of Indiana that some provision of such sections is being violated, shall be subject to a penalty of five hundred dollars for each violation, to be recovered in an action to be brought by and in the name of the railroad commission of Indiana for and on behalf of the State of Indiana in any circuit or superior court in this State having jurisdiction of the offending party.

SEC. 14. Any employee of any such common carrier who may be killed or injured by any locomotive, tender, car, similar vehicle, or train in use contrary to the provisions of this act, or who shall be killed or injured on account of any of the structures forbidden in sections 11 and 12 of this act, shall not be deemed thereby to have assumed the risk thereby occasioned, although continuing in the employment of such carrier after the unlawful use of such locomotive, tender, car, similar vehicle, or train, or the maintenance of such unlawful structures named in sections 11 and 12 of this act, had been brought to his knowledge, nor shall any such employee be held as having contributed to his injury in any case where the carrier shall have violated any of the provisions of this act when such violation contributed to the death or injury of any such employee.

Approved March 8, 1907.

CHAPTER 120.—*Railroads—Bribery of employees.*

SECTION 1. Any person, being an officer, agent or employee of any common carrier doing business in this State, who shall, directly or indirectly, solicit, accept or receive from any person, firm or corporation any money, property or thing of value, in consideration for which such officer, agent or employee does, or agrees to do, or perform, any act for and on behalf of such carrier, and in the behalf of such person, firm or corporation, shall be guilty of bribery, and upon conviction thereof shall be fined not less than twenty-five dollars nor more than one hundred dollars.

SEC. 2. Any person or corporation, or any agent, employee or officer of any firm or corporation, who shall, directly or indirectly, offer, pay or deliver to any officer, agent or employee of any common carrier doing business in this State, any money, property or thing of value, in consideration for which such officer, agent or employee does, or agrees to do, or perform, any act for and on behalf of such carrier, and in the behalf of such person, firm or corporation, shall be guilty of bribery, and upon conviction thereof shall be fined not less than twenty-five dollars nor more than one hundred dollars: *Provided,* That the payment and acceptance of the established and regular charges imposed by any such common carrier for services performed by it shall not constitute either of the crimes defined by this act.

Approved March 8, 1907.

CHAPTER 121.—*Mine regulations—Washhouses.*

SECTION 1. For the protection of the health of the employees hereinafter mentioned it shall be the duty of the owner, operator, lessee, superintendent of, or other person in charge of every coal mine or colliery, or other place where

laborers employed are surrounded by or affected by similar conditions as employees in coal mines, at the request in writing of twenty (20) or more employees of such mine or place, or in event there are less than twenty (20) men employed, then upon the written request of one-third ($\frac{1}{3}$) of the number of employees employed, to provide a suitable wash room or washhouse for the use of persons employed, so that they may change their clothing before beginning work, and wash themselves, and change their clothing after working. That said building or room shall be a separate building or room from the engine or boiler room, and shall be maintained in good order, be properly lighted and heated, and be supplied with clean cold and warm water, and shall be provided with all necessary facilities for persons to wash, and also provided with suitable lockers for the safe-keeping of clothing: *Provided, however*, That the owner, operator, lessee, superintendent of or other person in charge of such mine or place as aforesaid shall not be required to furnish soap or towels.

SEC. 2. If any person, persons or corporation shall neglect or fail to comply with the provisions of this act, or shall maliciously injure or destroy or cause to be injured or destroyed said building or room, or any part thereof or any of its appliances or fittings used for supplying light, heat or water therein, or shall do any act tending to the injury or destruction thereof, he or they shall be guilty of misdemeanor, and upon conviction shall be fined in any sum not to exceed five hundred (\$500) dollars, to which fine may be added imprisonment in the county jail not to exceed sixty (60) days.

Approved March 8, 1907.

CHAPTER 131.—*Railroads—Hours of labor of employees.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any superintendent, train dispatcher, yard master, foreman or other railway official, to permit, exact, demand or require any engineer, fireman, conductor, brakeman, switchman, telegraph operator or other employee engaged in the movement of passenger or freight trains, or in switching service, in yards or railway stations, to remain on duty more than sixteen consecutive hours, except when by casualty occurring after such employee has started on his trip, or by unknown casualty occurring before he started on his trip, he is prevented from reaching his terminal, or to require or permit any such employee who has been on duty sixteen consecutive hours, to go on duty without having had at least eight hours off duty, or to require or permit any such employee who has been on duty sixteen hours in the aggregate in any twenty-four-hour period, to continue on duty or go on duty without having had at least eight hours off duty within such twenty-four-hour period.

SEC. 2. For any violation of or failure to comply with any of the provisions of this act, such company shall be liable to all persons and employees injured by reason thereof, and no employee shall in any case be held to have assumed the risk incurred by reason of such violation or failure.

SEC. 3. Any superintendent, train dispatcher, train master, foreman or other official of any railway, in the State of Indiana, violating any of the provisions of this act, is hereby declared to be guilty of a misdemeanor and upon conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine of not less than one hundred dollars nor more than five hundred dollars, and it shall be the duty of the railroad commission to fully investigate all cases of the violation of this act and to lodge with the attorney-general information of such violation as may come to its knowledge.

SEC. 4. The provisions of this act shall not apply to relief or wreck trains while clearing obstructions to the main line of any railroad.

Approved March 8, 1907.

CHAPTER 197.—*Mine regulations—Width of entries.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any owner, lessee, agent or operator of any coal mine within the State of Indiana, to make, dig, construct, or cause to be made, dug, or constructed any entry or track way after the taking effect of this act, in any coal mine in the State of Indiana where drivers are required to drive with mine car or cars unless there shall be a space provided on one or both sides continuously of any track or tracks measured from the rail, in any such entry of at least two (2) feet width, free from any props, loose slate, debris or other obstruction so that the driver may get away from the car or cars and track in event of collision, wreck or other accident. It shall be unlawful for any employee, person or persons to knowingly, purposely, or mal-

closely place any obstruction within said space as herein provided: *Provided*, That the geological veins of coal numbers three and four commonly known as the lower and upper veins in the block coal fields of Indiana shall be exempt from the provisions of this act.

SEC. 2. Any such owner, lessee, operator, person or persons, violating any of the provisions of this act shall be guilty of misdemeanor and upon conviction thereof shall be fined in any sum not to exceed two hundred dollars and to which fine may be added imprisonment in the county jail, not to exceed sixty days.

Approved March 9, 1907.

CHAPTER 204.—*Mine regulations—Blasting, etc.—Inspectors.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any person to take or have in his possession, or under his control within any coal mine in the State of Indiana, any dynamite cap, dynamite or other high explosive without first obtaining in writing the consent of the mine foreman or other person in charge of the operation of said mine, setting forth the use for which any such cap or explosive may be particularly intended.

SEC. 2. It shall be unlawful for any person for the purpose of blasting coal in any mine in this State, to prepare any "shot" in such a way that the distance from the drill hole to the "loose end," "chance" or end of cutting shall be more than five feet measured at right angles to the direction of the hole; or to place any charge of powder or other explosive in any drill hole prepared for any "shot" in which the breast of coal to be dislodged is of greater width than the depth of the drill hole; or to use in preparing any "shot" more than six pounds of powder; or to place any powder in any drill hole for the purpose of preparing any shot without measuring the amount so placed therein with a substantial measure so made as to indicate the weight of blasting powder measured therein; or to open a keg, can or other package containing powder, by means of a pick or in any other manner except in pursuance of the manner provided in the manufacture of such keg, can or package; or to sell or offer for sale any keg, can or package containing powder unless such can, keg or package be provided with a sufficient device for opening the same and permitting the discharge therefrom of all the powder therein contained; or to store any blasting powder, dynamite or other high explosive in any coal mine; or to prepare any drill bit more than two and one-half inches in diameter to be used in boring holes for the purpose of preparing any shot; or to use any dynamite or other high explosive in conjunction with black powder.

SEC. 3. It shall be unlawful for any person for the purpose of blasting coal in any mine in this State, except in any mine producing block coal, to drill any hole past the end of his cutting, "loose end" or "chance."

SEC. 4. If upon inspection of any working place in any coal mine there shall be found the remnants of drill holes drilled past the cutting, loose end or chance, or the remnants of any shot measuring more than the maximum width, or if any miner shall be found to have in his possession in his working place any keg, can or package containing powder and which has been opened in any other manner than that provided by law, the same or either thereof respectively shall be and constitute prima facie evidence that the workman in whose working place such evidence is found is guilty of a violation of sections 2 or 3 or [of] this act, or a part thereof, as the case may be.

SEC. 5. It shall be unlawful in any coal mine for any person to explode or light any shot in any working place simultaneously with the explosion or lighting of any shot by the same or any other person in any other working place on the same entry, except in working places where the coal is undercut by [by] machinery.

SEC. 6. At all coal mines where any escape way or manway is hereafter constructed, the same shall be provided with a good and sufficient stairway, according to the specifications for mine stairways now provided by law, and of suitable design and strength to accomplish the purpose for which it is intended.

SEC. 7. It shall be unlawful for any person desiring carriage upon any cage to approach nearer than six (6) feet to any "cage landing" when such cage is not at rest at such landing; or to crowd on to said cage in a rude or boisterous manner; or to enter upon any such cage when there are already upon the same one person for each three square feet of the floor space of such cage: *Provided*, That nothing herein contained shall affect any person in charge of the operation of such cage or the machinery moving or affecting the same: And, provided

further, That as many persons may after the passage of this act enter a cage for carriage as the same will accommodate, giving each person three square feet of floor space.

SEC. 8. It shall be the duty of the operator or owner of any coal mine wherein fire clay or other noninflammable material suitable for use in tamping in preparing shots can not be readily obtained, to provide and deposit within said mine such material, and at points within five hundred feet from the face of each entry in such mine. In case any dispute may arise as to the construction proper to be placed upon the above provision, or as to the duty of any such operator or owner thereunder, such dispute shall be finally determined by the inspector of mines.

SEC. 9. At any coal mine in the State where the miners working therein so elect, persons may be employed to act as shot firers, and their wages shall be paid by the miners working therein: *Provided*, That nothing herein contained shall affect any existing contract as to shot firers.

SEC. 10. The result of all coal mine inspections made by the inspector of mines or any of his assistants, showing all his conclusions as to the condition of safety of the mines and orders given in the inspection of any coal mine shall be posted in writing at the entrance to such mine immediately upon the conclusion of each inspection. The inspector of mines or his assistants shall make personal inspection of all coal mines in the State at least three times each year instead of twice each year, as heretofore provided by law, and to enable said inspector and his assistants to discharge all the duties created by this act and other acts the number of his assistants is hereby increased from two to four. Such additional assistants shall possess the same qualifications and perform the same duties required by this and any and all other laws, and shall be appointed, empowered, and in all things governed in the same manner and by the same laws applicable to assistants to such inspector of mines heretofore existing under former laws. Such additional assistants shall each receive for his services the sum of one thousand two hundred dollars per annum; and for expenses they shall receive the sum actually and necessarily expended for that purpose in the discharge of their official duties, all to be paid quarterly by the State treasurer from funds in the State treasury not otherwise appropriated. All expense shall be sworn to and shall show the items of expense in detail. Such inspector and each of his assistants are hereby charged with the duty of enforcing this act and all other laws relating to the health and safety of persons and property employed and used in and about the coal mines of the State.

SEC. 11. The inspector of mines and each of his assistants are hereby empowered to act as police officers, with full powers to arrest and detain any person found violating any provisions of this act or any other mining law, or engaged in any attempt to violate any such law or part thereof, or against whom there is found any evidence of a previous violation of such law: *Provided, however*, That no such person shall be detained for any period of time longer than twenty-four hours without warrant or the filing of a charge against him in a court of competent jurisdiction. Such inspector and each of his assistants shall also have power to immediately stop the operation of any coal mine, or part thereof, in which any dangerous or unlawful condition is found: *Provided, however*, That where conditions exist justifying him to do so, he may grant a reasonable length of time for making necessary repairs: *And, provided further*, That where any stop is enforced, such inspector and his assistants shall each have power to subsequently allow such mine or part of mine to be reopened when the dangerous or unlawful conditions have been remedied or removed, so that they no longer exist.

SEC. 12. The inspector of mines shall have power in his discretion to order the sprinkling of any coal mine or part of mine by notice in writing to the operator thereof, or person in charge of the same, and after receiving such notice it shall be unlawful for any person to act in violation thereof and to omit such sprinkling. Copies of any notices given hereunder shall be posted at the mine entrance by the inspector of mines.

SEC. 13. After the passage of this act no further certificates of service shall be issued by the inspector of mines to any person to act as mine boss, fire boss or hoisting engineer: *Provided, however*, That nothing herein contained shall affect any certificate of service heretofore issued.

SEC. 14. Any persons violating any provision of this act or willfully refusing, neglecting or failing to do anything required to be done by any provision hereof by such person, or obstructing or attempting to obstruct or interfere with the

Inspector of mines or any of his assistants in the discharge of any duty imposed by law, or refusing, falling or neglecting to comply with the proper orders of the inspector of mines or his assistants, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor punishable on conviction by a fine not exceeding five hundred dollars, to which may be added imprisonment in the county jail for a period not exceeding six months, in the discretion of the court or jury trying any such cause.

SEC. 15. Whoever, being an inspector of mines or an assistant thereof, shall fail, neglect or refuse to perform any duty required of him by this or any other law relating to the health and safety of persons employed in coal mines and matters connected therewith, shall upon conviction thereof be fined not to exceed five hundred dollars, and upon a second conviction for an offense hereunder shall, upon certification of judgment thereof to the proper officer holding the power of appointing his successor, be immediately removed from office by such officer without any further proceedings.

SEC. 16. On, or before January 1, 1909, and biennially thereafter, it shall be the duty of the State geologist and chemist to the State board of health to prepare a list of questions on the subjects of mine engineering, chemistry as applied to coal mining, and the practical operations of coal mining as concerns the coal mining industry in Indiana. These questions shall be so prepared and the answers so graded that it shall be possible for an applicant to make twenty-five (25) points on the questions relating to mine engineering; twenty-five (25) points on the questions relating to chemistry as applied to coal mining; and fifty (50) points on the questions relating to the practical operations of coal mining.

SEC. 17. Within fifteen (15) days from the first day of January, 1909, and biennially thereafter, the chemist to the State board of health shall hold an examination, using the said list of prepared questions, in the State capitol, which examination shall be open to any male citizen of the State of over twenty-one (21) years of age, of good moral character, who has had at least five years' experience as a practical coal miner, and shall grade the manuscripts of all persons taking such examination, and shall prepare and certify to the State geologist an eligible list of all applicants who shall make a grade of 85 per cent or greater.

SEC. 18. The State geologist immediately thereafter shall appoint from said eligible list an inspector of mines to serve for a period of two (2) years; and the inspector of mines thus appointed shall appoint from said eligible list his deputies, as now or hereafter may be provided by law. Said inspector shall qualify as now provided by law, and shall have all the powers, duties and compensation as now provided by law, and shall be subject to removal by said geologist for cause, as provided by law. In case of death, resignation or removal of the inspector of mines, the State geologist shall appoint his successor from said eligible list.

SEC. 19. The assistant inspector of mines shall qualify as now provided by law, and shall have the same powers, duties and compensation, with traveling expenses, as now provided by law. Said assistant inspectors of mines may be removed by the inspector of mines, as now provided by law. In case of death, resignation or removal of any of said assistant inspectors of mines, the inspector of mines shall appoint his successor from said eligible list.

SEC. 20. In case the said eligible list shall be exhausted before the date of regular biennial examination, appointments shall be made from the list of applicants who passed the last examination: *Provided*, That the person holding the highest grade shall be first chosen.

SEC. 21. The provisions of this act shall be cumulative of other laws upon the subject of coal mining: *Provided, however*, That all laws and parts of laws in conflict herewith are hereby repealed.

Approved, March 9, 1907.

CHAPTER 205.—*Railroads—Block system to be installed.*

SECTION 1. After the 1st day of July, 1909, it shall be unlawful for any person, firm or corporation, or the lessee or receiver of any person, firm or corporation, which shall own or operate any line of railroad in this State, to operate any train over such railroad by steam power unless such railroad is equipped with and has in operation an approved block system for the control of train movements thereon: *Provided*, That the provisions of this section shall not apply to any such railroad as shall not have a gross annual income from operation of *seventy-five hundred (\$7,500) dollars or more per mile of line, to be determined from its last preceding annual report to the railroad commission of Indiana.*

SEC. 2. Power and authority are hereby conferred upon the railroad commission of Indiana to extend the time specified in section one of this act when it shall be made to appear to it that a reasonable necessity for such extension shall exist, provided that the extension so granted shall not exceed one year. Full power and authority are also conferred upon such commission to relieve any such party from complying with this act as to any branch or spur lines when it shall be made to appear that no reasonable necessity therefor exists. Full power and authority are also hereby conferred upon such commission to relieve any such party from the obligations imposed by section one of this act when it shall be made to appear that the volume of traffic and train movement over any such railroad are such only that the same can be dispatched without substantial hazard to life and property over a line not so protected.

SEC. 3. Any person, firm or corporation, receiver or lessee who or which shall violate section one of this act shall forfeit and pay to the State of Indiana the sum of one thousand dollars per week for each week that trains shall be operated over any such railroad in violation of such section, the same to be collected by the railroad commission of Indiana by a suit in its name for the use of the State of Indiana in any court of competent jurisdiction.

Approved March 9, 1907.

CHAPTER 241.—*Accidents on railroads.*

SECTION 19. Section 23 of said act [of February 28, 1905] shall be amended so as to read as follows: Section 23 * * * It shall be the duty of said commission to keep informed as to the condition of railroads and railways and the manner in which they are operated with reference to the security and accommodation of the public, and as to the compliance of the several corporations with their charters and the laws of the State.

(a) Every railroad company subject hereto shall report to the [railroad] commission within five (5) days after it has occurred, every accident and the general cause thereof, involving loss of life, or serious injury to passenger or employee, and within twenty days after such accident the company shall make a full report of the cause thereof to the commission, and the commission shall investigate in such manner and by such persons as it may deem best, the causes of any accident on any railroad involving loss of life, and every corporation at all times, shall furnish to the commission, its appointees, or its inspectors any information relative to such accidents. Such reports and information shall not be used in the trial of any suits for damages arising out of said accidents, and the commission shall not give publicity to such information if in its judgment the public interests do not require it. After such investigation, the said commission shall make a report to the railroad company of its conclusion and recommendations regarding such accidents and the causes thereof, and the proper steps to be taken by the railroad company to prevent like accidents, and unless the railroad company shall in a reasonable time comply with and carry out said recommendations, said commission shall make the same public, if it shall deem best so to do, by publishing the same in any newspaper or newspapers in this State, or in the locality where the accident took place. * * *

Approved March 9, 1907.

CHAPTER 272.—*Railroads—Rules for employees—Accidents.*

SECTION 1. Every person, firm or corporation operating trains by steam power on railroads in this State, shall publish printed rules for the control and operation of such trains and shall deliver copies thereof to all persons engaged in the operation of such trains and file a copy thereof with the railroad commission of Indiana, and shall instruct such employees in the application of such rules and examine such employees thereon at least once in each six months after employment until the service has continued for eighteen months, and annually thereafter. Any person, firm or corporation failing to observe the provisions of this section shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and upon conviction thereof, for each offense, shall be fined not less than twenty-five dollars nor more than two hundred dollars.

SEC. 2. Be it further enacted that the railroad commission of Indiana shall call together in convention, at least once in every year, the division superintendents and such other operating and dispatching officers and employees of the steam railroads of this State as the commission may deem best, and shall place before said convention the reports filed with the railroad commission with ref-

erence to railroad accidents that have taken place during the year, together with such findings and conclusions thereon as such commission shall have made, and said convention shall thoroughly investigate said reports, findings and conclusions and discuss the same with a view to taking such steps by the commission, by such railroad companies and by their officers and employees as may be necessary or expedient to prevent such accidents.

SEC. 3. Be it further enacted, that it is hereby declared to be unlawful for any agent, officer or employee of any person, firm or corporation engaged in the operation of railroad trains by steam power in this State, to be or become intoxicated while in the performance of his duties as such, and it is also hereby declared to be unlawful for any such person to operate any such train or give orders or directions for the operation of any such train contrary to the printed rules of his company, regulating the operation of railroad trains by steam power in this State, which are required by section one of this act, and it is further declared to be unlawful for any such person to operate any such train or direct the operation of any such train in violation of any law of this State, and any such person so offending shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and upon conviction thereof shall be fined not less than twenty-five dollars and not more than five hundred dollars.

SEC. 4. Be it further enacted that whenever the railroad commission of Indiana, in the investigation of any accident involving loss of life, shall come to the conclusion that the accident occurred on account of the violation of the printed rules for the operation of trains, as required by section one of this act, by any officer or employee of any railroad company operated by steam power in this State, the commission may, if it deems best so to do, and the neglect of duty or violation of the rules is flagrant or has been brought about by the intoxication of any person while on duty, report such person to the prosecuting attorney of the county wherein the accident occurred for prosecution under the criminal laws of this State.

SEC. 5. Be it further enacted, that copies of this act, within sixty days after the same goes into effect, shall be, by the companies subject hereto, printed and conspicuously posted in the train cabooses, depots, and offices of train dispatchers and upon the bulletin boards at division headquarters of said companies.

Approved March 12, 1907.

IOWA.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 103.—Hours of labor of employees on railroads.

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any railway company within the State of Iowa, or any of its officers or agents to require or permit any employee engaged in or connected with the movement of any rolling stock, engine or train, to remain on duty more than sixteen (16) consecutive hours, or to require or permit any such employee who has been on duty sixteen (16) consecutive hours to perform any further service without having had at least ten hours for rest, or to require or permit any such employee to be on duty at any time to exceed sixteen (16) hours in any consecutive twenty-four (24) hours: *Provided, however,* That this section shall not apply to work performed in the protection of life or property in cases of accident, wreck, or other unavoidable casualty, or prevent train crews from taking a passenger train, or freight train loaded exclusively with live stock or perishable freight, to the next nearest division point upon such railroad: *And provided further,* That it shall not apply to that time necessary for the trainmen to reach a resting place when an accident, wreck, washout, snow blockade or other unavoidable cause has delayed their train: *And provided further,* That this section shall not apply to employees of sleeping-car companies.

SEC. 2. Any superintendent, train master, train dispatcher, yard master or other official of any railroad in the State of Iowa, violating any of the provisions of this act, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction shall be punished by a fine of not less than one hundred dollars (\$100) and not more than five hundred dollars (\$500) for each offense. It shall be the duty of the board of railroad commissioners to receive written statements of violations of this act and when so requested to hold the same without disclosure of the name of the person making such statement, and to investigate each and every complaint filed alleging such violation. The board

In making such investigation shall have the power to administer oaths, interrogate witnesses, take testimony, and require the production of books and papers, and must file a report of such investigation in writing with a full statement of its finding to the governor. In all cases of violation of this act, the board of railroad commissioners, through the attorney-general, must at once begin the prosecution of all parties against whom evidence of violation is found; but this act shall not be construed to prevent any other person from beginning prosecution for violation hereof.

Approved April 2, A. D. 1907.

CHAPTER 109.—*Height of wires over railroad tracks.*

SECTION 1. The railroad commissioners of this State shall have general supervision over any and all wires for transmitting electric current or any other wire whatsoever crossing under or over any track of a railroad in this State.

SEC. 2. Within thirty (30) days from the taking effect of this act said railroad commissioners shall make regulations prescribing the manner in which such wires shall cross such railroad tracks in this State.

SEC. 3. It shall hereafter be unlawful for any corporation or person to place or string any such wire for transmitting electric current or any wire whatsoever across any track of a railroad in this State except in such manner as may be prescribed by the railroad commissioners as provided by this act.

SEC. 4. The board of railroad commissioners shall, as soon as possible after the taking effect of this act, either by personal examination or otherwise, obtain information where the tracks or railroads are crossed by wires strung over said tracks, contrary to or not in compliance with the rules prescribed by the railroad commissioners as contemplated by this act, and shall order such change or changes to be made by the persons or corporations owning or operating such wires as it may deem necessary to make the same comply with said rules and within such reasonable time as it may prescribe.

SEC. 5. In case such wires cross over said track, in no case shall said board of railroad commissioners prescribe a less height than twenty-two (22) feet above the top of the rails of any railroad track for any wire.

SEC. 6. The board of railroad commissioners are hereby authorized to provide for and regulate the crossing of wires over and across railroad rights of way at highways and other places within the State.

SEC. 7. Any person or corporation who string or maintain any wire across any railroad track in this State at a different height or in a different manner from that prescribed by the said board of railroad commissioners shall forfeit and pay to the State of Iowa the sum of one hundred dollars (\$100) for each separate period of ten days during which such wire is so maintained, said forfeiture to be recovered in a civil action brought in any court of competent jurisdiction in the name of the State of Iowa, by the attorney-general, or by the county attorney of the county in which such wire is situated, at the request of the said board of railroad commissioners, and it is hereby made the duty of the said attorney-general and county attorney to bring such action forthwith upon being so requested.

Approved April 6, A. D. 1907.

CHAPTER 110.—*Accidents on railroads.*

SECTION 1. Upon the occurrence of any serious accident upon any railroad within this State, which shall result in personal injury, or loss of life, the corporation operating the road upon which the accident occurred shall give immediate notice thereof to the board of railroad commissioners whose duty it shall be, if they deem it necessary, to investigate the same, and promptly report to the governor the extent of the personal injuries, or loss of life, and whether the same was the result of mismanagement or neglect of the corporation on whose line the injury or loss of life occurred: *Provided*, That such report shall not be evidence or referred to in any case in any court.

Approved March 27, A. D. 1907.

CHAPTER 128.—*Employment offices.*

SECTION 1. Every person, firm or corporation who shall agree or promise, or who shall advertise through the public press, or by letter, to furnish employ-

ment or situations to any person or persons, and in pursuance of such advertisement, agreement or promise, shall receive any money, personal property or other valuable thing whatsoever, and who shall fail to procure for such person or persons acceptable situations or employment as agreed upon, within the time stated, or agreed upon, or if no time be specified then within a reasonable time, shall upon demand return all such money, personal property or valuable consideration of whatever character, except an amount not to exceed one dollar to be charged as a filing fee.

SEC. 2. It shall be unlawful for any person, firm or corporation to receive any application for employment from, or enter into any agreement with, any person to furnish or procure for said person any employment unless there is delivered to any such person making such application or contract at the time of the making thereof a true and full copy of such application or agreement, which application or agreement shall specify the fee or consideration to be paid by the person seeking employment.

SEC. 3. It shall be unlawful for any person, firm or corporation or any person employed or authorized by such person, firm or corporation to hire or discharge employees, to receive any part of any fee or any percentage of wages or any compensation of any kind whatever, that is agreed upon to be paid by any employee of said person, firm or corporation to any employment bureau or agency for services rendered to any such employee in procuring for him employment with said person, firm or corporation.

SEC. 4. The commissioner of the bureau of labor statistics, or his deputy, shall have authority to examine at any time the records, books and any papers relating in any way to the conduct of any employment agency or bureau within the State, and must investigate any complaint made against any such employment agency or bureau, and if any violations of law are found he shall at once file or cause to be filed an information against any person, firm or corporation guilty of such violation of law.

SEC. 5. Any person, firm or corporation violating any of the provisions of this act, or who shall refuse access to records, books or other papers relative to the conduct of such agency or bureau, to any person having authority to examine same, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor and upon conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine not exceeding one hundred dollars (\$100.00), or imprisonment in the county jail not to exceed thirty days.

Approved March 27, A. D. 1907.

CHAPTER 130.—*Mine regulations—Powder.*

SECTION 1. No person, firm or corporation, shall be permitted to transport, carry or convey by any electrical process whatever, any powder or other explosive, into any coal mine where twenty or more persons are employed therein until after the coal miners and other employees have ceased their work and have departed from the mines.

SEC. 2. No operator or other person in charge of any coal mine, shall suffer or permit under any circumstances the storing of powder, or other explosives, in any coal mine except as follows: Each miner shall be permitted to have in his separate and individual possession at one time not more than two kegs containing twenty-five pounds of powder each, and other explosives sufficient for one day's use. Such powder, or other explosives, shall be kept by the miner in a wooden or metallic box or boxes securely locked, and said boxes shall be kept at a reasonable distance from the track; nor shall black powder and high explosives be kept in the same box.

SEC. 3. It shall not be construed as storing powder, as defined in section two hereof, to deposit the powder, or other explosives, at the end of the electrical or mechanical haulage at the face of the mine for the following day's use: *Provided*, That it is transported, conveyed or deposited in conformity with the provisions of section one hereof.

SEC. 4. The transportation and delivery of all powder and other explosives in said coal mines shall be done by the operator or by men employed by him for that purpose.

SEC. 5. Any person, firm or corporation violating any of the provisions of this act shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and upon conviction shall be fined in any sum not exceeding one hundred dollars, or be imprisoned in the county jail not exceeding thirty days.

Approved April 13, A. D. 1907.

CHAPTER 181.—*Liability of employers for injuries to employees—Assumption of risk.*

(See p. 63, above.)

CHAPTER 183.—*Bribery of employees.*

SECTION 1 (as amended by chapter 184, Acts of 1907). It shall be unlawful for any agent, representative or employee, officer or any agent of a private corporation, or a public officer, acting in behalf of a principal in any business transaction, to receive, for his own use, directly or indirectly, any gift, commission, discount, bonus or gratuity connected with, relating to or growing out of such business transaction: and it shall be likewise unlawful for any person, whether acting in his own behalf or in behalf of any copartnership, association or corporation, to offer, promise or give directly or indirectly any such gift, commission, discount, bonus or gratuity. Any person violating the provisions of this act or any of them shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine of not less than twenty-five dollars (\$25), nor more than five hundred dollars (\$500), or by imprisonment in the county jail for not more than one year, or by both such fine and imprisonment: *Provided*, This act shall not apply to those cases in which the principals, being the contracting parties, have knowledge of and consent to the payment of a commission to an agent or representative."

Sec. 2. No person shall be excused from attending, testifying or producing books, papers, contracts, agreements and documents before any court or in obedience to the subpoena of any court having jurisdiction of the misdemeanor on the ground or for the reason that the testimony or evidence, documentary, or otherwise, required of him, may tend to incriminate him or to subject him to a penalty or forfeiture. But no person shall be liable to any criminal prosecution, for or on account of any transaction, matter or thing concerning which he may testify or produce evidence, documentary or otherwise, before said court or in obedience to its subpoena or in any such case or proceeding: *Provided*, That no person so testifying or producing any such books, papers, contracts, agreements or documents shall be exempted from prosecution and punishment for perjury committed in so testifying.

Approved April 5, A. D. 1907.

KANSAS.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 249.—*Mine regulations—Entries.*

SECTION 1. In all cases where any coal mine now in operation in this State, with its principal or main shaft of a depth of one thousand feet or more, and has no air or escapement shaft other than its main or principal shaft, the time in which to complete such air or escapement shaft, as required by chapter 304, Laws of Kansas, 1905, page 473, is hereby extended two years from the 1st day of March, A. D. 1907: *Provided*, That work on said escapement shaft shall commence within sixty days of the taking effect of this act, and shall continue, barring unavoidable accidents, until said escapement shaft shall be completed.

Approved February 21, 1907.

CHAPTER 250.—*Mine regulations—Powder.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any individual, firm, or corporation to sell, offer for sale or deliver for use at any coal mine or mines in the State of Kansas, black powder in any manner except in original packages containing twelve and one-half pounds of powder, said package to be securely sealed; said powder to be delivered by the company to the miner at its powder house, not more than three hundred feet from pit head, unless hereafter otherwise provided by contract: *Provided, however*, This act shall not be construed as in any manner conflicting with any existing contract of sale of black powder.

Sec. 2. It shall be unlawful for any miner, mine laborer or other person in any mine or mines to open any original package of powder in any manner other than unsealing the seal thereof.

SEC. 3. It shall be unlawful for any miner, mine laborer or other person or persons to take, convey, or cause to be taken or conveyed, into any mine or mines in the State of Kansas, black powder in any other manner except as provided in section 1 of this act. It shall be unlawful for any miner, laborer or other person to use any pick or other metal substance or instrument in opening any can containing powder in the mine: *Provided*, That any can filled with powder so received and opened by any miner or other person shall be returned, complete, when emptied, at the miner's working switch, to the company furnishing the same, before such miner or other person shall receive another can of powder.

SEC. 4. No powder shall be delivered by hauling the same in any car hauled by an electric motor, unless the car in which the powder is hauled for delivery is thoroughly insulated.

SEC. 5. Any person or corporation or officers or employees of any corporation violating any of the provisions of sections 1 and 4 of this act shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof in any court of competent jurisdiction shall be fined not exceeding fifty dollars for each offense.

SEC. 6. Any miner, mine laborer or other person who shall violate the provisions of sections 2 or 3 of this act shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof in any court of competent jurisdiction shall be fined not exceeding ten dollars for each offense.

Approved March 5, 1907.

CHAPTER 251.—*Mine regulations—Inspection.*

SECTION 1. Section 2 of chapter 257 of the Session Laws of 1901 is hereby amended so as to read as follows: Section 2. That the State mine inspector may be enabled to perform the duties here imposed upon him, he shall have the right at all times to enter any coal mine to make examination or obtain information. If, in any coal mine or underground workings of the character mentioned in section 1 of this act, or in any portion of such mine or workings, because of improper or inadequate ventilation, the presence of stagnant or noxious or explosive gases, inadequate or improper air ways or air gates, or the use or presence, with the knowledge, connivance or consent of the operator or person in active charge of said mine, for illuminating purposes, of oil, other than lard, or other equally safe first-class oil, lack of adequate and lawful stairways, break throughs, or manholes, or for any other reasons within the power of the operator, owner or lessee, by the exercise of ordinary care, to remove or guard against, or cause to be removed or guarded against, be or become injurious to the health or dangerous to the lives or limbs of persons working in such mine or part of mine, the State mine inspector shall notify the owners, lessees or agents, immediately, of the discovery of any violation of this act, and of the penalty imposed thereby for such violation, and in case of such notice being disregarded for the space of ten days, he shall institute prosecution against the owner, owners, lessees or agents of the mine, under the provisions of section 16, chapter 159, Laws of 1897. In any case, however, where in the judgment of such inspector delay may jeopardize life or limb, he shall at once proceed to the mine where the alleged danger exists and examine into the matter, and if after full investigation thereof he shall be of the opinion that there is immediate danger to life or limb by reason of the unsafe condition of said mine or some part thereof, he shall immediately order the owner, lessee, operator, agent, manager, superintendent or person in charge of the mine to forthwith repair and put in reasonably safe condition such dangerous mine or part of mine, or suspend all work in and about such mine or parts of mine found to be in fact dangerous to life or limb; and in the event that said owner, lessee, operator, agent, manager, superintendent or person in charge of the mine fails to use due diligence in causing the repairs so ordered to be made in the time specified by said mine inspector, then said mine inspector shall order the owner, lessee, operator, agent, manager, superintendent or person in charge of the mine to immediately suspend all work in and about such mine or parts of mine found to be in fact dangerous to life or limb; and if the owner, lessee, operator, agent, manager, superintendent or other person in charge of the mine shall refuse or neglect to comply with such order, when such mine or some part thereof is in fact dangerous to the life or limb of parties working therein, and forthwith repair or suspend all work in or about such mine or parts of mine so found to be in fact dangerous, he shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof shall be

ined not exceeding four hundred dollars. Work in and about such mine or parts of mine so found to be dangerous shall not be resumed until permission of the inspector is first obtained, unless by order of some court of competent jurisdiction. In case of the inspector making such order, the owner, operator, superintendent or other person in charge of such mine may bring an action in any court of competent jurisdiction to enjoin the inspector from interfering with the operation of the mine, but no injunction shall be granted upon such application without twenty-four hours' notice to the inspector, and a hearing upon such application. Said notice may be personally served upon said inspector or his deputy, if found in the country [county], but if said inspector or his deputy can not be found in the country [county] where said action is commenced, then notice or summons may be served [on] said inspector by placing a certified copy thereof, securely sealing, stamping, addressing and mailing same to said inspector, at the post-office nearest the mine sought to be closed by said inspector; and a return of the sheriff showing service of notice or summons can not be served on the inspector or his deputy in said county shall be sufficient grounds upon which to obtain service by mailing same as above provided.

Approved February 27, 1907.

CHAPTER 280.—*Hours of labor of employes on railroads.*

SECTION 1. Section 1 of chapter 342 of the Session Laws of 1905 [shall] be amended to read as follows: Section 1. It shall be unlawful for any corporation or receiver operating a line of railroads [railroad] in whole or in part in the State of Kansas, for any officer, agent or representative of such corporation or receiver, to require or permit any conductor, engineer, fireman, brakeman, train dispatcher, telegraph operator or any trainman who has worked in his respective capacity for sixteen consecutive hours to continue on duty or perform any work for such railroad until he has had at least eight hours' rest: *Provided*, That this act shall not apply in case of washout, wrecks, or unavoidable blockades, nor shall it be construed to prevent the crew of a train which contains live stock or perishable freight in carload lots from running to the next division point after the expiration of the time limit provided for in this act: *Provided further*, That this section shall not apply to employes of sleeping-car companies, baggagemen, and express messengers.

SEC. 2. Section 2 of chapter 342 of the Session Laws of 1905 [shall] be amended to read as follows: Sec. 2. Any corporation or receiver operating a line of railroad in whole or in part in this State who shall knowingly violate any provisions of this act shall be liable to the State of Kansas for a penalty of not less than one hundred dollars nor more than two hundred dollars for each offense, and such penalties shall be recovered and suits thereof shall be brought in the name of the State of Kansas in a court of competent jurisdiction in any county in the State into or through which any such railroad may run, by the attorney-general or under his direction, or by the prosecuting attorney of the proper county through or into or out of which trains may be operated by said company; and upon complaint being made to the commissioner of labor, he is hereby authorized to investigate such complaint, and shall be empowered to examine the train sheets, registers, and dispatchers' reports, and to hear such other evidence as may be offered by officers or employes of such railroad company to determine whether such complaint is well founded; and if the complaint appears to be well founded, it shall be the duty of said commissioner of labor to file a complaint before the county attorney of the proper county through which said company may operate.

Approved March 9, 1907.

CHAPTER 281.—*Liability of railroad companies for injuries to employes.*

(See pp. 63, 64, above.)

CHAPTER 283.—*Railroads—Shelters for workmen.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any railroad company or corporation or other persons who own, control or operate any line of railroad in the State of Kansas to build or repair railroad equipment at division points where shops are located without providing sheds over the tracks exclusively used for such repair work, so that all men permanently employed for such repairs may be under shelter during storms or other inclement weather.

SEC. 2. Every corporation, person or persons, manager, superintendent or foreman of any company, corporation, person or persons, who shall fail or refuse to comply with the provisions of this act after the 1st day of September, 1907, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction shall be punished by a fine of not less than twenty-five dollars nor more than one hundred dollars for each offense.

Approved March 7, 1907.

CHAPTER 402.—*Mine inspectors.*

SECTION 1. The secretary of the State mine industry, who shall be State mine inspector, shall receive a salary of fifteen hundred dollars per annum, and actual necessary expenses, not exceeding one thousand dollars. The said State mine inspector is hereby authorized to appoint one deputy mine inspector for each of the following counties: Crawford, Cherokee, Osage, Leavenworth, and one additional deputy mine inspector for the counties of Crawford and Cherokee. Each of the said deputy mine inspectors shall be required to give his full time to such employment, and shall receive as compensation the sum of eighty dollars per month and necessary traveling expenses. The said State mine inspector is hereby authorized to appoint a clerk for his office, who shall receive an annual salary of seven hundred and twenty dollars. Said deputy mine inspector and clerk shall be under the supervision and control of the State mine inspector and hold their positions at his pleasure. He shall be authorized to transfer the deputy inspectors to such points within the State where in his judgment the duties and requirements of the inspection law make it necessary for them to work. The term of the State mine inspector and his deputies and clerk shall be for a period of two years, beginning July 1, 1907, and their salary and expenses shall be payable monthly upon vouchers certified to the State auditor by the State mine inspector.

Approved February 21, 1907.

CUMULATIVE INDEX OF LABOR LAWS AND DECISIONS RELATING THERETO.

[This index includes all labor laws enacted since January 1, 1904, and published in successive issues of the Bulletin, beginning with Bulletin No. 57, the issue of March, 1905. Laws enacted previously appear in the Tenth Special Report of the Commissioner of Labor. The decisions indexed under the various headings relate to the laws on the same subjects without regard to their date of enactment and are indicated by the letter "D" in parenthesis following the name of the State. Opinions of the Attorney-General on the construction, etc., of labor laws are similarly indexed, and are indicated by the abbreviation "Op." in parenthesis.]

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WHOLESALE PRICES, 1890 TO 1907.

In 1901 the Bureau of Labor collected data relating to the wholesale prices of the principal staple commodities sold in the United States for the period from 1890 to 1901, inclusive. The actual prices for the 12 years and the relative prices computed therefrom were published in Bulletin 39, issued in March, 1902. The purpose of the investigation was to furnish a continuous record of wholesale prices and to show the changes in the general price level from year to year. The investigation thus begun has been continued each year and the results published in the March issue of the Bulletin to show actual prices for the year immediately preceding and relative prices for the period since 1890. The present Bulletin contains actual prices for 1907 and relative prices for the 18 years from 1890 to 1907. In these reports wholesale prices have been presented for a large number of carefully selected representative staple articles secured in representative markets of the United States. That it would be impossible to secure prices for all articles in all markets is so apparent that the fact hardly need be stated. In the present report prices are given for 258 representative articles. With a very few exceptions these articles are the same as have been covered in the preceding reports on this subject. Retail prices of food, which indicate better than wholesale prices of food the changes in cost of living, are published in the July Bulletin of each year.

The present investigation shows that wholesale prices, considering the 258 commodities as a whole, reached a higher level in 1907 than at any other time during the 18-year period covered. The average for the year 1907 was 5.7 per cent higher than for 1906; 44.4 per cent higher than for 1897, the year of lowest prices during the 18-year period; and 29.5 per cent higher than the average for the 10 years from 1890 to 1899. Prices reached their highest point during the 18-year period in October, 1907, the average for that month being

1.2 per cent higher than the average for the year 1907 and 2.8 per cent higher than the average for December, 1906, the month of highest prices in 1906.

An examination of the prices of the various articles covered by the investigation shows that while there was a large average increase for the year taken as a whole the increase in price did not extend to all commodities. Of the 258 articles for which wholesale prices were obtained 172 showed an increase in the average price for 1907 as compared with 1906, 35 showed no change in the average price for the year, and 51 showed a decrease in price. The following table divides the articles for which prices were secured into nine groups and shows for each group the number of articles covered, the per cent of increase in the average price for 1907 as compared with that for 1906 for each group as a whole, and the number of articles that increased or decreased in price:

PER CENT OF INCREASE IN AVERAGE PRICES FOR 1907 AS COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICES FOR 1906, AND NUMBER OF ARTICLES THAT INCREASED OR DECREASED IN PRICE, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES.

Group.	Number of commodities.	Per cent of increase in price.	Number of commodities showing—		
			Increase.	No change in price.	Decrease.
Farm products.....	16	10.9	11	5
Food, etc.....	53	4.6	34	6	13
Cloths and clothing.....	75	5.6	54	11	10
Fuel and lighting.....	13	2.4	7	1	5
Metals and implements.....	38	6.1	25	6	7
Lumber and building materials.....	27	4.9	21	1	5
Drugs and chemicals.....	9	8.3	4	3	2
House furnishing goods.....	14	6.8	8	6
Miscellaneous.....	13	5.0	8	1	4
All commodities.....	258	5.7	172	35	51

From the above table it is seen that when the commodities are considered by groups all of the nine groups showed an increase in price in 1907 as compared with 1906. In farm products, taken as a whole, there was an increase in price of 10.9 per cent in 1907 over the average price for 1906, this increase being greater than in any other one of the nine groups. There was an increase in price in 11 of the 16 articles for which prices were obtained. All of the staple grains, cotton, hay, and hops showed a decided increase in price. The articles that showed a decrease in the average price for the year were sheep, hogs, and hides, which decrease in the average price for the year resulted from the fall in price during the last two months of the year.

Food as a whole increased 4.6 per cent in the average price for 1907 as compared with 1906. In this group, 34 articles increased in price, 6 showed no change, and 13 decreased in price. Among the articles

showing an increase were beef, flour, butter, milk, cheese, rice, meal, eggs, lard, and sugar. No change took place in the price of bread. The principal articles showing a decrease were coffee, potatoes, mutton, beans, prunes, and evaporated apples. Some of the varieties of pork and fish showed a slight increase in the average price for the year, while other varieties showed a slight decrease.

Of the 75 articles included under cloths and clothing, 54 showed an increase in price, 11 showed no change, and 10 showed a decrease. In the group as a whole there was an average increase of 5.6 per cent in price, the principal increase being in cotton goods and silk.

In fuel and lighting as a group there was an increase in price of 2.4 per cent. Petroleum and coke increased in price, as did also some kinds of coal. Other kinds of coal decreased slightly in price.

In the metals and implements group the increase in the average price for 1907 over 1906 was 6.1 per cent. Of a total of 38 articles in the group there was an increase in the price of 25 articles, including barb wire, copper, iron, steel billets, nails, tin plate, etc. Six articles, including steel rails, did not change in price and in 7 articles there was a decrease.

Twenty-one of the 27 articles included under lumber and building materials increased in 1907 as compared with 1906. Nearly all kinds of timber products showed a marked increase. There was a decrease in the prices of brick, window glass, turpentine, and spruce. In the group as a whole there was an increase in price of 4.9 per cent.

The increase in the average price of drugs and chemicals in 1907 over 1906 was 8.3 per cent, the articles showing the greatest increase being glycerin and opium. Wood alcohol showed a marked decrease in price.

House furnishing goods as a whole increased 6.8 per cent in price. The increase was in furniture, wooden ware, and cutlery. Earthenware and glassware did not change in price. No article included in this group showed a decrease as compared with 1906.

In the miscellaneous group there was a marked increase in the prices of news paper, cotton-seed oil, malt, and starch. There was no change in the price of smoking tobacco, and there was a decrease in the prices of rubber and 3 other articles. Taken together, the group of miscellaneous articles increased in price 5 per cent. The per cent of increase or decrease in the average wholesale price for 1907 for each of the 258 articles as compared with the price for 1906 is shown on pages 312 to 315.

In addition to the classification into the nine groups named above, the 258 articles included in the investigation have been divided into two general groups, designated as raw commodities and manufactured commodities. Of course fixed definitions of these classes can not be made, but the commodities here designated as raw may be said to be

such as are marketed in their natural state and such as have been subjected to only a preliminary manufacturing process, thus converting them into a marketable condition, but not to a suitable form for final consumption, while the commodities here designated as manufactured are such as have been subjected to more than a preliminary factory manipulation and in which the manufacturing labor cost constitutes an important element in the price. In the group designated as raw are included all farm products, beans, coffee, eggs, milk, rice, nutmegs, pepper, tea, vegetables, raw silk, wool, coal, crude petroleum, copper ingots, pig lead, pig iron, bar silver, spelter, pig tin, brimstone, jute, and rubber—a total of 50 articles. All the other articles are classed as manufactured commodities.

As thus grouped it appears that the average wholesale price of raw commodities for 1907 was 5.5 per cent higher than for 1906, and that the average wholesale price of manufactured commodities for 1907 was 5.8 per cent higher than for 1906.

While the general average of wholesale prices for the year 1907 was higher than the average for 1906, the tendency upward did not continue throughout the year, as there was a heavy decline in prices in November and a still further decline in December. The following table shows the per cent that the average price for each month of the year 1907 was above or below the average price for the year, and in the last column the per cent of decrease of the average December price below the average price for each preceding month:

COMPARISON OF AVERAGE PRICE FOR EACH MONTH OF 1907 WITH THE AVERAGE PRICE FOR THE YEAR, AND OF AVERAGE PRICE FOR DECEMBER, 1907, WITH THE AVERAGE PRICE FOR EACH PRECEDING MONTH OF THE YEAR.

Month.	Per cent of price for month—		Per cent of decrease in December below each preceding month.
	Above average price for year.	Below average price for year.	
January.....		1.2	1.2
February.....		.4	2.0
March.....		.1	2.3
April.....		.3	2.1
May.....	0.1		2.5
June.....	.5		2.8
July.....	.6		3.0
August.....	.5		2.9
September.....	1.0		3.4
October.....	1.2		3.5
November.....		.5	1.9
December.....		2.4	

The average for wholesale prices for January, 1907, was 1.2 per cent below the average for the year. In February and March there was an advance, followed by a decline in April. There was a further advance in May, June, and July, followed by a slight decline in August. There was another advance in September, and in October the wholesale prices reached the highest point attained during the year, when they were 1.2 per cent above the average price for the year. In November there was a decline in prices to a point 0.5 per cent below the average for the year. In December prices reached their lowest point in the year, being 2.4 per cent below the average for the year.

From the figures given in the last column of the table it is seen that the average of wholesale prices in December, 1907, was 1.2 per cent below the average in January and 3.5 per cent below the average in October, the month of highest prices during the year.

The change that took place in wholesale prices month by month during 1907 in each of the nine groups already referred to will be seen in the following table:

COMPARISON OF AVERAGE PRICE FOR EACH MONTH OF 1907 WITH AVERAGE PRICE FOR THE YEAR, AND OF AVERAGE PRICE FOR DECEMBER, 1907, WITH AVERAGE PRICE FOR EACH PRECEDING MONTH OF THE YEAR, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES.

Month.	Farm products.			Food, etc.			Cloths and clothing.		
	Per cent of price for month—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) in December as compared with preceding month.	Per cent of price for month—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) in December as compared with preceding month.	Per cent of price for month—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) in December as compared with preceding month.
	Above average price for year.	Below average price for year.		Above average price for year.	Below average price for year.		Above average price for year.	Below average price for year.	
January.....		5.9	- 0.5		0.7	+3.2		2.8	+3.2
February.....		1.8	- 4.7		0.3	+2.2		2.2	+2.6
March.....		1.2	- 5.2			.9		1.7	+2.0
April.....		.4	- 6.0			3.3		1.1	+1.4
May.....		2.0	- 8.3			3.4		.6	+1.0
June.....		5.2	-11.0			2.2		4.9	+ .2
July.....		2.5	- 8.7			2.5		1.0	- .7
August.....		2.8	- 9.0			2.1		1.3	- .9
September.....		6.1	-11.8			.3		2.0	-1.6
October.....		5.3	-11.1		4.8	-2.2		1.7	-1.3
November.....		6.0	- .5		4.2	-1.6		1.2	- .9
December.....		6.4			2.5			.3	

COMPARISON OF AVERAGE PRICE FOR EACH MONTH OF 1907 WITH AVERAGE PRICE FOR THE YEAR, AND OF AVERAGE PRICE FOR DECEMBER, 1907, WITH AVERAGE PRICE FOR EACH PRECEDING MONTH OF THE YEAR, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES—Concluded.

Month.	Fuel and lighting.			Metals and implements.			Lumber and building materials.		
	Per cent of price for month—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) in December as compared with each preceding month.	Per cent of price for month—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) in December as compared with each preceding month.	Per cent of price for month—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) in December as compared with each preceding month.
	Above average price for year.	Below average price for year.		Above average price for year.	Below average price for year.		Above average price for year.	Below average price for year.	
January.....	0.6		-1.6	3.1		-12.2		0.7	-6.0
February.....	1.2		-2.2	4.0		-12.9	0.3		-8.9
March.....	.4		-1.4	3.8		-12.8	1.5		-8.0
April.....		2.1	+1.1	3.6		-12.7	2.5		-8.8
May.....		1.8	+ .8	3.8		-12.8	2.4		-8.8
June.....		2.8	+1.8	3.3		-12.4	2.0		-8.4
July.....		1.6	+ .5	2.4		-11.6	1.6		-8.0
August.....		.7			0.5	-9.0	1.4		-7.9
September.....	.1		-1.2		1.8	-7.8	.2		-6.8
October.....	3.6		-4.5		5.6	-4.1		1.4	-5.3
November.....	3.6		-4.5		7.0	-2.6		3.2	-3.5
December.....		1.0			9.5			6.6	

Month.	Drugs and chemicals.		House furnishing goods.		Miscellaneous.		All commodities.			
	Per cent of price for month—		Per cent of price for month—		Per cent of price for month—		Per cent of price for month—			
	Above average price for year.	Below average price for year.	Above average price for year.	Below average price for year.	Above average price for year.	Below average price for year.	Above average price for year.	Below average price for year.		
January.....	6.8	+10.1		3.0	+4.5		0.9	-4.3	1.2	-1.2
February.....	5.6	+8.6		3.0	+4.5		2.6	-2.6	.4	-2.0
March.....	5.7	+8.7		1.1	+2.6	1.1		-6.1	.1	-2.3
April.....	4.2	+7.0		.8	+2.3	1.4		-6.4	.3	-2.1
May.....	4.4	+7.3		.8	+2.3	1.9		-6.9	0.1	-2.5
June.....	4.7	+7.7	(*)	(*)	+1.4	1.3		-6.4	.5	-2.8
July.....		1.4	+4.9	0.9	+ .5	2.5		-7.4	.6	-3.0
August.....	8.7		-5.6	1.7		.3		-5.4	.5	-2.9
September.....	8.7		-5.6	1.7		.6		-5.6	1.0	-3.4
October.....	6.5		-3.7	1.7		1.9		-6.9	1.2	-3.5
November.....	5.7		-2.9	1.4		(b)		2.2	.5	-1.9
December.....	2.6			1.4				5.1	2.4	

* Same as average price for year.

b Same as average price for December.

In January, 1907, the wholesale price of farm products as a group was 5.9 per cent below the average price for the year. In each month until June there was an advance in price. In July and August the price was a little lower than in June. The highest point reached during the year was in September, when the price was 6.1 per cent above the average for the year. There was a slight decline

in October and a very heavy decline in November, in which month the price was 6 per cent below the average price for the year. In December the price had fallen slightly lower, the price being 6.4 per cent below the average price for the year. The price in December was 0.5 per cent lower than in January and 11.8 per cent lower than in September, the month of highest prices in this group. The movement in prices during the year for each of the articles that enter into this and the other groups will be found in Table II, pages 396 to 414, or, if desired, the full details of the prices throughout the year may be found in Table I, pages 347 to 395.

Food commodities as a group were at their lowest price in May and at their highest in October, when they were 4.8 per cent above the average price for the year. The increase in October as compared with May was 8.5 per cent. Food commodities declined in price in November and made a still further decline in December. Prices in December were 3.2 per cent higher than in January and 6.2 per cent higher than in May.

The price of cloths and clothing was below the average price for the year during the first five months of the year. From January to September there was an advance in price each month. In the last three months of the year there was a decline in price each month. The price in December was 3.2 per cent higher than in January, but 1.6 per cent lower than in September.

The lowest price reached in the group of fuel and lighting was in June, when the price was 2.8 per cent below the average price for the year. The highest price reached was in October and November, in each of which months the price was 3.6 per cent above the average price for the year. In December there was a sharp decline, the price in that month being 1 per cent below the average price for the year. The price in December was 1.6 per cent lower than in January, 1.8 per cent higher than in June, and 4.5 per cent lower than in October and November.

The price of metals and implements was above the average price for the year during the first seven months of the year. Beginning with June, there was a decline each month until December, when the price was 9.5 per cent below the average price for the year. The price in December was 12.9 per cent lower than in February, the month of highest prices in this group during the year.

Lumber and building materials were 0.7 per cent below the average price for the year in the month of January. The price increased each month up to April, in which month the price was 2.5 per cent above the average price for the year. In each succeeding month there was a decline in price from the month immediately preceding, until in December the price was 6.6 per cent below the average price for

the year. In December the price was 8.8 per cent lower than in April, the month of highest price in this group.

Drugs and chemicals were below the average price for the year during the first seven months in the year and above the average price for the year during the remaining five months. The lowest point in the year was in January, when the price was 6.8 per cent below the average price for the year, and the highest in August and September, when the price was 8.7 per cent above the average price for the year. In December the price was 10.1 per cent higher than in January and 5.6 per cent lower than in August and September.

House furnishing goods were at their lowest price in January and February and at their highest price in August, September, and October. In these months the price was 1.7 per cent above the average price for the year. The price in November and December was slightly lower than in the three preceding months. The price in December was 4.5 per cent higher than the price in January and February.

Miscellaneous articles in January were 0.9 per cent below the average price for the year and 2.6 per cent below the average price for the year in February. The month of highest price in this group was in July, when the average price was 2.5 per cent above the average price for the year. A marked decline in price occurred, both in November and in December, until in the latter month the average price was 5.1 per cent below the average price for the year.

While the year 1907 was as a whole one of high prices, the heavy decline in the latter part of the year was quite general. Of the 258 articles included in this report, 132 had in December declined from the highest point reached during the year and 46 showed a lower average price for December than for any other month of the year. A few of the articles for which the December prices were much lower than in preceding months are here noted. Heavy hogs declined from an average of \$7.0313 per hundred in February to \$4.65 in December, being a decline of 33.9 per cent. Sheep declined 39.1 per cent from April to December; coffee declined 18.9 per cent from March to December; smoked hams declined 22.2 per cent from May to December; dressed mutton declined 24.4 per cent from May to December; print cloths declined 16.1 per cent from October to December; raw Japan silk declined 24.2 per cent from May to December; coke declined 44.1 per cent from February to December; ingot copper declined 45.1 per cent from May to December; pig lead declined 33.4 per cent from March to December; No. 1 foundry iron declined 31.1 per cent from January to December; spelter declined 35.1 per cent from February to December; red cedar shingles declined 35.5 per cent from August to December; brick declined 26.7 per cent from

June to December; tar declined 42.9 per cent from April to December; quinine declined 27.3 per cent from February to December; raw jute declined 45.9 per cent from January to December; rubber declined 34.2 per cent from March to December. The price of 72 articles remained the same throughout the year 1907, and for only 8 articles was the average price for December higher than for any other month in the year. The average monthly prices for the several articles are given in Table II, pages 396 to 414.

The following table has been prepared, showing for both raw and manufactured commodities, according to the classification already explained, the per cent that prices in each month in 1907 were above or below the average prices of the year and the per cent of decrease in December below each preceding month of the year:

COMPARISON OF AVERAGE PRICES OF RAW AND MANUFACTURED COMMODITIES FOR EACH MONTH OF 1907, WITH THE AVERAGE PRICES FOR THE YEAR, AND OF AVERAGE PRICES FOR DECEMBER, 1907, WITH THE AVERAGE PRICES FOR EACH PRECEDING MONTH OF THE YEAR.

Month.	Raw commodities.			Manufactured commodities.			All commodities.			
	Per cent of price for month—		Per cent of decrease in December below each preceding month.	Per cent of price for month—		Per cent of decrease in December below each preceding month.	Per cent of price for month—		Per cent of decrease in December below each preceding month.	
	Above average price for year.	Below average price for year.		Above average price for year.	Below average price for year.		Above average price for year.	Below average price for year.		
January.....	1.0	7.8	1.8	^a 0.6	1.2	1.2
February.....	2.0	8.7	1.0	.24	2.0
March.....	2.1	8.86	.61	2.3
April.....	.4	7.25	.83	2.1
May.....	1.9	8.75	.8	0.1	2.5
June.....	2.6	9.31	1.25	2.8
July.....	.6	7.5	0.6	1.9	.6	3.0
August.....	0.8	6.1	.9	2.1	.5	2.9
September.....4	6.5	1.3	2.5	1.0	3.4
October.....7	7.5	1.2	2.5	1.2	3.5
November.....	4.0	3.0	.4	1.65	1.9
December.....	6.9	1.2	2.4

^a Increase.

From this table it is seen that there was a greater fluctuation in the prices of raw commodities during the year than in the prices of manufactured commodities. In June, the price of raw commodities was 2.6 per cent above the average price for the year, while in December the price was 6.9 per cent below the average price for the year. In manufactured commodities, the lowest prices were in January, when the average was 1.8 per cent below the average price for the year, while in September the average was 1.3 per cent higher than the average price for the year. Thus, December marked the lowest prices in raw commodities and January marked the lowest prices in manufactured commodities, while June marked the highest prices in raw commodities and September the highest prices in manufactured commodities. Prices of raw commodities in December averaged 7.8

per cent lower than in January and 9.3 per cent lower than in June. The December prices of manufactured commodities averaged 0.6 per cent higher than those for January and 2.5 per cent lower than those of September.

Thus far attention has been directed to the changes that took place in wholesale prices in the year 1907 as compared with 1906 and the movement of wholesale prices month by month during the year 1907. Attention is now directed to the course of wholesale prices from year to year since 1890. The following table shows, by relative prices, the changes in the average wholesale prices of the articles for which prices were secured from 1890 to 1907, inclusive. The relative price used in this table is simply a percentage. The base on which the relative price is computed is not the price in any one year, but the average price for the ten years from 1890 to 1899, inclusive. The reason for adopting this base is fully explained on page 326. Relative prices, such as are here shown, are also sometimes spoken of as relative numbers or as index numbers. In computing the relative price for all commodities for each year the relative prices for the several commodities were added and the sum divided by the number of commodities.

To assist in comparing wholesale prices in 1907 with the prices each year back to 1890, another column is given in the table showing the per cent of the increase in prices for 1907 over the prices for each of the preceding years.

RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND PER CENT OF INCREASE IN PRICES FOR 1907 OVER PRICES FOR EACH PRECEDING YEAR.

Year.	Relative price of all commodities. ^(a)	Per cent of increase in 1907 over each preceding year.	Year.	Relative price of all commodities. ^(a)	Per cent of increase in 1907 over each preceding year.
1890.....	112.9	14.7	1899.....	101.7	27.3
1891.....	111.7	15.9	1900.....	110.5	17.2
1892.....	106.1	22.1	1901.....	108.5	19.4
1893.....	105.6	22.6	1902.....	112.9	14.7
1894.....	96.1	34.8	1903.....	113.6	14.0
1895.....	93.6	38.4	1904.....	113.0	14.6
1896.....	90.4	43.3	1905.....	115.9	11.7
1897.....	89.7	44.4	1906.....	122.5	5.7
1898.....	93.4	38.7	1907.....	129.5

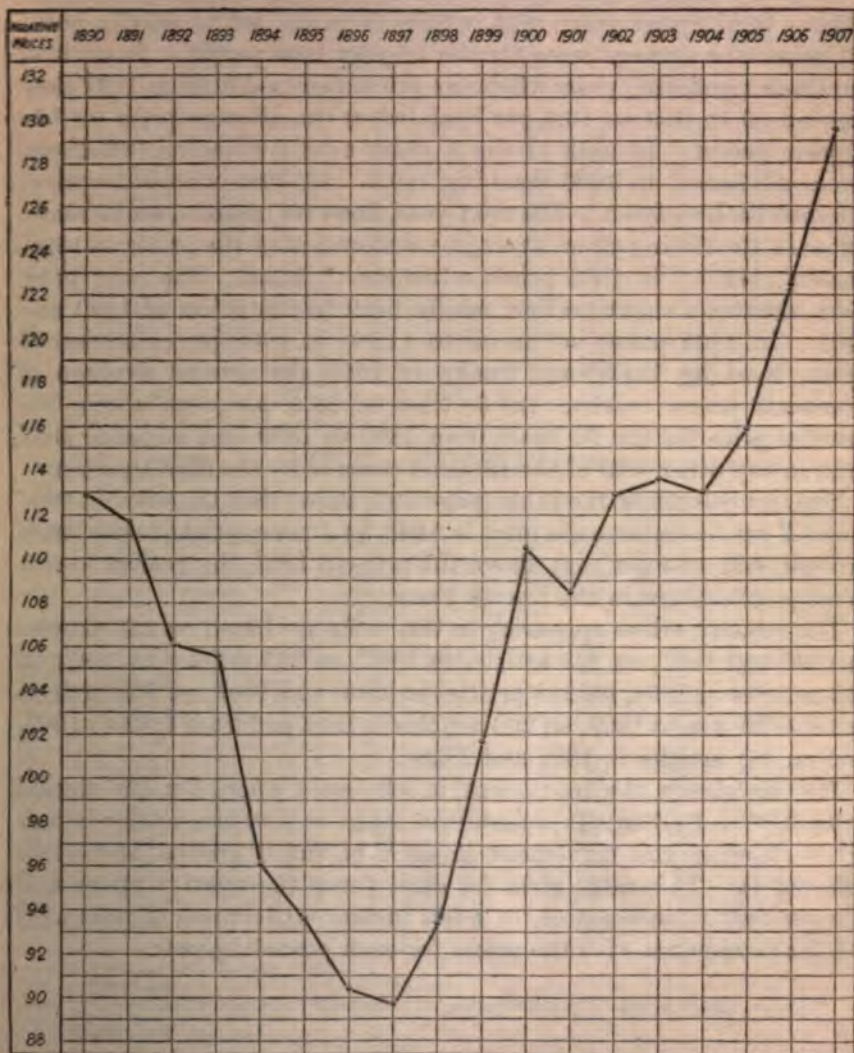
^a Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.

^b These figures are correct; those given for 1906 in Bulletin No. 60 were slightly in error.

The relative wholesale prices during the years from 1890 to 1907, set forth in tabular form in the preceding table, are shown also in the graphic table which follows:

RELATIVE PRICES OF ALL COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907.

[Average price for 1890 to 1899=100.]



The table shows that the average of wholesale prices of all commodities for 1890 was 112.9 per cent of the average of wholesale prices for the years from 1890 to 1899; in other words, that the

average of wholesale prices in 1890 was 12.9 per cent higher than the average for the 10-year period named.

In 1891 relative wholesale prices declined to 111.7; that is, to a point where the average wholesale price for the year was 11.7 per cent above the average price for the 10 years from 1890 to 1899.

In 1892 relative wholesale prices dropped to 106.1 and in 1893 to 105.6. In the next year, 1894, wholesale prices fell to 96.1, a point 3.9 below the average price for the 10-year base period. In each of the three succeeding years wholesale prices declined until in 1897 they reached 89.7; that is, 10.3 per cent below the average price for the 10-year period. In each of the 3 years next succeeding, wholesale prices advanced, in 1900 reaching 110.5. In 1901 wholesale prices dropped back to 108.5. The next year, however, marked an increase, prices in 1902 being on an average a restoration of the prices in 1890, namely, 112.9. In 1903 prices advanced to 113.6. The next year, 1904, showed a slight decline, nearly back to the prices of 1890 and 1902. In 1905 prices advanced to 115.9; in 1906 prices advanced again, reaching 122.5; and finally in 1907 the general average of wholesale prices reached 129.5; that is, 29.5 per cent above the average price for the 10 years from 1890 to 1899 and a higher level than in any other year of the 18 years covered by the investigation.

The last column of the table (page 292) shows that the price in 1907 was 5.7 per cent above the price in 1906, 14.7 per cent above the price in 1890, and 44.4 per cent above the price in 1897, the year of lowest average prices within the last 18 years.

The relative prices appearing in this table are based on 251 articles in 1890 and 1891, on 253 articles in 1892, on 255 articles in 1893, on 256 articles in 1894, on 258 articles in 1906 and 1907, on 259 articles in 1895, 1904, and 1905, on 260 articles in 1896 and from 1899 to 1903, and on 261 articles in 1897 and 1898.

Having shown the movement in wholesale prices for the period from 1890 to 1907 in all commodities taken as a whole, a table is now given showing the movement in each of the 9 groups previously referred to. This table gives for each group the relative prices and the per cent of increase or, in a few instances, decrease of prices for 1907, as compared with the prices for each preceding year.

RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND PER CENT OF INCREASE IN PRICES FOR 1907 OVER PRICES FOR EACH PRECEDING YEAR, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES.

Year.	Farm products.		Food, etc.		Cloths and clothing.		Fuel and lighting.		Metals and implemets.	
	Relative price. (a)	Per cent of increase in 1907 over each preceding year.	Relative price. (a)	Per cent of increase in 1907 over each preceding year.	Relative price. (a)	Per cent of increase in 1907 over each preceding year.	Relative price. (a)	Per cent of increase in 1907 over each preceding year.	Relative price. (a)	Per cent of increase in 1907 over each preceding year.
1890.....	110.0	24.6	112.4	4.8	113.5	11.6	104.7	28.9	119.2	20.3
1891.....	121.5	12.8	115.7	1.8	111.3	13.8	102.7	31.5	111.7	28.4
1892.....	111.7	22.7	108.6	13.7	109.0	16.2	101.1	33.5	106.0	35.3
1893.....	107.9	27.1	110.2	6.9	107.2	18.2	100.0	35.0	100.7	42.4
1894.....	95.9	43.0	99.8	18.0	90.1	31.8	92.4	46.1	90.7	58.1
1895.....	93.3	46.9	94.6	24.5	92.7	36.7	98.1	37.6	92.0	55.9
1896.....	78.3	75.1	83.8	40.6	91.3	38.8	104.3	29.4	93.7	53.0
1897.....	85.2	60.9	87.7	34.3	91.1	39.1	96.4	40.0	86.6	63.6
1898.....	96.1	42.7	94.4	24.8	93.4	35.7	95.4	41.5	86.4	66.0
1899.....	100.0	37.1	98.3	19.8	96.7	31.0	105.0	28.6	114.7	25.0
1900.....	109.5	25.2	104.2	13.1	106.8	18.6	120.9	11.7	120.5	19.0
1901.....	116.9	17.3	105.9	11.2	101.0	25.4	134.3	13.0	111.9	28.2
1902.....	130.5	5.1	111.3	5.8	102.0	24.2	134.3	.5	117.2	22.4
1903.....	118.8	15.4	107.1	10.0	106.6	18.9	149.3	9.6	117.6	21.9
1904.....	126.2	8.6	107.2	9.9	109.8	15.4	132.6	1.8	109.6	30.3
1905.....	124.2	10.4	108.7	8.4	112.0	13.1	128.8	4.8	122.5	17.1
1906.....	123.6	10.9	112.6	4.6	120.0	5.6	131.9	2.4	135.2	6.1
1907.....	137.1	117.8	126.7	135.0	143.4

Year.	Lumber and building materials.		Drugs and chemicals.		House furnishing goods.		Miscellaneous.		All commodities.	
	Relative price. (a)	Per cent of increase in 1907 over each preceding year.	Relative price. (a)	Per cent of increase in 1907 over each preceding year.	Relative price. (a)	Per cent of increase in 1907 over each preceding year.	Relative price. (a)	Per cent of increase in 1907 over each preceding year.	Relative price. (a)	Per cent of increase in 1907 over each preceding year.
1890.....	111.8	31.4	110.2	b 0.5	111.1	6.7	110.3	15.2	112.9	14.7
1891.....	108.4	35.5	103.6	5.8	110.2	7.5	109.4	16.2	111.7	15.9
1892.....	102.8	42.9	102.9	6.5	106.5	11.3	106.2	19.7	106.1	22.1
1893.....	101.9	44.2	100.5	9.1	104.9	13.0	105.9	20.0	105.6	22.6
1894.....	96.3	52.5	89.8	22.0	100.1	18.4	99.8	27.4	96.1	34.8
1895.....	94.1	56.1	87.9	24.7	96.5	22.8	94.5	34.5	93.6	38.4
1896.....	93.4	57.3	92.6	18.4	94.0	26.1	91.4	39.1	90.4	43.3
1897.....	90.4	62.5	94.4	16.1	89.8	32.0	92.1	38.0	89.7	44.4
1898.....	95.8	53.3	106.6	2.8	92.0	28.8	92.4	37.6	93.4	38.7
1899.....	105.8	38.8	111.3	b 1.5	95.1	24.6	97.7	30.1	101.7	27.3
1900.....	115.7	27.0	115.7	b 5.3	106.1	11.7	109.8	15.8	110.5	17.2
1901.....	116.7	25.9	115.2	b 4.9	110.9	6.9	107.4	18.3	108.5	19.4
1902.....	118.8	23.7	114.2	b 4.0	112.2	5.6	114.1	11.4	112.9	14.7
1903.....	121.4	21.0	112.6	b 2.7	113.0	4.9	113.6	11.9	113.6	14.0
1904.....	122.7	19.7	110.0	b .4	111.7	6.1	111.7	13.8	113.0	14.6
1905.....	127.7	15.0	109.1	.5	109.1	8.6	112.8	12.7	115.9	11.7
1906.....	140.1	4.9	101.2	8.3	111.0	6.8	121.1	5.0	122.5	5.7
1907.....	146.9	109.6	118.5	127.1	129.5

a Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.

b Decrease.

*These figures are correct; those given for 1906 in Bulletin No. 69 were slightly in error.

BULLETIN OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR.

In this table the average relative prices of farm products are based on 53 articles; of food, etc., on 53 articles from 1890 to 1892 and 1904 to 1907, and 54 from 1893 to 1903; of cloths and clothing, 72 articles in 1890 and 1891, 72 in 1892, 73 in 1893 and 1894, 75 in 1895, 1896, 1906, and 1907, and 76 from 1897 to 1905; of fuel and mining, on 13 articles; of metals and implements, on 37 articles from 1893, 38 in 1894 and 1895 and from 1899 to 1907, and 39 from 1900 to 1898; of lumber and building materials, on 26 articles from 1894 and 27 from 1895 to 1907; of drugs and chemicals, on 26 articles; of house furnishing goods, on 14 articles, and of miscellaneous, on 13 articles.

A study of the table shows that the group of farm products reached its lowest average in 1896 and the highest in 1907; that of food, etc., the lowest in 1896 and the highest in 1907; that of cloths and clothing, the lowest in 1897 and the highest in 1907; that of fuel and mining, the lowest in 1894 and the highest in 1903; that of metals and implements, the lowest in 1898 and the highest in 1907; that of lumber and building materials, the lowest in 1897 and the highest in 1907; that of drugs and chemicals, the lowest in 1895 and the highest in 1907; that of house furnishing goods, the lowest in 1897 and the highest in 1907, while in the miscellaneous group the lowest average was reached in 1896 and the highest in 1907. The average for all commodities combined, as before stated, was lowest in 1897 and highest in 1907. Of the nine groups, it is seen that one reached its lowest point in 1894, one in 1895, three in 1896, three in 1897, and one in 1898. The highest point was reached by one group in 1900, by one in 1903, and by seven in 1907.

In order to follow the movement in the two great classes—raw and manufactured commodities—the following table has been prepared. The articles included under each of the two groups are indicated on page 286.

RELATIVE PRICES OF RAW AND OF MANUFACTURED COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND PER CENT OF INCREASE IN PRICES FOR 1907 OVER PRICES FOR EACH PRECEDING YEAR.

Year.	Raw commodities.		Manufactured commodities.		All commodities.	
	Relative price. (a)	Per cent of increase in 1907 over each preceding year.	Relative price. (a)	Per cent of increase in 1907 over each preceding year.	Relative price. (a)	Per cent of increase in 1907 over each preceding year.
1890.....	115.0	16.0	112.3	14.5	112.9	14.7
1891.....	116.3	14.7	110.6	10.3	111.7	15.9
1892.....	107.9	23.6	105.6	21.8	106.1	22.1
1893.....	104.4	27.8	105.9	21.4	105.6	22.6
1894.....	93.2	43.1	96.8	32.9	96.1	34.8
1895.....	91.7	45.5	94.0	36.8	93.6	38.4
1896.....	84.0	58.8	91.9	39.9	90.4	43.3
1897.....	87.6	52.3	90.1	42.7	89.7	44.4
1898.....	94.0	41.9	93.3	37.8	93.4	38.7
1899.....	105.9	26.0	100.7	27.7	101.7	27.3
1900.....	111.9	19.2	110.2	16.7	110.5	17.2
1901.....	111.4	19.7	107.8	19.3	108.5	19.4
1902.....	122.4	9.0	110.6	16.3	112.9	14.7
1903.....	122.7	8.7	111.5	15.3	113.6	14.0
1904.....	119.7	11.4	111.3	15.5	113.0	14.6
1905.....	121.2	10.1	114.6	12.2	115.9	11.7
1906.....	^b 126.5	5.5	121.6	5.8	^b 122.5	5.7
1907.....	133.4	128.6	129.5

^a Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.

^b These figures are correct; those given for 1906 in Bulletin No. 69 were slightly in error.

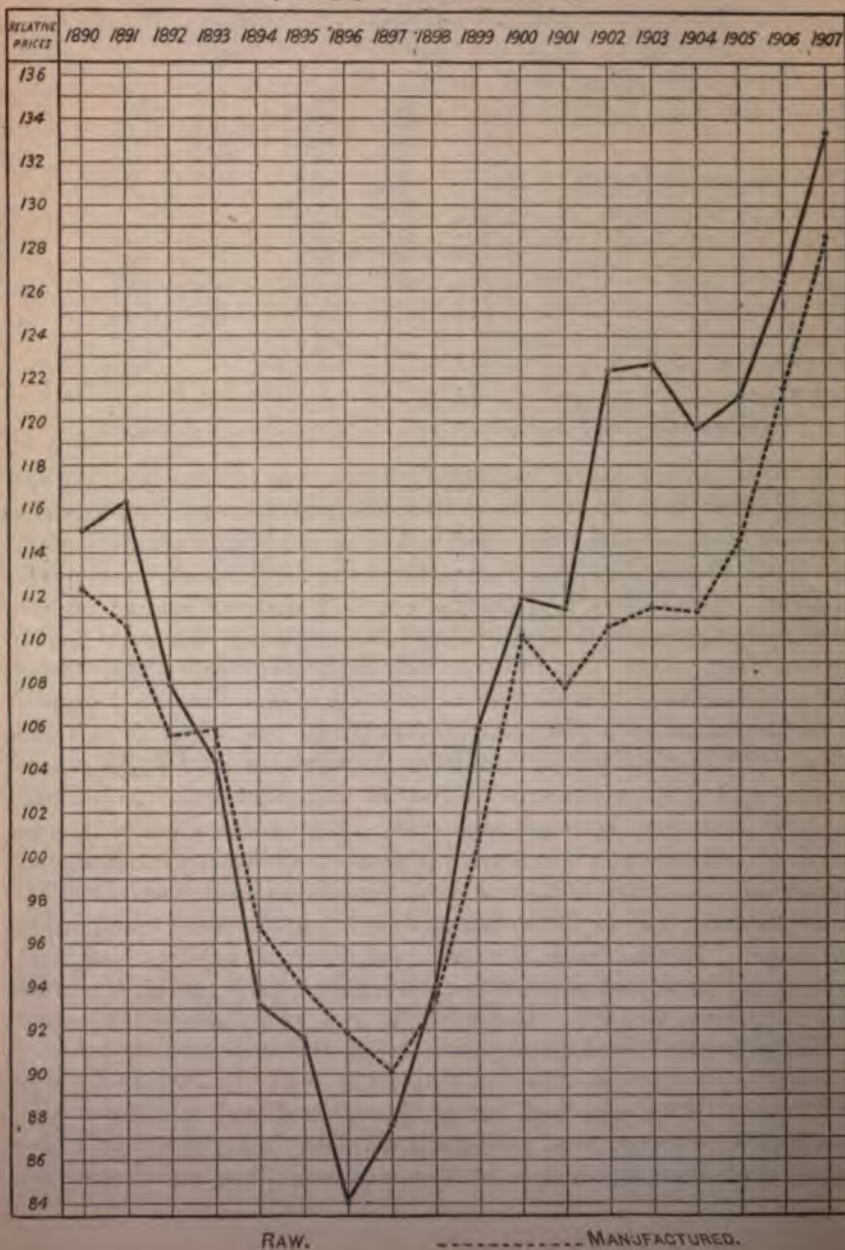
In 1890, when prices in general were high, the relative prices of raw commodities were higher than those of manufactured commodities and remained so until 1893, when prices of raw commodities declined and those of manufactured commodities were slightly above the prices of 1892. From 1894 to 1896 there was a marked decline in both groups, the raw commodities being lower than the manufactured in each of these years. In 1897 raw commodities advanced and manufactured declined. From 1898 to 1900 there was a decided advance in both groups each year, raw commodities advancing to a higher point than manufactured. In 1901 there was a very slight decline in raw and a more marked decline in manufactured commodities. In 1902 both raw and manufactured commodities made a decided advance, raw commodities much the greater, and in 1903 both slightly advanced. In 1904 both raw and manufactured commodities declined slightly, but in 1905 both raw and manufactured commodities advanced. In 1906 both raw and manufactured commodities made a sharp advance, and another sharp advance, equally great, was made in both groups in 1907. In 1907 both raw and manufactured commodities reached the highest point during the 18 years considered.

For the 18 years included in this table, with the single exception of 1893, it will be seen that during the years of high prices raw commodities were higher than manufactured, and during the years of low prices, with the exception of 1898, raw commodities were lower than

manufactured. This is clearly shown in the graphic table which follows:

RELATIVE PRICES OF RAW AND MANUFACTURED COMMODITIES,
1890 TO 1907.

[Average price for 1890 to 1899=100.]



To give an opportunity to study the movement in prices in each of the 9 groups before named, month by month for a few years back, a table is now given showing the relative prices in each group and for all commodities for each month from January, 1902, to December, 1907, inclusive:

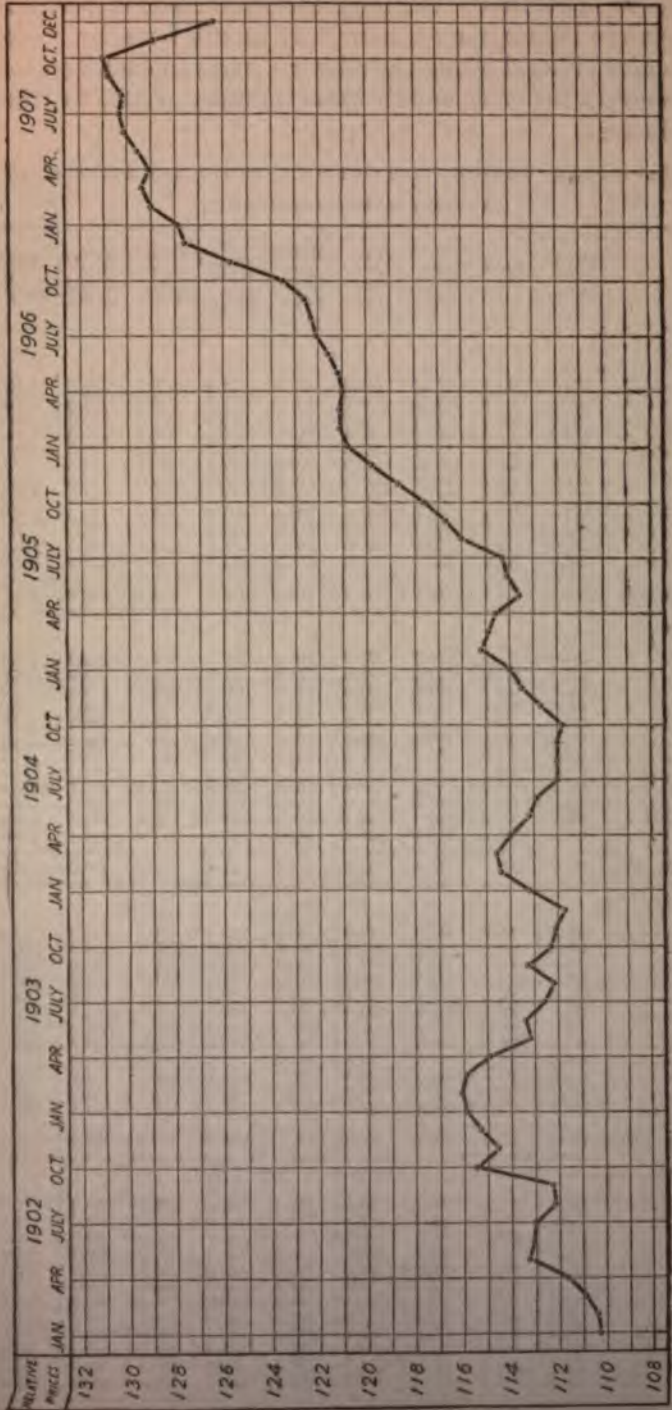
RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES FOR EACH MONTH, 1902 TO 1907, BY GROUPS.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Date.	Farm products.	Food etc.	Cloths and clothing.	Fuel and lighting.	Metals and implem-ents.	Lum-ber and build-ing ma-terials.	Drugs and chem-icals.	House fur-nishing goods.	Mis-cella-neous.	All com-modities.
1902.										
January	126.7	111.4	101.5	119.4	111.4	111.4	119.1	111.5	115.7	110.3
February	126.8	111.8	101.5	118.6	112.2	112.8	117.2	111.5	112.3	110.4
March	129.0	111.1	101.9	118.9	114.1	113.2	117.4	111.5	114.0	110.9
April	134.4	111.4	101.5	118.1	115.1	116.3	117.3	111.5	115.2	111.7
May	137.7	112.6	101.5	123.3	118.1	120.5	114.3	112.5	115.9	113.3
June	137.6	109.3	101.6	125.9	119.9	121.5	114.3	112.5	116.6	113.1
July	141.1	109.3	101.8	121.0	119.9	120.1	112.6	112.5	116.7	113.0
August	131.0	108.5	101.5	120.8	120.6	121.6	111.4	112.5	114.2	112.2
September	129.7	107.9	102.0	127.2	120.4	121.0	110.2	112.5	113.6	112.3
October	126.3	112.2	102.7	175.9	119.4	121.8	112.3	112.5	111.7	115.5
November	123.5	112.6	102.8	158.0	118.7	122.6	113.5	112.5	110.9	114.6
December	122.3	114.1	103.0	171.2	117.3	122.7	111.5	112.5	112.9	115.3
Average, 1902.	130.5	111.3	102.0	134.3	117.2	118.8	114.2	112.2	114.1	112.9
1903.										
January	123.3	112.3	104.2	178.6	119.4	120.7	111.8	112.2	113.3	115.9
February	124.8	111.4	104.5	178.6	119.6	122.8	111.4	112.2	113.5	116.1
March	127.0	112.3	104.9	154.8	121.6	123.3	113.7	113.1	114.9	115.9
April	125.0	110.0	105.0	149.0	123.1	120.9	111.4	113.1	114.2	114.9
May	122.1	104.8	105.4	145.0	121.9	118.7	112.8	113.1	115.1	113.2
June	121.1	105.6	106.3	143.1	119.7	120.6	113.7	113.1	114.3	113.4
July	115.8	103.8	107.5	141.1	118.1	120.1	113.1	113.1	114.3	112.6
August	114.8	103.1	107.8	140.3	117.0	119.5	113.9	113.1	114.4	112.2
September	117.2	107.1	108.2	140.4	115.8	121.5	112.8	112.7	114.4	113.3
October	112.5	104.4	108.0	141.2	114.3	121.3	112.6	113.5	114.5	112.3
November	109.9	105.6	108.1	140.1	111.8	124.3	112.5	113.5	110.4	112.1
December	112.2	105.5	108.6	139.8	109.0	123.1	111.4	113.5	110.1	111.7
Average, 1903.	118.8	107.1	106.6	149.3	117.6	121.4	112.6	113.0	113.6	113.6
1904.										
January	120.8	106.3	110.4	143.6	108.9	123.6	111.7	111.9	110.2	113.2
February	127.2	108.3	112.1	141.9	109.0	124.4	110.4	111.5	111.2	114.4
March	130.3	108.7	111.9	138.7	109.6	123.5	110.6	111.5	112.9	114.6
April	129.2	107.4	111.7	130.6	111.0	123.6	111.8	111.5	112.6	114.0
May	127.6	105.2	110.9	129.1	110.6	123.9	112.3	111.8	112.7	113.2
June	126.8	105.1	110.5	129.4	109.3	125.5	110.6	111.8	111.6	112.9
July	125.2	105.2	108.8	127.8	108.6	124.4	109.9	111.8	112.9	112.0
August	125.3	106.3	108.6	128.2	108.3	123.6	109.6	111.8	111.6	112.0
September	126.0	108.5	108.4	128.8	107.6	120.4	108.5	111.8	111.2	112.0
October	125.4	107.8	108.4	129.1	107.7	119.5	108.2	111.8	111.6	111.8
November	126.4	110.2	108.3	130.8	110.7	119.4	107.7	111.8	109.7	112.7
December	122.2	111.4	108.6	133.9	113.4	120.1	109.1	111.8	111.5	113.5
Average, 1904.	126.2	107.2	109.8	132.6	109.6	122.7	110.0	111.7	111.7	113.0
1905.										
January	124.1	112.2	109.6	130.8	115.2	120.1	108.9	109.1	111.2	114.0
February	125.9	113.6	108.5	132.8	119.7	121.9	109.4	109.1	113.8	115.2
March	127.1	110.3	108.7	130.5	122.6	120.7	110.0	109.1	114.6	114.9
April	127.0	109.0	108.8	125.8	122.5	122.8	110.5	109.1	113.9	114.6
May	125.2	104.6	109.0	124.0	122.3	124.5	109.0	109.1	112.1	113.6
June	126.2	102.7	110.1	124.4	121.2	130.7	108.8	109.1	112.9	114.1
July	128.9	103.2	111.5	124.3	120.8	128.0	106.4	109.1	110.6	114.3
August	125.3	105.9	113.8	125.3	122.3	131.6	108.1	109.1	111.6	116.0
September	129.4	108.3	114.5	126.5	123.2	131.9	110.0	109.1	111.8	116.7
October	120.1	108.8	115.2	132.2	124.2	133.4	110.2	109.1	112.5	117.6
November	119.7	110.2	116.1	134.5	126.3	134.2	109.5	109.1	113.3	118.7
December	121.8	112.1	117.1	134.7	129.3	132.1	108.8	109.1	115.1	119.8
Average, 1905.	124.2	108.7	112.0	128.8	122.5	127.7	109.1	109.1	112.8	115.9

RELATIVE PRICES OF ALL COMMODITIES, BY MONTHS, 1902 TO 1907.

[Average price for 1890 to 1899=100.]



RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES FOR EACH MONTH, 1902 TO 1907, BY GROUPS—
Concluded.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Date.	Farm products.	Food, etc.	Cloths and clothing.	Fuel and lighting.	Metals and implements.	Lumber and building materials.	Drugs and chemicals.	House furnishing goods.	Miscellaneous.	All commodities.
1906.										
January.....	119.5	112.3	119.4	154.0	131.0	135.0	102.9	368.8	118.6	131.8
February.....	118.7	112.2	119.5	131.3	131.6	138.4	101.5	368.8	118.9	127.1
March.....	119.4	111.7	119.6	139.9	131.5	139.6	101.2	368.8	118.1	123.1
April.....	122.5	111.0	119.3	131.7	131.3	139.2	101.0	368.8	117.6	121.0
May.....	124.2	109.8	119.5	129.9	132.3	140.4	100.2	368.8	121.3	121.2
June.....	126.2	111.1	119.4	128.6	133.2	139.8	100.3	368.8	122.2	121.6
July.....	124.0	112.3	119.3	129.7	130.1	141.5	100.3	342.1	122.6	125.1
August.....	122.8	112.0	119.3	131.3	133.2	139.9	101.6	312.1	123.0	122.3
September.....	123.8	112.4	119.7	131.9	135.4	141.0	100.9	312.1	121.4	122.6
October.....	125.2	112.7	120.3	132.2	139.3	141.1	100.7	312.7	120.3	123.5
November.....	126.9	115.8	121.6	134.5	143.6	141.6	100.7	315.0	123.4	125.7
December.....	130.0	118.2	122.2	136.5	146.9	143.3	102.9	315.0	123.8	127.6
Average, 1906.	123.6	112.6	120.0	131.9	135.2	140.1	101.2	311.0	121.1	122.5
1907.										
January.....	129.0	117.0	123.2	135.8	147.9	145.9	102.1	315.0	126.0	127.9
February.....	134.6	118.2	123.9	136.6	149.1	147.3	103.5	315.0	123.8	129.0
March.....	135.4	116.7	124.6	135.5	148.8	149.1	103.4	317.2	128.5	129.4
April.....	136.5	113.9	125.3	132.1	148.6	150.5	105.0	317.5	128.9	129.1
May.....	139.9	113.8	125.9	132.6	148.8	150.4	104.8	317.5	129.5	129.6
June.....	144.2	115.2	126.9	131.2	148.1	149.8	104.4	318.5	128.8	130.1
July.....	140.5	114.9	128.0	132.9	146.9	149.2	108.1	319.6	130.3	130.3
August.....	141.0	115.3	128.3	134.1	142.7	149.0	119.1	320.5	127.5	130.2
September.....	145.5	117.4	129.2	135.2	140.8	147.2	119.1	320.5	127.8	130.8
October.....	144.4	123.5	128.8	139.9	135.4	144.9	116.7	320.5	129.5	131.0
November.....	128.9	122.8	128.2	139.9	133.3	142.2	115.8	320.2	124.3	128.9
December.....	128.3	120.8	127.1	133.6	129.8	137.2	112.4	320.2	120.6	126.4
Average, 1907.	137.1	117.8	126.7	135.0	143.4	146.9	109.6	318.5	127.1	129.5

a These figures are correct; those given for 1906 in Bulletin No. 69 were slightly in error.

In this table the average relative prices of farm products are based on 16 articles; of food, etc., on 54 articles in 1902 and 1903 and on 53 articles from 1904 to 1907; of cloths and clothing, on 76 articles from 1902 to 1905 and on 75 articles in 1906 and 1907; of fuel and lighting, on 13 articles; of metals and implements, on 38 articles; of lumber and building materials, on 27 articles; of drugs and chemicals, on 9 articles; of house furnishing goods, on 14 articles, and of miscellaneous, on 13 articles. The average relative prices of all commodities are based on 260 articles in 1902 and 1903; on 259 articles in 1904 and 1905, and on 258 articles in 1906 and 1907.

The table shows that the group of farm products reached the lowest average in November, 1903, and the highest in September, 1907; that of food, etc., the lowest in June, 1905, and the highest in October, 1907; that of cloths and clothing, the lowest in January, February, April, May, and August, 1902, and the highest in September, 1907; that of fuel and lighting, the lowest in April, 1902, and the highest in January and February, 1903; that of metals and implements, the lowest in September, 1904, and the highest in February, 1907; that of lumber and building materials, the lowest in January, 1902, and the highest in April, 1907; that of drugs and chemicals, the lowest in

May, 1906, and the highest in January, 1902, and in August and September, 1907; that of house furnishing goods, the lowest, January to June, 1906, and the highest in August, September, and October, 1907; while in the miscellaneous group the lowest average was reached in November, 1904, and the highest in July, 1907. It is interesting to see that during the six years the relative price of not a single group was as low as the base—that is, the average price for the 10-year period from 1890 to 1899. Farm products were from 9.9 per cent to 45.5 per cent above base (average price for the 10-year period, 1890 to 1899); food, etc., from 2.7 per cent to 23.5 per cent above base; cloths and clothing, from 1.5 per cent to 29.2 per cent above base; fuel and lighting, from 18.1 per cent to 78.6 per cent above base; metals and implements, from 7.6 per cent to 49.1 per cent above base; lumber and building materials, from 11.4 per cent to 50.5 per cent above base; drugs and chemicals, from 0.2 per cent to 19.1 per cent above base; house furnishing goods, from 8.8 per cent to 20.5 per cent above base; the miscellaneous group, from 9.7 per cent to 30.3 per cent above base; and all commodities combined, from 10.3 per cent to 31.0 per cent above base. All commodities combined reached the lowest average for these years in January, 1902, and the highest in October, 1907.

The course of prices during the months of 1902 to 1907 as represented by all commodities is clearly shown in the graphic table on page 300.

The following table shows the movement in the wholesale prices of raw commodities and of manufactured commodities month by month from January, 1902, to December, 1907. A description of the two classes may be found on pages 285 and 286.

RELATIVE PRICES OF RAW COMMODITIES, MANUFACTURED COMMODITIES, AND ALL COMMODITIES, FOR EACH MONTH, 1902 TO 1907.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Date.	Raw commodities.	Manufactured commodities.	All commodities.
1902.			
January.....	117.0	108.7	110.3
February.....	116.2	109.0	110.4
March.....	117.0	109.5	110.9
April.....	117.5	110.3	111.7
May.....	122.8	111.0	113.3
June.....	121.1	111.2	113.1
July.....	121.8	110.9	113.0
August.....	119.8	110.4	112.2
September.....	119.6	110.5	112.3
October.....	131.3	111.7	115.5
November.....	128.7	111.2	114.6
December.....	131.4	111.5	115.3
Average, 1902.....	122.4	110.6	112.9

RELATIVE PRICES OF RAW COMMODITIES, MANUFACTURED COMMODITIES, AND ALL COMMODITIES, FOR EACH MONTH, 1902 TO 1907—Concluded.

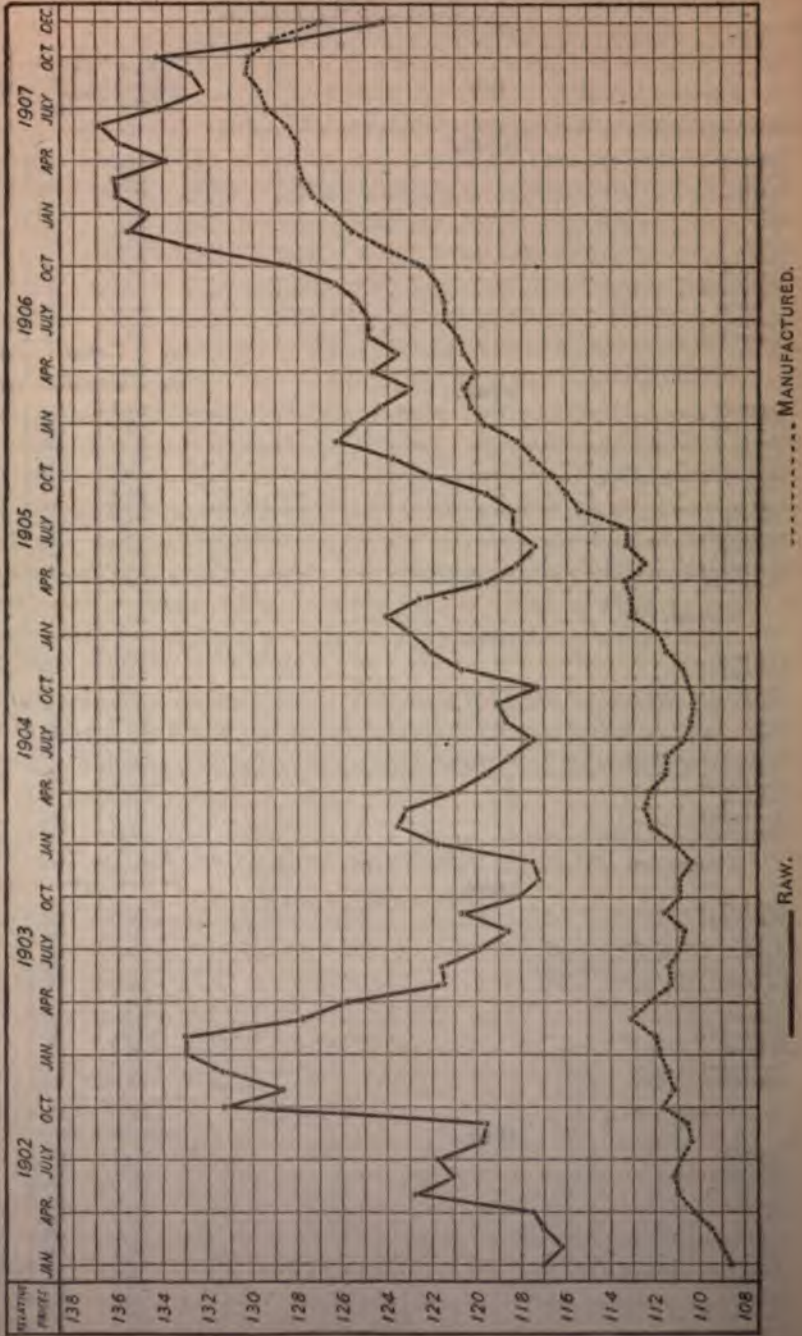
[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Date.	Raw commodities.	Manufactured commodities.	All commodities.
1903.			
January.....	133.0	111.8	115.9
February.....	133.0	112.0	116.1
March.....	127.8	113.1	115.9
April.....	125.8	112.3	114.9
May.....	121.5	111.3	113.2
June.....	121.6	111.4	113.4
July.....	119.9	110.9	112.6
August.....	118.6	110.7	112.2
September.....	120.7	111.6	113.3
October.....	118.1	110.9	112.3
November.....	117.2	110.9	112.1
December.....	117.5	110.4	111.7
Average, 1903.....	122.7	111.5	113.6
1904.			
January.....	121.8	111.1	113.2
February.....	123.6	112.2	114.4
March.....	123.2	112.5	114.6
April.....	121.1	112.3	114.0
May.....	119.7	111.6	113.2
June.....	118.5	111.5	112.9
July.....	117.5	110.7	112.0
August.....	118.7	110.4	112.0
September.....	119.1	110.3	112.0
October.....	117.3	110.5	111.8
November.....	120.7	110.8	112.7
December.....	122.1	111.5	113.5
Average, 1904.....	119.7	111.3	113.0
1905.			
January.....	123.0	111.9	114.0
February.....	124.1	113.1	115.2
March.....	122.6	113.1	114.9
April.....	119.6	113.4	114.6
May.....	118.2	112.5	113.6
June.....	117.4	113.3	114.1
July.....	118.4	113.3	114.3
August.....	118.4	115.4	116.0
September.....	119.6	116.0	116.7
October.....	122.1	116.6	117.6
November.....	123.8	117.5	118.7
December.....	120.3	118.2	119.8
Average, 1905.....	121.2	114.6	115.9
1906.			
January.....	◦ 125.5	119.7	◦ 120.8
February.....	◦ 124.4	120.3	◦ 121.1
March.....	◦ 123.0	120.6	◦ 121.1
April.....	◦ 124.7	120.1	◦ 121.0
May.....	◦ 123.6	120.6	◦ 121.2
June.....	◦ 124.9	120.9	◦ 121.6
July.....	◦ 124.9	121.5	◦ 122.1
August.....	◦ 125.4	121.5	◦ 122.3
September.....	◦ 126.3	121.8	◦ 122.6
October.....	◦ 128.4	122.4	◦ 123.5
November.....	◦ 132.4	124.1	◦ 125.7
December.....	◦ 135.6	125.6	◦ 127.6
Average, 1906.....	◦ 126.5	121.6	◦ 122.5
1907.			
January.....	134.7	126.3	127.9
February.....	136.1	127.3	129.0
March.....	136.2	127.8	129.4
April.....	133.9	128.0	129.1
May.....	136.0	128.0	129.6
June.....	136.9	128.5	130.1
July.....	134.2	129.4	130.3
August.....	132.3	129.7	130.2
September.....	132.8	130.3	130.8
October.....	134.3	130.2	131.0
November.....	128.1	129.1	128.9
December.....	124.2	127.0	126.4
Average, 1907.....	133.4	128.6	129.5

◦ These figures are correct; those given for 1906 in Bulletin No. 69 were slightly in error.

RELATIVE PRICES OF RAW AND MANUFACTURED COMMODITIES, BY MONTHS, 1902 TO 1907.

[Average prices for 1890 to 1899=100.]



The raw commodities reached the lowest average for these years in February, 1902, and the highest in June, 1907; manufactured commodities reached the lowest in January, 1902, and the highest in September, 1907. The average for raw commodities ranged from 16.2 per cent to 36.9 per cent above the base price, while the average for manufactured commodities ranged from 8.7 per cent to 30.3 per cent above the base price.

The course of prices of raw and manufactured commodities from 1902 to 1907 is shown in the graphic table on page 304.

No attempt has been made in any way to investigate the causes of the rise and fall of prices. The aim has been to give the prices as they actually prevailed in the market. The causes are too complex, the relative influence of each too uncertain, in some cases involving too many economic questions, to permit their discussion in connection with the present article. It will be sufficient to enumerate some of the influences that cause changes in prices. Such influences include variations in harvest, which not only restrict or increase the supply and consequently tend to increase or decrease the price of a commodity, but also restrict or increase, to a greater or less degree, the purchasing power of such communities as are dependent in whole or in part upon such commodity; changes in demand due to changes in fashions, seasons, etc.; legislation altering internal-revenue taxes, import duties, or bounties; inspection as to purity or adulteration; use of other articles as substitutes—as, for instance, an advance in the price of beef will cause an increased consumption of pork and mutton and, it may be added, a probable increase in the price of both pork and mutton; improvements in methods of production which will tend either to give a better article for the same price or an equal article for a lower price; cheapening of transportation or handling; speculative manipulation of the supply or of the raw product; commercial panic or depression; overproduction; unusual demand owing to steady employment of consumers; short supply owing to disputes between labor and capital in industries of limited producing capacity, as in the anthracite coal industry in 1902; organization or combination of mills or producers, thus enabling, on the one hand, a greater or less control of prices or, on the other hand, economies in production or in transportation charges through the ability to supply the article from the point of production or manufacture nearest the purchaser. So far as individual commodities are concerned, no conclusion can safely be formed as to causes without an examination of the possible influence of several—in some cases, perhaps, all—of these causes. For example, the various internal-revenue and tariff acts have, in a marked degree, no doubt affected the prices of proof spirits, of tobacco, and of sugar. But, on the other hand, they have not been

alone in their influences, and it probably would not in all cases be accurate to give the change of tax or duty as representing the measure of a certain and definite influence on the prices of those commodities.

EXPLANATION OF TABLES.

The general statistical tables of this report are five in number, entitled as follows:

I.—Wholesale prices of commodities in 1907.

II.—Monthly actual and relative prices of commodities in 1907 and base prices (average for 1890–1899).

III.—Monthly relative prices of commodities in 1907.

IV.—Average yearly actual and relative prices of commodities, 1890 to 1907, and base prices (average for 1890–1899).

V.—Yearly relative prices of commodities, 1890–1907.

Table I.—Wholesale prices of commodities in 1907, pages 347 to 395.—

This table shows in detail the actual prices in 1907, as obtained for the several commodities embraced by this report. There is not space within a bulletin article to republish in full the actual prices for all commodities from 1890 down to 1906. Such prices may be found, however, in the preceding March Bulletins of this Bureau, as follows:

Prices from 1890 to 1901 in Bulletin No. 39.

Prices for 1902 in Bulletin No. 45.

Prices for 1903 in Bulletin No. 51.

Prices for 1904 in Bulletin No. 57.

Prices for 1905 in Bulletin No. 63.

Prices for 1906 in Bulletin No. 69.

It is important that the greatest care be exercised in the choice of commodities in order that a simple average of their relative prices shall show a general price level. In the present compilation 258 commodities are shown, and it has been the aim of the Bureau to select only important and representative articles in each group. The number of articles included is larger than has heretofore been used in similar compilations, with one exception. The use of a large number of articles, carefully selected, minimizes the effect on the general price level of an unusual change in the price of any one article or of a few articles. It will be seen that more than one series of prices have been given in the case of articles of great importance. This has been done for the purpose of giving due weight to these important commodities, no other method of accomplishing this having been found satisfactory by the Bureau. The same means have been employed by Mr. Sauerbeck in his English prices, as explained in Bulletin No. 39, and the approximate accuracy of the same, as an indication of the variation of prices, has been proved by various tests based on the amount of production, etc.

Various methods of weighting have been attempted in connection with compilations of relative prices. One method employed by European statisticians is to measure the importance of each commodity by its annual consumption by the entire nation, the annual consumption being found by adding to the home production the amount imported and subtracting the amount exported. The method employed by the Bureau of Labor in its publication of *Retail Prices of Food* in the Eighteenth Annual Report and in Bulletin Nos. 59, 65, and 71, consisted in giving to the various articles of food an importance based upon their average consumption in normal families. While it was possible to determine the relative importance as far as the consumption of food is concerned, there are, of course, many commodities whose importance can not be measured by this method. The impossibility of securing even approximately accurate figures for annual consumption in the United States of the commodities included in this compilation renders this method unavailable for the Bureau.

It has been thought best in the present series of index numbers, after a careful consideration of all methods of weighting, simply to use a large number of representative staple articles, selecting them in such a manner as to make them, to a large extent, weight themselves. Upon a casual examination it may seem that by this method a comparatively unimportant commodity—such, for instance, as tea—has been given the same weight or importance as one of the more important commodities, such as wheat. A closer examination, however, discloses the fact that tea enters into no other commodity under consideration, while wheat is not only quoted as the raw material, but enters into the two descriptions of wheat flour, the two descriptions of crackers, and the three descriptions of loaf bread.

¶ In securing these prices an effort has been made to include staple commodities only. In a number of instances it was found possible to continue prices for the same commodities that were included in the Report on Wholesale Prices, Wages, and Transportation, submitted by Mr. Aldrich from the Senate Committee on Finance, March 3, 1893. Many articles which were included in that report are no longer manufactured, or, if still manufactured, have ceased to be important factors in the market. On the other hand, a number of articles not shown in that report have become of such importance as to render necessary their inclusion in any study of the course of prices.

Although in the case of commodities of great importance more than one series of quotations have been used, in no case has an article of a particular description been represented by more than one series of quotations. For this reason the terms "series of quotations" and "commodities" have been used interchangeably in this report.

In the record of prices for the eighteen years from 1890 to 1907, 248 series of quotations have been secured for the entire period and

an additional 13 for some portion of the period. No quotations are shown for imported tin plate since 1898, no quotations for Ashton's salt since 1903, and no quotations are shown for Beaver overcoatings since 1905, which leaves 258 series of quotations for the year 1907.

Material changes in the description of 3 articles were made in 1902, of 2 articles in 1903, of 1 article in 1904, of 5 articles in 1905, of 7 articles in 1906, and of 3 articles in 1907. For 6 of these articles the trade journals no longer supply satisfactory quotations, the manufacture of the particular grades of 8 previously quoted has been discontinued by the establishments heretofore furnishing quotations, and for 7 articles the substituted descriptions more nearly represent the present demands of the trade.

In making these substitutions, with two exceptions in women's dress goods, articles were supplied corresponding as closely as possible to those which were previously used.

The prices quoted in every instance are wholesale prices. Wholesale prices have invariably been used in compilations which have been made for the purpose of showing changes in the general price level of all commodities. They are more sensitive than retail prices and more quickly reflect changes in conditions. Retail prices usually follow the wholesale, but not generally in the same proportion. The margin between them in the case of some commodities is so great that slight changes in the wholesale price do not affect the retail price. Changes in the wholesale price, which last for a short time only, do not usually result in corresponding changes in the retail price.

The net cash prices are shown for textiles and all articles whose list prices are subject to large and varying discounts. In the case of a number of articles, such as white pine, nails, etc., however, whose prices are subject to a small discount for cash, no deduction has been made.

The prices have been collected from the best available sources, such as standard trade journals, officials of boards of trade, chambers of commerce, and produce exchanges, and leading manufacturers or their selling agents.

The prices quoted are usually the prices in the New York market, except for such articles as have their primary market in some other locality. For grains, live stock, etc., for example, Chicago prices are quoted; for fish, except salmon, Boston prices; for tar, Wilmington, N. C., prices; for Elgin creamery butter, Elgin, Ill., prices, etc. The prices for textiles are the prices in the general distributing markets, such as New York, Boston, and Philadelphia; and where no market is mentioned in the prefatory note to Table I it should be understood that the prices are for the general market.

The following table shows the different markets and the number of articles quoted for each market:

NUMBER OF COMMODITIES OR SERIES OF QUOTATIONS IN 1907, CLASSIFIED BY MARKETS FOR WHICH SECURED.

Market.	Farm products.	Food, etc.	Cloths and clothing.	Fuel and lighting.	Metals and imple-ments.	Lum-ber and build-ing ma-terials.	Drugs and chem-icals.	House fur-nishing goods.	Mis-cella-neous.	Total.
New York.....	2	43	2	9	21	23	9	6	12	127
Chicago.....	14	5			1					20
Factory, mine, wells, etc.				3	1	2		3		9
Pittsburg.....					7					7
Philadelphia.....					4					4
Boston.....		3								3
Trenton, N. J.....								3		3
Cincinnati.....				1	1					2
Eastern markets (Balt., Boston, N. Y., Phila.)			2							2
Buffalo.....						1				1
Edina, Ill.....		1								1
La Salle, Ill.....					1					1
Peoria, Ill.....									1	1
Washington, D. C.....		1								1
Wilmington, N. C.....						1				1
General market.....			71		2			2		75
Total.....	16	53	75	13	38	27	9	14	13	258

As regards the description of the commodity, it should be stated that the greatest care has been taken to secure prices throughout the period from 1890 to 1907 for a commodity of precisely the same description. Changes in quality are, of course, reflected in prices, and for this reason note has been made of any important changes which have occurred. In the case of certain commodities, such as butter, eggs, etc., prices for the best quality have been taken in order to avoid frequent changes in grade. It should also be stated in this connection that in the case of commodities for which prices were secured from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter the lowest quotations were taken where a range of prices was found, because of the fact that, in that publication, these represent the prices of large lots, while the high quotations represent the prices of smaller lots.

Weekly quotations have been secured in the case of all articles which are subject to frequent fluctuations in price, such as butter, cheese, eggs, grain, live stock, meats, etc. In the case of articles whose prices are more stable, monthly or annual quotations have been taken. The following table shows the number of series of weekly, monthly, and annual price quotations:

NUMBER OF COMMODITIES OR SERIES OF QUOTATIONS, CLASSIFIED AS TO THEIR FREQUENCY OF QUOTATION IN 1907.

Frequency of quotation.	Farm products.	Food, etc.	Cloths and clothing.	Fuel and lighting.	Metals and imple-ments.	Lum-ber and build-ing ma-terials.	Drugs and chem-icals.	House fur-nishing goods.	Mis-cella-neous.	Total.
Weekly.....	13	22	1	1					1	38
Monthly.....	3	31	64	12	38	27	9	14	12	210
Annually.....			10							10
Total.....	16	53	75	13	38	27	9	14	13	258

The character of each series of quotations as regards frequency is shown in all cases in Table I in a prefatory note which states fully the date of the quotations and, if weekly, whether the quotations are for some particular day of the week, the average for the week, or the range for the week. The majority of the weekly quotations show the price on Tuesday, and if for any reason Tuesday's price was not obtainable the first price in the week has been taken. The quotations from trade and other journals, when credited to the first of each month, are not in all instances the price for the exact day stated, as it is a common practice of the daily papers which make a specialty of market reports to devote certain days to the review of the market of certain articles. For example, the Boston Herald quotes fish on Saturday only. The prices are, however, the earliest prices quoted in the journal to which the article is credited. It should also be stated that the monthly prices credited to weekly publications are the earliest quotations shown in such publications for each month.

The weight of a loaf of bread is, in some localities, regulated by statute, while in many others the price per loaf is not affected by changes in the price of flour, yet the weight of the loaf is changed from time to time. During 1904, with the advance in the price of flour, the weight of the loaf was decreased in some localities. For this reason the relative prices of bread are computed on the price per pound and not per loaf. Table I shows the price per loaf, the price per pound, and the weight each month during 1907.

The average price for the year was obtained by dividing the sum of the quotations for a given commodity by the number of quotations shown. For example, the sum of the Tuesday's prices of cotton for 1907 (shown in Table I) was \$6.2960, and the number of quotations 53. The former figure divided by the latter gives \$0.11879 as the average price for the year. Where a range was shown the mean price for each date was found, and this was used in computing the yearly average as above described. The reader will understand that, in order to secure for any commodity a strictly scientific average price for the year, one must know the quantity marketed and the price for which each unit of quantity was sold. It is manifestly impossible to secure such detail, and even were it possible the labor involved in the compilation would make this method prohibitive. It is believed that the method adopted here, which is also that used in the construction of other index numbers, secures results which are quite as valuable for all practical purposes.

Owing to the unusual method of fixing the scale of prices of cut and wire nails and the difficulties encountered in securing satisfactory quotations of prices, it was thought best to enter into a somewhat lengthy explanation in Bulletin No. 39, and the reader is referred to *pages 226 to 231 of that number.*

The base prices of nails are the prices quoted by the trade, and while they could not be used, for reasons explained in Bulletin No. 39, in computing relative prices, they form the basis from which are calculated the actual prices for 8-penny nails, as given in Table I, and therefore the base prices of both cut and wire nails during 1907 are given in the following tables:

NAILS: CUT, BASE SIZES.

[Price per 100-pound keg, f. o. b. Pittsburg, on the first of each month; quotations from the Iron Age.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
January.....	\$2.05	April.....	\$2.05	July.....	\$2.05	October....	\$2.10
February.....	2.05	May.....	2.05	August.....	2.10	November..	\$2.00-2.05
March.....	2.05	June.....	2.05	September..	2.15	December..	2.00-2.05
						Average..	2.0025

NAILS: WIRE, BASE SIZES.

[Price per 100-pound keg, f. o. b. Pittsburg, on the first of each month; quotations from the Iron Age.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
January.....	\$2.00	April.....	\$2.00	July.....	\$2.00	October....	\$2.05
February.....	2.00	May.....	2.00	August.....	2.00	November..	2.05
March.....	2.00	June.....	2.00	September..	2.05	December..	2.05
						Average..	2.0167

In previous Bulletins quotations have been published for two descriptions of scoured wool, but in view of the fact that such a large proportion of the wool is now being marketed unwashed, monthly price quotations for a standard grade of unwashed wool have also been secured. For comparative purposes the quotations on the scoured basis are continued in Table I. No relative prices were computed from the quotations of unwashed wool. It may be necessary at some future time to use these quotations in the index number, and it was considered advisable to secure them from year to year.

The quotations of actual prices of unwashed wool on the first of each month for 1890 to 1903 were shown in Bulletin No. 51 (page 237), for 1904 in Bulletin No. 57 (page 405), for 1905 in Bulletin No. 63 (page 352), and for 1906 in Bulletin No. 69 (page 264).

The prices for 1907 follow:

WHOLESALE PRICE OF UNWASHED OHIO MEDIUM FLEECE WOOL (ONE-FOURTH AND THREE-EIGHTHS GRADE), 1907.

[Price per pound in the eastern markets (Baltimore, Boston, New York, and Philadelphia) on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
January.....	\$0.33	April.....	\$0.33	July.....	\$0.33	October....	\$0.32
February.....	.33	May.....	.32	August.....	.32	November..	.32
March.....	.33	June.....	.33	September..	.32	December..	.32
						Average..	.3250

On preceding pages of this report an opportunity has been afforded to note the extent of the change in wholesale prices between 1906 and 1907, by groups of commodities. The following table shows the per cent of increase or decrease in the average wholesale price in 1907 for each individual article as compared with the price in 1906:

PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE IN THE AVERAGE WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907. COMPARED WITH 1906.

[For a more detailed description of the articles see Table I, page 347 et seq.]

Farm products, 16 articles.

Articles.	Per cent of increase or decrease.	Articles.	Per cent of increase or decrease.
PRICE INCREASED.		PRICE DECREASED.	
Hops: New York State, choice.....	6.7	Sheep: native.....	1.0
Cattle: steers, choice to extra.....	6.8	Hogs: light.....	1.8
Flaxseed: No. 1.....	7.1	Hogs: heavy.....	2.3
Cotton: upland, middling.....	7.7	Hides: green, salted, packers, heavy native steers.....	5.7
Cattle: steers good to choice.....	8.5	Sheep: western.....	7.5
Corn: No. 2, cash.....	14.0		
Wheat: cash.....	14.5		
Rye: No. 2, cash.....	25.9		
Hay: timothy, No. 1.....	30.7		
Oats: cash.....	37.1		
Barley: by sample.....	49.8		

Food, etc., 53 articles.

PRICE SAME AS IN 1906.	PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Bread: crackers, Boston.....	Butter: creamery, Elgin.....	12.3
Bread: crackers, soda.....	Rice: domestic, choice.....	12.7
Bread: loaf, Washington market.....	Meat: beef, fresh, native sides.....	13.3
Bread: loaf, homemade.....	Butter: creamery, extra.....	13.7
Bread: loaf, Vienna.....	Flour: wheat, spring patents.....	14.0
Soda: bicarbonate of.....	Fruit: currants.....	14.4
	Butter: dairy, New York State.....	14.9
PRICE INCREASED.	Flour: buckwheat.....	15.1
Meat: pork, salt, mess.....	Tallow.....	17.4
Meat: bacon, clear sides.....	Flour: rye.....	19.7
Vinegar: cider, Monarch.....	Fruit: apples, sun-dried.....	19.9
Fruit: raisins, California, London layer.....	Molasses: New Orleans, open kettle.....	20.2
Fish: cod, dry, bank, large.....	Meat: beef, salt hams, western.....	20.8
Sugar: 90° centrifugal.....		
Sugar: 80° fair refining.....	PRICE DECREASED.	
Sugar: granulated.....	Meat: bacon, short rib sides.....	0.1
Lard: prime contract.....	Fish: salmon, canned.....	.9
Starch: pure corn.....	Tes: Formosa, fine.....	2.1
Meat: hams, smoked.....	Fish: herring, shore.....	3.1
Eggs: new-laid, fancy.....	Meat: mutton, dressed.....	3.5
Vegetables, fresh: onions.....	Fish: mackerel, salt.....	5.9
Meal: corn, fine white.....	Beans: medium, choice.....	6.5
Meal: corn, fine yellow.....	Fruit: prunes, California, in boxes.....	8.2
Cheese: New York, full cream.....	Vegetables, fresh: potatoes, white.....	10.3
Flour: wheat, winter straights.....	Spices: pepper, Singapore.....	12.7
Meat: beef, salt, extra mess.....	Fruit: apples, evaporated.....	13.8
Salt: American.....	Coffee: Rio No. 7.....	18.9
Milk: fresh.....	Spices: nutmegs.....	19.2
Glucose.....		

PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE IN THE AVERAGE WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907, COMPARED WITH 1906—Continued.

Cloths and clothing, 75 articles.

Article.	Per cent of increase or decrease.	Article.	Per cent of increase or decrease.
PRICE SAME AS IN 1906.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Blankets: 11-4, 5 pounds to pair, cotton warp, all wool filling.....		Hosiery: women's combed Egyptian cotton hose.....	6.6
Blankets: 11-4.5 pounds to pair, cotton warp, cotton and wool filling.....		Leather: wax calf.....	7.9
Broadcloths.....		Cotton flannels: 2½ yards to the pound.	7.0
Linen shoe thread: 10s, Barbour.....		Hosiery: men's cotton half hose, 84 needles.....	7.1
Overcoatings: covert cloth, light weight.....		Bags: 2-bushel, Amoskeag.....	7.3
Suitings: indigo blue, all wool, 16-ounce, Middlesex standard.....		Tickings: Amoskeag A. C. A.....	8.7
Suitings: indigo blue, all wool, 16-ounce.....		Sheetings: brown, Pepperell R.....	8.9
Underwear: white, all wool, full fashioned, 18-gauge.....		Hosiery: women's cotton hose, seamless, fast black.....	9.7
Underwear: white, merino, 60 per cent wool.....		Cotton yarns: northern, cones, 19/1.....	10.0
Women's dress goods: cashmere, all wool, Atlantic J.....		Sheetings: bleached, Atlantic.....	10.5
Wool: Ohio, fine fleece (X and XX grade), secured.....		Boots and shoes: men's split boots, russet, bound top.....	10.6
		Cotton flannels: 3½ yards to the pound.	10.7
PRICE INCREASED.		Hosiery: men's cotton half hose, seamless, fast black.....	11.1
Worsted yarns: 2-40s, Australian fine.....	0.3	Cotton yarns: northern, cones, 22/1.....	11.6
Women's dress goods: Poplar cloth.....	.4	Sheetings: bleached, Wamsutta S. T.....	11.6
Flannels: 4-4, Ballard Vale.....	.5	Denims: Amoskeag.....	12.0
Suitings: serge, Washington Mills.....	.5	Cotton thread: J. & P. Coats.....	12.3
Wool: Ohio, medium fleece.....	.6	Ginghams: Amoskeag.....	16.5
Leather: harness, oak.....	.7	Sheetings: bleached, Pepperell.....	18.5
Leather: sole, oak.....	.7	Ginghams: Lancaster.....	16.6
Boots and shoes: men's vicicalf, Blue-cher bal.....	.9	Silk: raw, Japan.....	21.5
Sheetings: brown, Mass. mills, Flying Horse brand.....	1.3	Calico: American standard prints.....	21.6
Overcoatings: chinchilla, all wool.....	1.4	Shirtings: New York mills, Williams-ville, Ai.....	22.9
Trouserings: fancy worsted, 21 to 22 ounce.....	1.4	Shirtings: Hope.....	24.3
Boots and shoes: men's brogans.....	1.5	Shirtings: Lonsdale.....	27.2
Women's dress goods: cashmere, 36-inch, Hamilton.....	2.6	Silk: raw, Italian.....	29.0
Women's dress goods: Danish cloth.....	2.7	Print cloths: 28-inch.....	31.1
Linen thread: 3-cord, Barbour.....	3.5	Shirtings: Fruit of the Loom.....	36.7
Women's dress goods: cashmere, cotton warp, Atlantic F.....	3.6		
Sheetings: brown, Atlantic A.....	3.9	PRICE DECREASED.	
Carpets: Wilton, 5-frame, Bigelow.....	4.0	Overcoatings: chinchilla, cotton warp.....	1.1
Sheetings: brown, Indian Head.....	4.1	Worsted yarns: 2-40s, XXXX or its equivalent, white.....	1.2
Leather: sole, hemlock.....	4.2	Blankets: 11-4, 5 pounds to pair, all wool.....	2.4
Carpets: Ingrain, 2-ply, Lowell.....	4.3	Boots and shoes: women's solid grain shoes.....	2.4
Boots and shoes: men's vicic kid shoes, Goodyear welt.....	5.1	Horse blankets: 6 pounds each.....	3.2
Drillings: 36-inch, Stark A.....	5.7	Overcoatings: Kersey, standard, 27 to 28 ounces.....	3.5
Carpets: Brussels, 5-frame, Bigelow.....	5.8	Suitings: clay worsted diagonal, 12-ounce.....	3.7
Drillings: brown, Pepperell.....	6.5	Suitings: clay worsted diagonal, 16-ounce.....	4.8
Shirtings: bleached, ^{XX} Wamsutta.....	6.5	Women's dress goods: Franklin sackings.....	4.9
		Shawls: standard, all wool (low grade), 40 to 42 ounces.....	10.7

Fuel and lighting, 13 articles.

PRICE SAME AS IN 1906.		PRICE DECREASED.	
Matches: parlor, domestic.....		Coal: anthracite, chestnut.....	0.8
PRICE INCREASED.		Coal: anthracite, stove.....	.8
Coal: anthracite, broken.....	0.1	Coal: bituminous, Georges Creek (at mine).....	.8
Petroleum: refined, 150°.....	3.5	Coal: anthracite, egg.....	.9
Coal: bituminous, Georges Creek (New York Harbor).....	3.6	Candles: adamantine.....	3.3
Coal: bituminous, Pittsburg, Youghi-gheny.....	4.4		
Coke: Connellsville, furnace.....	5.6		
Petroleum: refined, for export.....	8.1		
Petroleum: crude.....	8.6		

PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE IN THE AVERAGE WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907, COMPARED WITH 1906—Continued.

Metals and implements, 38 articles.

Article.	Per cent of increase or decrease.	Article.	Per cent of increase or decrease.
PRICE SAME AS IN 1906.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Butts: loose joint, cast.....		Copper: ingot, lake.....	8.4
Hammers: Maydole.....		Barb wire: galvanized.....	8.5
Saws: crosscut, Disston No. 2.....		Locks: common, mortise.....	10.6
Saws: hand, Disston No. 7.....		Nails: cut, 8-penny, fence and common.....	12.0
Steel rails.....		Pig iron: foundry No. 1.....	13.9
Trowels: M. C. O.....		Copper wire: bare.....	13.9
PRICE INCREASED.		Wood screws: 1-inch.....	15.5
Augers: extra, 1/2-inch.....	0.9	Pig iron: Bessemer.....	16.9
Axes: M. C. O., Yankee.....	1.3	Copper: sheet, hot rolled.....	17.6
Doorknobs: steel, bronze-plated.....	2.1	Pig iron: foundry No. 2.....	23.9
Shovels: Ames No. 2.....	2.9	Pig iron: gray forge, southern.....	27.0
Bar iron: common to best refined (Pittsburg).....	3.6	Vises: solid box, 50-pound.....	27.2
Zinc: sheet.....	4.4	PRICE DECREASED.	
Lead: pipe.....	4.4	Spelter: western.....	0.5
Steel sheets: black, No. 27.....	5.5	Tin: pig.....	1.2
Tin plates: domestic.....	5.9	Quicksilver.....	1.6
Chisels: extra, socket firmer.....	6.0	Silver: bar, fine.....	2.1
Bar iron: best refined (Philadelphia).....	6.6	Files: 8-inch mill bastard.....	2.4
Steel billets.....	6.6	Lead: pig.....	6.1
Nails: wire, 8-penny, fence and common.....	8.1	Planes: Bailey No. 5.....	10.5

Lumber and building materials, 27 articles.

Article.	Per cent of increase or decrease.	Article.	Per cent of increase or decrease.
PRICE SAME AS IN 1906.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Cement: Rosendale.....		Resin: good, strained.....	9.0
PRICE INCREASED.		Doors: pine, western.....	9.1
Lime: common.....	0.2	Oak: white, plain.....	9.5
Putty.....	.8	Pine: white, boards.....	10.0
Carbonate of lead: American.....	1.0	Pine: white, No. 2, barn.....	12.5
Oak: white, quartered.....	1.1	Poplar.....	14.0
Plate glass: polished, glazing, area 3 to 5 square feet.....	1.5	Tar.....	18.9
Hemlock.....	1.6	Shingles: red cedar.....	21.8
Plate glass: polished, glazing, area 5 to 10 square feet.....	3.0	Shingles: cypress.....	30.3
Pine: yellow.....	4.0	PRICE DECREASED.	
Maple: hard.....	4.0	Window glass: American, single, thirds.....	0.6
Cement: Portland.....	4.5	Window glass: American, single, firsts.....	3.6
Oxide of zinc.....	5.9	Turpentine: spirits of.....	4.6
Linseed oil: raw.....	7.2	Spruce.....	6.0
		Brick: common domestic.....	28.0

Drugs and chemicals, 9 articles.

Article.	Per cent of increase or decrease.	Article.	Per cent of increase or decrease.
PRICE SAME AS IN 1906.		PRICE DECREASED.	
Alum: lump.....		Brimstone: crude.....	3.0
Muriatic acid.....		Alcohol: wood, refined.....	43.0
Sulphuric acid.....			
PRICE INCREASED.			
Alcohol: grain.....	2.4		
Quinine: American.....	7.1		
Glycerin: refined.....	22.5		
Opium: natural, in cases.....	67.7		

PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE IN THE AVERAGE WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907, COMPARED WITH 1906—Concluded.

House furnishing goods, 14 articles.

Article.	Per cent of increase or decrease.	Article.	Per cent of increase or decrease.
PRICE SAME AS IN 1906.		PRICE INCREASED.	
Earthenware: plates, cream-colored.....		Table cutlery: carvers.....	6.7
Earthenware: plates, white granite.....		Table cutlery: knives and forks.....	7.2
Earthenware: teacups and saucers, white granite.....		Furniture: tables, kitchen.....	9.1
Glassware: nappies.....		Wooden ware: tubs, oak-grained.....	10.3
Glassware: pitchers.....		Furniture: bedroom sets, ash.....	11.9
Glassware: tumblers.....		Furniture: chairs, bedroom, maple.....	12.1
		Furniture: chairs, kitchen.....	13.0
		Wooden ware: pails, oak-grained.....	15.9

Miscellaneous, 13 articles.

Article.	Per cent of increase or decrease.	Article.	Per cent of increase or decrease.
PRICE SAME AS IN 1906.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Tobacco: smoking, gran., Seal of N. C.....		Cotton-seed oil: summer yellow, prime.....	34.8
		Malt: western made.....	59.9
PRICE INCREASED.		PRICE DECREASED.	
Paper: wrapping, manila.....	1.2	Tobacco: plug, Climax.....	2.3
Proof spirits.....	2.0	Cotton-seed meal.....	5.6
Rope: manila.....	3.0	Jute: raw.....	9.8
Soap: castile, mottled, pure.....	3.2	Rubber: Para Island, new.....	12.3
Starch: laundry.....	10.1		
Paper: news, wood.....	13.7		

The most striking increases in the average prices for 1907 as compared with 1906 in the group of farm products were for barley, oats, hay, rye, wheat, and corn. The article showing the greatest decrease in price was western sheep.

The articles showing the greatest increase in price in food were beef, molasses, sun-dried apples, flour, butter, currants, rice, glucose, and milk, while the articles showing the greatest decrease were nutmegs, coffee, evaporated apples, pepper, and potatoes.

In the group of cloths and clothing there was an increase of from 10 to 36.7 per cent in 20 articles, including most of the cotton products. The principal increase in fuel and lighting was in petroleum, crude and refined, for export. Under metals and implements there was a marked increase in the prices of locks, nails, pig iron, copper wire, sheet copper, screws, and vises. In lumber and building materials there was a marked advance in timber products, but a decline in brick. Under drugs and chemicals there was a large increase in the price of opium and of glycerin, but a heavy decrease in the price of alcohol.

In the group of house furnishing goods no articles for which prices are quoted decreased in price. The principal advance in the group was in furniture and wooden ware. In the group of miscellaneous articles there was an advance in news paper, cotton-seed oil, and

malt. The article in this group that showed the greatest decrease in price was rubber.

An examination of Table I in the present Bulletin in connection with Table I in Bulletin Nos. 39, 45, 51, 57, 63, and 69, shows that the prices of some of the commodities included in these index numbers were subject to frequent and decided fluctuations, while the prices of others were almost, and in two cases altogether, uniform throughout the period. The following table shows the lowest and highest quotations and the dates of the same for each of the commodities during the eighteen-year period. Only the commodities for which the quotations throughout the period have been for practically the same description of article are included in this table.

LOWEST AND HIGHEST QUOTATIONS, 1890 TO 1907.*

[For a more detailed description of the articles see Table I, page 347 et seq.]

FARM PRODUCTS.

Article.	Lowest.		Highest.		Unit.
	Date.	Price.	Date.	Price.	
Barley: by sample.....	3d week Aug 1896	\$0.18½ - \$0.35	3d week Oct 1907.	\$1.05 - \$1.10	Bushel
Cattle: steers, choice to extra.	4th week Apr 1896.	3.85 - 4.25	3d, 4th Tues Aug, 1st Tues Sept 1902.	7.60 - 9.00	100 lbs
Cattle: steers, good to choice.	2d Tues Jan 1890	3.00 - 3.90	2d, 3d, 4th Tues Aug, 1st, 2d Tues Sept 1902	6.70 - 7.60	100 lbs
Corn: No. 2, cash.....	2d Tues Sept 1896	.19½ - .20	5th Tues May 1892.	.48½ - 1.00	Bushel
Cotton: upland, middling.	1st Tues Feb, 1st, 2d Tues Nov 1898.	.05½	1st Tues Feb 1904.	.16½	Pound
Flaxseed: No. 1.....	Sept 1896.....	.63½ - .64	July 1901.....	1.88	Bushel
Hay, timothy, No. 1.....	3d, 4th Tues July 1898.	6.50 - 8.00	2d Tues June 1907	20.50 - 21.50	Ton
Hides: green, salted, packers, heavy native steers.	June 1894.....	.0500 - .0513	Dec 1906.....	.1650	Pound
Hogs: heavy.....	4th Tues July 1896.	2.50 - 3.15	2d Tues Feb 1893	8.10 - 8.65	100 lbs
Hogs: light.....	3d Tues Sept 1896	2.80 - 3.35	2d Tues Feb 1893	7.90 - 8.25	100 lbs
Hops: N. Y. State, choice.	Sept 1896.....	.06 - .07	Nov 1890.....	.45 - .47	Pound
Oats: cash.....	2d Tues Sept 1896	.14½	4th Tues July 1902	.63½ - .64	Bushel
Rye: No. 2, cash.....	5th Tues June 1896.	.28½	3d Tues Aug 1891	.97 - 1.00	Bushel
Sheep: native.....	5th Tues Oct 1894	.75 - 3.25	3d Tues Apr 1907.	5.60 - 7.25	100 lbs
Sheep: western.....	5th Tues Aug 1893.	1.00 - 3.00	3d Tues Apr 1907.	5.00 - 7.35	100 lbs
Wheat: contract grades, cash.	5th Tues Jan 1895	.48½ - .49½	2d Tues May 1895	1.75 - 1.85	Bushel

FOOD, ETC.

Beans: medium, choice....	Apr 1897.....	\$0.85	Sept 1901.....	\$2.75	Bushel
Bread: crackers, Boston....	May, June 1897..	.05	Feb 1905 to Dec 1907.	.09	Pound
Bread: crackers, soda.....	May to Dec 1897.	.05½	June 1898.....	.08½	Pound
Bread: loaf (Washington market).	May to July 1895.	.0267	Aug 1896, Nov 1904.	.0444	Pound
Bread: loaf, homemade (N. Y. market).	Jan to May 1896.	.0240	Oct 1904 to Dec 1907.	.0376	Pound
Bread: loaf, Vienna (N. Y. market).	Jan to May 1896.	.0267	Oct 1904 to Dec 1907.	.0490	Pound
Butter: creamery, Elgin (Elgin market).	1st Mon June 1896.	\$0.13½ - .14	1st Mon Mar 1891.	\$0.34 - .35½	Pound
Butter: creamery, extra (N. Y. market).	2d Tues June 1896.	.13½ - .14	2d Tues Mar 1891.	.35 - .36½	Pound

* Before baking.

LOWEST AND HIGHEST QUOTATIONS, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

FOOD, ETC.—Continued.

Article.	Lowest.		Highest.		Unit.
	Date.	Price.	Date.	Price.	
Butter: dairy, N. Y. State..	3d Tues Apr 1896.	\$0.13 - \$0.13½	2d Tues Mar 1891, 4th Tues Apr 1907.	\$0.33	Pound
Cheese: N. Y., full cream...	3d Tues May 1895.	.06 - .06½	4th, 5th Tues Oct 1907.	.16½	Pound
Coffee: Rio No. 7.....	May, June, Aug, Sept 1903.	.05½ - .05½	Oct 1890.....	\$0.18½ - .19	Pound
Eggs: new-laid, near-by...	1st Tues Apr 1897.	.10½ - .10½	3d Tues Dec 1907.	.43 - .50	Dozen
Fish: cod, dry, bank, large.	Mar to Sept 1896, Aug 1897.	4.00 - 4.25	Jan to July 1907	8.00	Quintal
Fish: herring, shore, round.	May to Aug 1892	2.00 - 2.25	Feb 1905.....	6.50 - 7.00	Barrel
Fish: mackerel, salt, large No. 3s.	June 1897.....	8.00 - 9.00	Sept, Oct 1890...	20.00	Barrel
Fish: salmon, canned.....	Apr 1898.....	1.10 - 1.30	Mar 1890.....	1.75 - 2.00	12 cans
Flour: buckwheat.....	Apr 1897.....	1.00 - 1.15	Sept 1891.....	3.50 - 3.65	100 lbs
Flour: rye.....	July 1897.....	2.00 - 2.40	Nov 1891.....	5.15 - 5.90	Barrel
Flour: wheat, spring patents.	1st Tues Nov 1894.	3.15 - 3.40	2d Tues May 1898.	7.00 - 7.75	Barrel
Flour: wheat, winter straights.	2d Tues Oct to 1st Tues Nov 1894.	2.40 - 2.65	2d Tues May 1898.	6.25 - 6.75	Barrel
Fruit: apples, evaporated, choice.	Apr 1897.....	.03½ - .03½	Feb 1891.....	.14½ - .15½	Pound
Fruit: apples, sun-dried...	May 1897.....	.01½ - .02½	May 1891.....	.11 - .13	Pound
Fruit: currants, in barrels.	Apr, May 1894..	.01½ - .01½	Oct 1900.....	.12 - .12½	Pound
Fruit: prunes, California, in boxes.	May 1905.....	.03½ - .03½	Oct 1890.....	.12½ - .13	Pound
Fruit: raisins, California, London layer.	Apr 1896.....	.80 - .90	Jan 1890.....	2.25 - 2.75	Box
Glucose.....	June 1897.....	.92½	Nov, Dec 1907...	2.48	100 lbs
Lard: prime contract.....	4th Tues July 1896.	.0340	3d Tues Feb 1893.	.1315	Pound
Meal: corn, fine white.....	Sept 1896.....	.63 - .65	May 1891.....	1.69	100 lbs
Meal: corn, fine yellow.....	Sept 1896.....	.62 - .63	May 1891.....	1.67 - 1.68	100 lbs
Meat: bacon, short clear sides.	4th Tues July, 1st Tues Aug, all Sept 1896.	.04 - .04½	3d, 4th Tues Oct 1902.	.12½ - .12½	Pound
Meat: bacon, short rib sides.	4th Tues July, 1st Tues Aug, all Sept 1896.	.03½ - .04	4th Tues May 1893, 3d, 4th Tues Oct 1902.	.12 - .12½	Pound
Meat: beef, fresh, native sides.	4th Tues Mar 1894.	.65 - .07	2d, 3d, 4th, 5th Tues July 1902.	.09 - .12½	Pound
Meat: beef, salt, extra mess.	2d, 3d, 4th weeks Aug 1892.	6.00 - 6.50	3d week May to 2d week June 1902.	14.00	Barrel
Meat: beef, salt, hams, western.	4th Tues Oct 1890, 2d Tues Nov 1891, 3d Tues Oct 1892.	12.00 - 12.50	1st, 2d, 3d Tues Oct, all Nov 1907.	29.00	Barrel
Meat: hams, smoked.....	3d, 4th Tues Sept, 1st Tues Oct 1898.	.07½ - .07½	4th, 5th Tues Jan 1893.	.15 - .16	Pound
Meat: mutton, dressed....	5th Tues Oct 1895.	.03 - .06	1st Tues June 1907.	.10 - .13	Pound
Meat: pork, salt, mess, old to new.	4th Tues July, 3d Tues Sept 1896.	7.50 - 8.00	5th Tues May 1893.	21.50 - 22.50	Barrel
Milk: fresh.....	June 1897, June 1898.	.0175	Oct to Dec 1907..	.04	Quart
Molasses: New Orleans, open kettle.	June, July 1897..	.23 - .24	Jan to July 1900.	.44 - .55	Gallon
Rice: domestic, choice....	Sept 1904 to May 1905.	.03½ - .04	Aug to Nov 1891.	.06½ - .07	Pound
Salt: American.....	3d week Aug 1896 to 3d week Feb 1897, 1st, 2d, 3d weeks Oct 1898, 1st week May to 5th week Sept 1899, 1st week June to 2d week July 1903.	.55	1st week Nov 1900 to 1st week Apr 1901.	1.15	Barrel
Soda: bicarbonate of, American.	Oct, Nov 1901, June to Aug 1902.	.0065	Apr 1890, Mar to June 1891.	.0350	Pound

LOWEST AND HIGHEST QUOTATIONS, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

FOOD, ETC.—Concluded.

Article.	Lowest.		Highest.		Unit.
	Date.	Price.	Date.	Price.	
Spices: nutmegs.....	Dec 1907.....	\$0.12 - \$0.12½	Mar 1890.....	\$0.64 - \$0.65	Pound
Spices: pepper, Singapore..	Feb 1895, Jan, Feb 1896.....	.04½ - .04½	Nov 1900.....	.13½ - .13½	Pound
Starch: pure corn.....	July 1901.....	.04	Nov, Dec 1890....	.06½	Pound
Sugar: 80° fair refining.....	4th Thurs Apr, 1st Thurs May 1894.....	.02310	1st, 2d Thurs Sept, 2d, 3d, 4th Thurs Oct 1890.....	.05311	Pound
Sugar: 96° centrifugal.....	1st Thurs Jan, 3d Thurs Apr, 4th Thurs May 1894.....	.02750	1st, 2d Thurs Sept 1890.....	.05921	Pound
Sugar: granulated.....	1st, 2d Thurs Feb 1895.....	.03680	1st Thurs June 1890.....	.06615-.06676	Pound
Tallow.....	4th Tues May 1897.....	.02½ - .03	3d Tues Feb 1893.....	.08½	Pound
Tea: Formosa, fine.....	Oct 1903.....	.20 - .21	Sept 1890.....	.33 - .35	Pound
Vegetables, fresh: onions..	May 1896.....	.50 - 1.00	Feb 1890.....	5.00 - 10.00	Barrel
Vegetables, fresh: potatoes, white.	3d week May, 3d, 4th weeks June 1896.....	.10 - .15	2d week June 1891.....	1.10 - 1.35	Bushel
Vinegar: cider, Monarch...	Oct 1895 to Sept 1898, July 1900 to Sept 1901, Nov 1902 to Sept 1904.....	.13	Nov 1907.....	.19	Gallon

CLOTHS AND CLOTHING.

Bags: 2-bushel, Amoskeag.	Jan to Mar 1895.	\$0.10½	Sept 1907.....	\$0.21	Bag
Blankets: 11-4, 5 lbs. to the pair, all wool.	1895 to 1897.....	.75	1906.....	1.02½	Pound
Blankets: 11-4, 5 lbs. to the pair, cotton warp, all wool filling.	1895.....	.54	1906, 1907.....	.80	Pound
Blankets: 11-4, 5 lbs. to the pair, cotton warp, cotton and wool filling.	1895, 1896.....	.40	1905, 1906, 1907....	.60	Pound
Boots and shoes: men's brogans, split.	Jan to June 1898.	.90	Nov 1906 to June 1907.....	1.30	Pair
Boots and shoes: men's split boots, kip top, 16-in., ¾ double sole. (a)	Jan to Dec 1895.	15.00	Dec 1906 to July 1907.....	26.50	12 pairs
Boots and shoes: men's vicid kid shoes, Goodyear welt.	Jan 1897 to Oct 1904.....	2.00	Jan 1890 to Dec 1894, Dec 1906 to Dec 1907.....	2.50	Pair
Boots and shoes: women's solid grain shoes, leather, polish or polka.	Jan 1893 to Dec 1894.....	.75	May, June, July 1906.....	1.05	Pair
Broadcloths: first quality, black, 54-in., made from XXX wool.	Jan 1895 to Dec 1896.....	1.38	July 1905 to Dec 1907.....	2.02	Yard
Carpets: Brussels, 5-frame, Bigelow.	Jan 1894 to June 1897.....	.936	1907.....	1.248	Yard
Carpets: Ingrain, 2-ply, Lowell.	July 1895 to June 1897.....	.408	1907.....	.5700	Yard
Carpets: Wilton, 5-frame, Bigelow.	Jan 1895 to June 1897.....	1.68	1907.....	2.28	Yard
Cotton flannels: 2½ yds. to the pound.	Jan 1897 to Dec 1898.....	.05½	July to Oct 1907.....	.10½	Yard
Cotton flannels: 3½ yds. to the pound.	Jan to Dec 1898.....	.04½	July to Oct 1907.....	.08½	Yard
Cotton thread: 6-cord, 200-yd. spools, J. & P. Coats.	July 1896 to Dec 1899.....	.030503	June to Dec 1907.....	.04508	Spool
Cotton yarns: carded, white, mule-spun, northern, cones, 22/1.	Dec 1898 to June 1899.....	.13½	Feb 1904.....	.24½	Pound
Cotton yarns: carded, white, mule-spun, northern, cones, 22/1.	Dec 1898 to Mar 1899.....	.16½	July, Aug 1907....	.27½	Pound
Denims: Amoskeag.....	Jan to Mar 1899.....	.08½	Aug, Sept, Oct, 1907.....	.14½	Yard
Drillings: brown, Pepperell.	Nov 1898 to Jan 1899.....	.04½	1907.....	.08½	Yard

a From 1903 to 1907, russet-bound top, 17-inch, ¾ double sole.

LOWEST AND HIGHEST QUOTATIONS, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

CLOTHS AND CLOTHING—Continued.

Article.	Lowest.		Highest.		Unit.
	Date.	Price.	Date.	Price.	
Drillings: 30-in., Stark A.	Feb 1898.....	\$0.0410	May 1907.....	\$0.0824	Yard
Flannels: white, 4-4, Ballard Vale No. 3.	Aug, Sept 1896..	.29	Sept to Dec 1907.	.4687	Yard
Ginghams: Amoskeag.....	Apr to June 1895, July to Sept 1896, Apr to Sept 1897, Jan to Mar, July to Dec 1898.	.0425	Aug, Sept 1907..	.0750	Yard
Ginghams: Lancaster.....	Feb to May 1895, June to Aug 1896.	.04½	Sept to Dec 1907.	.07½	Yard
Horse blankets: 6lbs. each, all wool.	1896.....	.52	1906.....	.77½	Pound
Hosiery: men's cotton half hose, seamless, standard quality, 84 needles.	1890.....	.62½	1890, 1891.....	.97½	12 pairs
Hosiery: women's combed Egyptian cotton hose, high spliced heel, double sole, full-fashioned.	1890, 1905.....	1.75	1907.....	2.02½	12 pairs
Hosiery: women's cotton hose, seamless, fast black, 26 to 28 oz., 160 to 176 needles.	1901.....	.6615	1890.....	1.2250	12 pairs
Leather: sole, hemlock, nonacid, Buenos Aires, middle weights, 1st quality.	May 1892.....	.16	Apr, May 1900, Apr to Dec 1907.	\$0.26-.27	Pound
Leather: sole, oak.....	Sept to Nov 1896, June 1897, Jan to June 1890, Feb, June 1891, Aug 1894 to Jan 1895, Sept, Oct 1896, Apr, June 1897.	\$0.28-.29	Dec 1906, Jan 1907.	.40-.41	Pound
Leather: wax calf, 30 to 40 lbs. to the doz., B grade.	Jan to June 1890, Feb, June 1891, Aug 1894 to Jan 1895, Sept, Oct 1896, Apr, June 1897.	.55-.60	July to Nov 1895	.80-.85	Sq foot
Linen shoe thread: 10s, Barbour.	Jan 1903 to Nov 1904, Jan to Nov 1905.	.8460	Nov 1893 to Sept 1894.	.9405	Pound
Linen thread: 3-cord, 200-yard spools, Barbour.	Apr to Dec 1891.	.7623	May to Dec 1907.	.93	12 spools
Overcoatings: chinchilla, B-rough, all wool.	1895 to 1897.....	1.8774	1907.....	2.5575	Yard
Overcoatings: chinchilla, cotton warp, C. C. grade.	Nov 1896.....	.41	Oct 1892, June, Sept 1893.	.55	Yard
Overcoatings: covert cloth, light weight, staple goods.	1897.....	1.9458	1890 to 1893.....	2.4616	Yard
Print cloths: 28-in., 64x64..	2d week May 1898.	.01875	1st week Aug to 3d week Nov 1907.	.05250	Yard
Sheetings: bleached, 10-4, Pepperell.	Apr, May 1895..	.15½	June to Dec 1907	.30	Yard
Sheetings: bleached, 10-4, Wamsutta S. T.	Apr 1894 to Nov 1895, May 1904 to Oct 1906.	.270	Oct 1890 to Jan 1891.	.329	Yard
Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Atlantic A.	Dec 1898.....	.0421	June 1906.....	.0811	Yard
Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Indian Head.	June 1898, Jan 1899.	.05	Mar to June 1904, Aug to Dec 1907.	.08½	Yard
Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Pepperell R.	Apr, Nov, Dec 1898.	.0450	Aug to Dec 1907.	.0775	Yard
Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Fruit of the Loom.	Dec 1898.....	.0538	Sept to Dec 1907	.12	Yard
Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Hope.	Dec 1898.....	.0475	July to Nov 1907	.0674	Yard
Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Lonsdale.	Dec 1898.....	.0523	July to Nov 1907	.11	Yard
Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Wamsutta XX.	Dec 1897 to Jan 1899.	.0807	July to Dec 1907.	.1125	Yard
raw, Italian, classical.	June 1894.....	3.4328-3.4825	May 1907.....	5.8905-5.9400	Pound
raw, Japan, flatweave.	Aug 1896.....	2.9100-3.3950	May 1907.....	5.5775-5.6200	Pound
raw, clay worsted d-12-oz., Washing-	Feb to Apr 1897.	.6370	Aug to Dec 1905.	1.2375	Yard

LOWEST AND HIGHEST QUOTATIONS, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

CLOTHS AND CLOTHING—Concluded.

Article.	Lowest.		Highest.		Unit.
	Date.	Price.	Date.	Price.	
Suitings: clay worsted diagonal, 16-oz., Washington Mills.	Feb to Apr 1897.	\$0.7903	Aug to Dec 1905, July to Dec 1906.	\$1.4850	Yard
Suitings: indigo blue, all wool, 54-inch, 14-oz., Middlesex standard.	Jan to Dec 1897.	1.0465	1906, 1907.....	1.7109	Yard
Suitings: indigo blue, all wool, 16-oz.	1895.....	1.5903	1906, 1907.....	2.4180	Yard
Suitings: serge, Washington Mills 6700.	Jan 1896 to Aug 1897.	.6143	July 1906 to May 1907, Aug to Dec 1907.	1.0575	Yard
Tickings: Amoskeag A. C. A.	Oct to Dec 1898.	.08½	Aug to Dec 1907.	.14½	Yard
Underwear: shirts and drawers, white, all wool, full-fashioned, 18-gauge.	Jan 1894 to Dec 1898.	21.60	1906, 1907.....	27.00	12 garments
Women's dress goods: cashmere, all wool, 10-11 twill, 38-in., Atlantic Mills J.	Jan to Dec 1896.	.1960	Nov 1905 to Dec 1907.	.3920	Yard
Women's dress goods: cashmere, cotton warp, 9-twill, 4-4, Atlantic Mills F.	Oct 1895 to May 1896.	.1127	June to Dec 1907	.2254	Yard
Women's dress goods: Franklin sackings, 6-4.	July 1896 to July 1897.	.40½	June 1905 to Nov 1906.	.68½	Yard
Wool: Ohio, fine fleece (X and XX grade), scoured.	June 1895.....	.3478	June to Sept 1905.	.7826	Pound
Wool: Ohio, medium fleece (1 and 2 grade), scoured.	June 1895, June to Sept 1896.	.2903	June, July, Aug., Nov 1890.	.6210	Pound
Worsted yarns: 2-40s, Australian fine.	Nov 1895 to Mar 1896, Oct to Dec 1896.	.72	Nov 1899 to Apr 1900, Dec 1905 to Feb 1906, July 1906 to Oct 1907.	1.30	Pound
Worsted yarns: 2-40s, XXX or its equivalent in quality, white, in skeins. (a)	Oct 1896 to Feb 1897.	.70	Jan, Feb 1900..	1.35	Pound

FUEL AND LIGHTING.

Candles: adamantine, 6s, 14-oz.	June 1897 to Jan 1900.	\$0.06½	Feb 1900 to June 1903.	\$0.11	Pound
Coal: anthracite, broken...	June to Aug 1899.	3.111	Aug 1903.....	4.4744	Ton
Coal: anthracite, chestnut.	Sept 1895.....	2.701	Jan 1904.....	4.658	Ton
Coal: anthracite, egg.....	Sept 1895.....	2.827	Jan 1904.....	4.0725	Ton
Coal: anthracite, stove....	Aug 1895.....	2.891	Jan 1904.....	4.9614	Ton
Coal: bituminous, Georges Creek (at mine).	Apr to July 1894, Jan to June 1895, Jan to Mar 1896.	.75	Oct 1902.....	5.00	Ton
Coal: bituminous, Georges Creek (f. o. b. N. Y. Harbor).	Apr 1898 to Mar 1899.	2.10	Oct 1902.....	8.25	Ton
Coal: bituminous, Pittsburgh (Youghiogheny).	2d Tues Mar to 1st Tues Apr 1899.	\$0.04½- .04½	3d, 4th Tues Nov 1891.	.11	Bushel
Coke: Connellsville, furnace.	Apr, May 1894..	.92	Mar, Apr 1900..	\$3.25- 4.25	Ton
Matches: parlor, domestic.	Sept 1894 to Mar 1895, May 1902 to Dec 1907.	1.50	Jan to Oct 1890.	2.00	144 boxes
Petroleum: crude.....	Oct 1892.....	.51½	Dec '903.....	1.88½	Barrel
Petroleum: refined, for export.	May 1893.....	.051	Jan to Mar 1900.	.099	Gallon
Petroleum: refined, 150° fire test, water white.	Feb, Mar 1893..	.07½	Nov 1903 to Feb 1904.	.15	Gallon

a From 1902 to 1907 designated as XXXX.

LOWEST AND HIGHEST QUOTATIONS, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

METALS AND IMPLEMENTS.

Articles.	Lowest.		Highest.		Unit.
	Date.	Price.	Date.	Price.	
Angers: extra, 2-inch.....	Oct 1894 to Apr 1896, Feb 1897.	\$0.333	Feb 1906 to Dec 1907.	\$0.36	Each
Ass: M. C. O., Yankee....	Oct 1897 to Dec 1898.	.375	Apr 1906 to Dec 1907.	.68	Each
Bar iron: best refined, from store (Philadelphia market).	Nov 1894, Jan, Feb 1895.	.012	Sept 1899 to Jan 1900.	.025	Pound
Barb wire: galvanized.....	Aug 1897.....	1.65	Dec 1899 to Mar 1900.	4.13	100 lbs
Butts: loose joint, cast, 3x3 inch.	Feb to July 1895, June 1897 to Jan 1900.	.0292	Feb to May 1900	.0490	Pair
Chisels: extra, socket former, 1-inch.	Apr 1894 to Dec 1895, Dec 1896 to Nov 1898.	.171	Dec 1906 to Nov 1907.	.45	Each
Copper: ingot, lake.....	June 1894.....	\$0.0890-.0900	May 1907.....	\$0.25-.26	Pound
Copper: sheet, hot-rolled (base sizes)	Jan, Apr 1896....	.131	Mar to July 1907	.32	Pound
Copper wire: bare.....	July 1894.....	.11	Feb to July 1907.	.275	Pound
Doorknobs: steel, bronze plated.	Jan 1890 to Apr 1895, Mar 1896 to June 1900.	.186	Oct, Nov, Dec 1905.	.48	Pair
Files: 8-inch mill bastard..	July 1896 to June 1897.	.77	Nov 1899 to Aug 1900.	1.10	Dozen
Hammers: Maypole No. 14.	Jan 1890 to Nov 1895.	.350	Jan 1903 to Dec 1907.	.466	Each
Lead: pig.....	Sept 1896.....	.0273-.0275	Feb 1906.....	.0675	Pound
Lead pipe.....	Nov 1896 to Jan 1897.	3.60	Jan to May 1907.	7.20	100 lbs
Locks: common mortise....	Jan 1898 to Apr 1902.	.075	Oct 1906 to Dec 1907.	.20	Each
Nails: cut, 8d., fence and common.	July to Sept 1898	1.15	May to Nov 1896	2.90	100 lbs
Nails: wire, 8d., fence and common.	Dec 1896, Aug 1897, Aug, Dec 1898.	1.35	Jan, Feb 1890....	3.35- 3.40	100 lbs
Pig iron: Bessemer.....	July 1897.....	9.39	Dec 1899, Feb 1900.	25.00	Ton
Pig iron: foundry No. 1.....	July 1898.....	11.25	Jan 1907.....	27.50	Ton
Pig iron: foundry No. 2.....	June 1897.....	9.40-9.50	June 1907.....	26.40-26.90	Ton
Pig iron: gray forge, southern, coke.	May 1897.....	8.00	Jan, Feb, Apr 1907.	23.00-23.50	Ton
Plates: Bailey No. 5.....	Mar 1895 to Dec 1899.	1.23	May to Dec 1905.	1.89	Each
Pricksilver.....	Jan to Mar 1894	.45	Oct, Nov 1899....	.79	Pound
Saws: crosscut, Disston....	Uniform during period.	1.6038	Uniform during period.	1.6038	Each
Saws: hand, Disston No. 7.	Jan 1894 to Dec 1905.	12.60	Jan to Dec 1890..	14.40	Dozen
Sheets: Ames No. 2.....	Jan 1894 to Mar 1896.	7.45	Apr to Nov 1902.	9.61	Dozen
Silver: bar, fine.....	Jan 1903.....	.48213	Aug 1890.....	1.16995	Ounce
Spelter: western.....	Feb 1895.....	.0315-.0825	Feb 1907.....	.0700-.0725	Pound
Steel billets.....	May 1897.....	13.96	Sept, Oct 1899....	41.50	Ton
Steel rails.....	July, Nov 1898....	17.00	Jan 1890.....	35.25	Ton
Steel sheets: black, No. 27.	May 1897.....	.0180-.0185	Sept 1901.....	.0375	Pound
Tin: pig.....	Oct 1896.....	.1270	July 1907.....	.4275-.4300	Pound
Tin plates: domestic, Bessemer, coke, 14 x 20 inch.	Apr 1898.....	2.72½ - 2.77½	Dec 1899 to Sept 1900.	4.84	100 lbs
Trowels: M. C. O., brick, 1½-inch.	Uniform during period.	.34	Uniform during period.	.34	Each
Vices: solid box, 50-lb.....	July 1897 to Feb 1899.	3.28	Dec 1906.....	5.95	Each
Wood screws: 1-in., No. 10, flat head.	Apr to Dec 1897..	.08	Jan 1892 to Mar 1894.	.21	Gross
Zinc: sheet.....	May 1894.....	3.56	Apr to July 1907.	7.91	100 lbs

LUMBER AND BUILDING MATERIALS.

Brick: common domestic..	Sept 1894, Sept 1900.	\$4.25	Feb 1906.....	\$10.75-\$12.00	M
Carbonate of lead: American, in cell.	Feb 1894.....	.0488	Jan 1897.....	.0736	Pound
Cement: Portland, domestic.	Oct, Nov 1904....	\$1.25- 1.35	Apr 1896.....	2.20- 2.35	Barrel
Cement: Rosendale.....	Nov 1898.....	.60	Apr 1892.....	1.20- 1.25	Barrel

LOWEST AND HIGHEST QUOTATIONS, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

LUMBER AND BUILDING MATERIALS—Concluded.

Article.	Lowest.		Highest.		Unit.
	Date.	Price.	Date.	Price.	
Hemlock.....	Nov 1894 to Jan 1895.	\$10.75-\$11.25	July 1906 to Dec 1907.	\$22.00-\$22.50	M feet
Lime: common.....	Sept to Dec 1896, July to Sept 1900.	.60	Dec 1907.....	1.02- 1.07	Barrel
Linseed oil: raw.....	Feb, July 1897...	.29	July, Aug 1901..	.82	Gallon
Maple: hard.....	June to Sept 1901.	24.00- 27.00	June to Dec 1903.	32.00- 34.00	M feet
Oak: white, plain.....	June to Aug 1901.	32.00- 34.00	May 1907.....	58.00- 65.00	M feet
Oak: white, quartered.....	Jan, Feb 1890...	47.00- 48.00	Dec 1903 to July 1904.	80.00- 85.00	M feet
Oxide of zinc.....	Jan to June 1895.	.03½	Aug 1906 to Dec 1907.	.05½	Pound
Pine: yellow.....	Jan to Apr 1896, June to Nov 1897.	15.50- 16.00	May 1906 to Dec 1907.	30.00- 31.00	M feet
Poplar.....	Sept 1897 to Jan 1899.	29.00- 31.00	May 1907.....	58.00- 65.00	M feet
Putty.....	Oct, Nov 1904...	.0100	May 1902 to Mar 1903.	.0225	Pound
Resin: good, strained.....	Sept 1893.....	1.00	May, June 1907..	4.80	Barrel
Shingles: cypress.....	Jan to Dec 1897.	2.35	Mar to Oct 1907.	4.35	M
Spruce.....	July to Oct 1894.	11.50- 12.50	Feb to Sept 1906.	24.00- 28.00	M feet
Tar.....	Sept 1893, Dec 1893 to May 1894, Jan to Apr, June 1896, Apr 1898.	.90	Apr 1907.....	2.80	Barrel
Turpentine: spirits of.....	Aug, Sept 1896..	.24	June 1905.....	.77½- .78	Gallon
Window glass: American, single, firsts, 6x8 to 10x15 inch.	May to July 1895	1.3894	Apr 1901.....	4.80	50 sq. ft
Window glass: American, single, thirds, 6x8 to 10x15 inch.	July, Aug 1892..	1.2113	Apr 1901.....	3.8250	50 sq. ft

DRUGS AND CHEMICALS.

Alcohol: grain.....	Jan to May 1890.	\$1.98	Dec 1907.....	\$2.63	Gallon
Alcohol: wood, refined, 95%.	Dec 1907.....	.39	Feb to Sept 1893.	1.40	Gallon
Alum: lump.....	Dec 1891 to Feb 1892.	.0145	Jan to June 1890.	.0188	Pound
Brimstone: crude, seconds.	Sept, Dec 1895, Feb, Mar 1896.	15.00	Apr 1891, May 1898.	35.00	Ton
Glycerin: refined.....	Oct, Nov 1906...	.11	Jan to Apr, June to Aug 1890.	.18	Pound
Muriatic acid: 20°.....	July 1895 to Dec 1896.	.0075	Nov 1901 to Apr 1902.	.0185	Pound
Opium: natural, in cases...	Aug 1892.....	1.50	Aug, Sept 1907..	7.00	Pound
Quinine: American.....	Oct, Nov 1906...	.144	Apr 1899.....	.40	Ounce
Sulphuric acid: 66°.....	Nov 1890 to Mar 1891, Apr to Aug, Oct, Nov 1894, Jan 1895 to Nov 1896.	.007	Nov 1901 to Jan 1902.	.014	Pound

HOUSE FURNISHING GOODS.

Earthenware: plates, cream-colored.	July 1895 to Dec 1897.	\$0.3807	Jan to Dec 1903.	\$0.4775	Dozen
Earthenware: plates, white granite.	July 1895 to Dec 1897.	.3991	Jan 1901 to Dec 1902.	.5096	Dozen
Earthenware: teacups and saucers, white granite.	July 1895 to Dec 1897.	3.0907	Jan 1901 to Dec 1902.	3.7632	Gross
Furniture: bedroom sets, ash.	Jan 1896 to Dec 1897.	8.75	Nov 1906 to Dec 1907.	14.50	Set
Furniture: chairs, bedroom, maple.	Jan 1897 to Sept 1898.	5.00	Nov 1906 to Dec 1907.	10.00	Dozen
Furniture: chairs, kitchen.	Jan to Sept 1898.	3.25	June to Dec 1907	6.00	Dozen
Furniture: tables, kitchen.	Jan 1896 to June 1899.	13.80	Oct 1906 to Dec 1907.	18.00	Dozen

LOWEST AND HIGHEST QUOTATIONS, 1890 TO 1907—Concluded.

HOUSE FURNISHING GOODS—Concluded.

Article.	Lowest.		Highest.		Unit.
	Date.	Price.	Date.	Price.	
Glassware: napples, 4-in...	Jan 1896 to Dec 1900.	\$0.10	Jan 1901 to Dec 1907.	\$0.14	Dozen
Glassware: pitchers, 1-gallon, common.	Jan 1897 to Dec 1900.	1.00	Jan 1901 to Dec 1903.	1.30	Dozen
Glassware: tumblers, 1-pint, common.	Jan to Dec 1899.	.13	Jan to Dec 1891.	.20	Dozen
Table cutlery: carvers, stag handles.	1897 to 1901, Jan 1902 to June 1907.	.75	1893.....	.95	Pair
Table cutlery: knives and forks, cocobolo handles.	1897.....	5.00	1890, 1891.....	7.75	Gross
Wooden ware: pails, oak-grained.	Apr 1895 to Jan 1896, Feb to May 1898.	1.10	Aug to Dec 1907.	2.10	Dozen
Wooden ware: tubs, oak-grained.	Oct 1894 to Nov 1899.	1.25	Jan 1890 to Aug 1891, July to Dec 1907.	1.65	Nest of 3

MISCELLANEOUS.

Cotton-seed meal.....	Feb 1895.....	\$16.00-\$17.00	Jan 1902.....	\$33.60	2000 lbs
Cotton-seed oil: summer yellow, prime.	Nov, Dec 1897...	.21½	Feb 1893.....	.61	Gallon
Malt: western made.....	July 1897.....	.50 - .53	Oct 1907.....	\$1.22 - 1.27	Busbel
Paper: news.....	Oct 1899.....	.0175 - .0200	Jan 1890.....	.0375 - .0450	Pound
Paper: wrapping, manila.....	Apr 1898.....	.0375 - .0400	Sept 1893.....	.0600 - .0675	Pound
Proof spirits.....	1st wk Jan to 3d wk May 1890.	1.03	3d wk Oct to 4th wk Dec 1907.	1.35	Gallon
Rope: manilla, 1-in (s).....	Aug, Sept 1896, Sept, Oct 1897.	.0591	Dec 1899.....	.1576	Pound
Rubber: Para Island.....	Sept 1891.....	.60 - .63	June 1905.....	1.32 - 1.33	Pound
Soap: castile, mottled, pure.	May 1895 to Nov 1896, Mar 1897.	.05	Oct 1904.....	.07½	Pound
Starch: laundry.....	Aug, Sept, Oct 1896.	.0275	Aug, Sept, Dec 1902, Jan 1903.	.0500	Pound
Tobacco: plug.....	July, Aug 1892, Oct 1896 to May 1897.	.36	July 1904 to Aug 1906.	.49	Pound
Tobacco: smoking, granulated, Seal of N. C.	Jan 1890 to June 1898.	.50	Aug 1904 to Dec 1907.	.60	Pound

a From 1903 to 1907, 1/16-Inch.

In a number of instances the lowest or highest price, as shown in the foregoing table, lasted for only a short time, in some cases but a few days or even a part of a day. The groups of farm products, food, etc., and lumber and building materials show very wide variations. Good to choice steers varied from \$3-\$3.90 on the second Tuesday of January, 1890, to \$6.70-\$7.60 on the last three Tuesdays of August and the first two Tuesdays of September, 1902. Corn ranged from 19½-20 cents the second Tuesday of September, 1896, to \$0.48½-\$1 the fifth Tuesday of May, 1892, the high price being due to an attempt to corner corn in the Chicago market. The failure of those interested in the corner to take all corn offered at the high price, however, and the rumor that they had failed, resulted in a drop from \$1 to 48½ cents within a few hours. Cotton varied from 5 1/8 cents on the first Tuesday of February and the first and second Tuesdays of November, 1898, to 16 3/4 cents on the first Tuesday of February, 1904. Hides were 5 to 5.13 cents in June, 1894, and 16.50 cents in December, 1906.

Heavy hogs on the fourth Tuesday of July, 1896, were \$2.50-\$3.15, and on the second Tuesday of February, 1893, \$8.10-\$8.65. Hops ranged from 6-7 cents in September, 1895, to 45-47 cents in November, 1890. Oats ranged from 14½ cents on the second Tuesday of September, 1896, to 63½-64 cents on the fourth Tuesday of July, 1902. Native sheep ranged from \$0.75-\$3.25 on the fifth Tuesday of October, 1894, to \$5-\$7.25 on the third Tuesday of April, 1907. Western sheep show a similar range. Wheat ranged from 48½-49½ cents the fifth Tuesday of January, 1895, to \$1.73-\$1.85 the second Tuesday of May, 1898. The high price is said to have been due to an attempt to control the price of that commodity and also, to some extent, to the war with Spain and the fear of other foreign complications. The most marked variations in the food group are in fresh vegetables, onions having varied from \$0.50-\$1 in May, 1896, to \$5-\$10 in February, 1890, and potatoes from 10-15 cents the third week of May and the third and fourth weeks of June, 1896, to \$1.10-\$1.35 the second week of June, 1891. Eggs varied from 10½-10¾ cents the first Tuesday of April, 1897, to 43-50 cents the third Tuesday of December, 1907. Almost all the articles in the food group show wide variations, which may be seen by referring to the foregoing table. In the cloths and clothing group the variations are not so marked, as the prices of many of the articles in this group depend more largely upon the cost of labor in producing them, while but few of them are subject to fluctuations caused by manipulation for the purpose of speculation. Print cloths varied from 1.875 cents the second week of May, 1898, to 5.25 cents from August to the third week of November, 1907. Of the raw materials in this group wool, fine fleece, scoured, varied from 34.78 cents in June, 1895, to 78.26 cents in June to September, 1905. Of the 61 articles shown under cloths and clothing in this table, 28 were quoted higher in 1907 than at any other time during the 18-year period. In the fuel and lighting group Youghiogeny coal varied from 4½-4¾ cents per bushel in March and April, 1899, to 11 cents in November, 1891; coke from 92 cents in April and May, 1894, to \$3.25-\$4.25 in March and April, 1900; and petroleum, crude, from 51½ cents in October, 1892, to \$1.88½ in December, 1903. In the group of metals and implements, best refined bar iron from store varied from 1.2 cents per pound in November, 1894, and January and February, 1895, to 2.5 cents in September, 1899, to January, 1900; barb wire from \$1.65 in August, 1897, to \$4.13 in December, 1899, to March, 1900; pig iron, foundry No. 2, from \$9.40-\$9.50 per ton in June, 1897, to \$26.40-\$26.90 in June, 1907; while bar silver varied from 48.213 cents per ounce in January, 1903, to \$1.16995 in August, 1890. In lumber and building materials all the articles varied widely. In drugs and chemicals, wood alcohol varied from 39 cents per gallon in December, 1907, to \$1.40 in February to September, 1893; and

opium from \$1.50 in August, 1892, to \$7 per pound in August and September, 1907. In house furnishing goods, kitchen chairs were \$3.25 per dozen from January to September, 1898, and \$6 from June to December, 1907. In the miscellaneous group, cotton-seed meal, cotton-seed oil, paper (news), rope, and rubber show wide variations.

Table II.—Monthly actual and relative prices of commodities in 1907 and base prices (average for 1890-1899), pages 396 to 414.—This table shows for each article the monthly price, which is either the average price for the month or the price on some day of the month. On the line below the December price is given the average price for the year, and on the line above the January price is given the average price during the 10 years from 1890 to 1899, which average price is designated the base price.

The monthly prices for such articles as are quoted weekly in Table I were found by dividing the sum of the quotations in each month as shown in Table I by the number of quotations in each month, except for articles in which a range is quoted, for which articles the average is computed from the mean of the weekly prices. In Table I single quotations for 1907 are shown for 10 articles. The price of one of these is maintained throughout the year, the prices of three represent the bulk of the sales and are maintained generally, and the prices of four are averages for the year. For each of these eight articles the annual price has been shown in Table II as the price during each month. The other two articles for which single quotations for 1907 are shown in Table I have a September price, which represents the bulk of these sales for the year, and the relative price for 1907 was therefore computed from that price, but the price at which sales were made from January to March was the price of September, 1906; from April to August the price of April, 1907, and from September to December the price of September, 1907. Consequently these prices were used in this table presenting monthly prices.

It was impossible to secure quotations during all of the months of the year for 5 of the 258 articles, viz: Buckwheat flour, sun-dried apples, herring, salmon, and potatoes of the kind quoted.

The average price for 1907 was obtained, as has already been explained, by dividing the sum of the quotations for the year as shown in Table I by the number of quotations for the year. The average price for the 10-year period, 1890 to 1899, was obtained by dividing the sum of the average prices of the 10 years by 10. This average price for 10 years has been adopted as the base for all relative prices. For the 10 articles which do not show prices for the entire period of 10 years, 1890 to 1899, the base in each case is the average of the years prior to and including 1899.

In explanation of the term base or standard, as used in connection with relative prices or index numbers, it may be stated that in reducing a series of actual prices to relative prices a base must first be chosen, and this may be either a single quotation, the average price for 1 year, or the average for 2 or more years. If the price for a single year is chosen it is essential that that year be a normal one, for if prices are high in the year chosen for the base any subsequent fall will be unduly emphasized, while, on the other hand, if prices are low any subsequent rise will be emphasized. For the reason that all the commodities probably never present a normal condition as regards prices in any one year, it was decided that an average price for a number of years would better reflect average or approximately normal conditions and form a more satisfactory base than would the price for any single year. The period chosen as this base was that from 1890 to 1899—a period of 10 years. The average price of each article for the base period was found, as previously stated, by adding together the average yearly prices of that article for all of the 10 years and dividing by 10.

The relative prices as shown in this and other tables have been calculated in the usual manner and represent simply the percentage which each monthly or yearly price is of the base price. The average price for the first 10 years of the period, that is, the base, always represents 100, and the percentages for each month or year enable the reader to measure readily the rise and fall from month to month or from year to year of the prices of each single commodity, of any group of commodities, or of all the 258 commodities involved. These commodities are arranged in alphabetical order under each of the nine general groups, as in Table I.

In order that the method pursued may be more readily understood, the reader is referred to the table itself, as given on pages 396 to 414. Taking up the first commodity shown, barley, we find that the average price per bushel for the base period, 1890 to 1899, inclusive, was 45.34 cents; the average price for January, 1907, was 54.25 cents; that for February was 59.13 cents; that for March 69.45 cents, etc. The relative price for the base period, as heretofore explained, is always placed at 100, and is so given in the table. The relative price for January, 1907, is shown to be 119.7, or 19.7 per cent higher than the base or average for the 10 years. In February the relative price was 130.4, or 30.4 per cent above the base; in March the relative price was 153.2, or 53.2 per cent above the base; in April it was 155.9, or 55.9 per cent above the base; in May it rose to 171.8, or 71.8 per cent above the base; in June it was 164.3, or 64.3 per cent above the base; in July it was 145.9, or 45.9 per cent above the base, and in August it rose again to 154.6, or 54.6 per cent above the base; in September *it advanced to 201.3, or 101.3 per cent above the base; it advanced*

again in October, declined in November, and in December rose to 213.9. The relative price for the year 1907 was 169.0, or 69 per cent above the base. The figures in each case were secured according to the method already explained, that for January, 1907, being expressed as follows:

Average price for base period.....	\$0.4534
Average price for January, 1907.....	\$0.5425
Relative price for base period.....	100.0
Relative price for January, 1907.....	119.7

The remainder of the table may be analyzed in a similar manner.

The value of prices given in this relative form, it will readily be seen, consists in the means afforded for tracing and measuring the changes from month to month, from year to year, or from period to period, and in the combination of prices of a sufficient number of commodities to show the general price level. It must not be assumed that a system of relative prices of representative commodities will enable one to trace the causes of changes in the general price level or to determine the effect of such changes on any class of consumers or on all consumers. The use of such a system is to show the general course of prices from time to time of one commodity, of a group of commodities, or of all commodities.

It is stated on page 308 that certain articles are no longer quoted and other articles of the same class are substituted.

An explanation of the method of computing the relative price of these articles is necessary, and harness leather will be used as an illustration. It must be understood that during the years when "country middles" were quoted, they were assumed to represent the several grades of oak harness leather—that is, that the course of prices of a standard grade of oak harness leather in an index number of prices fairly represents the course of prices of the various grades of oak harness leather. Therefore, when it became necessary to substitute, in 1902, packers' hides for the country middles, prices were secured for packers' hides for both 1901 and 1902, and it was found that the average price for the year 1902 was the same, or 100 per cent of the average price for the year 1901. The relative price of country middles in 1901, as shown in Table IV, was 114.7 (average price for the ten years, 1890 to 1899, equals 100), and if country middles represented oak harness leather at that time, and packers' hides now represent the class, harness leather (shown by the price of packers' hides) remained the same price in 1902 as in 1901, and the relative price in 1902 was therefore 100 per cent of 114.7, the relative price in 1901, which gives 114.7 as the relative price in 1902. The same method was followed in computing relative prices for each of the months of 1902. The average price of harness leather in 1907 was 0.67 per cent above the average price in

1906; therefore the relative price in 1907 was 100.67 per cent of 128.1, the relative price of 1906, which gives 129.0 as the relative price in 1907. The same method of computing the relative prices was followed for boots and shoes, calico, hosiery, leather, shawls, sheetings, women's dress goods, bar iron, doors, plate glass, white pine, shingles, and jute. For trouserings and underwear the exact grade quoted for 1903 was not manufactured in 1902. The manufacturer of trouserings, however, estimated that one-half of the advance in price over the price for the grade quoted for previous years was due to the fact that it was a better article and the other half to the advance in price of material and cost of manufacture. The advance was \$0.1125 per yard over the price in 1902; one-half of this, \$0.05625, was added to the 1902 price of the 22 to 23 ounce trouserings to secure a theoretical 1902 price for the 21 to 22 ounce trouserings, and the 1903 relative price was then computed as above. Underwear was arbitrarily given the same relative price in 1903 as in 1902, as the all-wool underwear manufactured by the same firm showed no change in price. The 1907 relative prices of trouserings and underwear were found in the same way as explained above for harness leather.

Table III.—Monthly relative prices of commodities in 1907, pages 415 to 426.—This table repeats the relative monthly price for each article as given in Table II. In addition, similar commodities have been grouped and the average of the relative prices shown for the commodities in each subgroup and in each of the nine general groups. The averages in all cases were found by dividing the sum of the relative prices by the number of commodities in the group under consideration. It should be borne constantly in mind that the term commodity is used here and elsewhere in a specific sense, "native" and "western" sheep, for example, being considered different commodities. The method of securing average relative prices in this and other tables was as follows: The average relative price of cattle was found by adding the relative prices of the two grades of cattle and dividing the sum by 2. The average for hogs was found in the same manner, and also the average for sheep. The average for live stock was found by dividing the sum of the relative prices of both grades of cattle, both grades of hogs, and both grades of sheep by 6, the total number of different descriptions of commodities or series of quotations in the livestock group. The average relative price of each of the nine general groups was found by dividing the sum of the relative prices of the different descriptions of commodities for each month by the number of these commodities or series of quotations considered. The sum of the relative prices in January, 1907, of the commodities shown under the general group, food, etc., for example, is 6,200.3, which amount divided by 53, the number of different descriptions of commodities or series of quotations considered in that group, gives 117.0 the average for the

group, food, etc., for January, 1907. As explained in the discussion of Table II, it was impossible to secure quotations during all of the months of the year for 5 of the 258 articles. In order of arrangement these are: Buckwheat flour, herring, salmon, sun-dried apples, and potatoes. In presenting monthly relative prices for these articles a nominal relative price (which is the same as the relative price for the month in which the article was last quoted) has been entered in this table for the months for which no price quotation is shown in Table I. This nominal price enters into the average for the subgroup, the general group, and "all commodities" for that month.

In the following table the December, 1907, relative price is compared with the average for 1890 to 1899. The average price for 1890 to 1899 is in every case the base, or 100 per cent. Only the commodities for which the quotations throughout the 18-year period have been for practically the same description of article are included below. In using this table it must be borne in mind that the comparison is between the prices for December, 1907, and the average prices for the base period.

RELATIVE PRICES, DECEMBER, 1907, COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICE FOR 1890-1899.

[For a more detailed description of the articles see Table I, page 347 et seq. Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Farm products, 16 articles.

Article.	Relative price, December, 1907.	Article.	Relative price, December, 1907.
PRICE INCREASED.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Hogs: light.....	105.3	Corn: No. 2, cash.....	155.8
Hogs: heavy.....	105.4	Oats: cash.....	184.7
Cattle: steers, good to choice.....	108.6	Barley: by sample.....	213.9
Cattle: steers, choice to extra.....	109.7		
Hides: green, salted, packers, heavy native steers.....	126.5	PRICE DECREASED.	
Wheat: contract grades, cash.....	128.3	Flaxseed: No. 1.....	94.1
Rye: No. 2, cash.....	148.4	Hops: New York State, choice.....	93.2
Hay: timothy, No. 1.....	149.6	Sheep: native.....	91.0
Cotton: upland, middling.....	151.9	Sheep: western.....	86.5

Food, etc., 51 articles.

PRICE INCREASED.		PRICE INCREASED—continued.	
Bread: loaf (Washington market).....	100.6	Vinegar: cider, Monarch.....	121.8
Fish: mackerel, salt, large No. 3.....	102.6	Meat: bacon, short rib sides.....	123.6
Vegetables, fresh: onions.....	103.0	Meat: bacon, short clear sides.....	125.9
Meat: mutton, dressed.....	104.1	Tallow.....	126.0
Vegetables, fresh: potatoes, white.....	104.2	Meal: corn, fine white.....	126.4
Rice: domestic, choice.....	107.0	Flour: wheat, spring patents.....	127.1
Meat: hams, smoked.....	108.5	Lard: prime contract.....	127.7
Starch: pure corn.....	109.5	Butter: creamery, extra (New York market).....	128.7
Meat: beef, fresh, native sides.....	112.8	Meat: pork, salt, mess, old to new.....	130.0
Bread: loaf, Vienna (New York market)	113.6	Meal: corn, fine yellow.....	130.3
Salt: American.....	116.4	Butter: creamery, Elgin (Elgin market).....	130.4
Fruit: raisins, California, London layer.	116.6	Fish: cod, dry, bank, large.....	132.1
Flour: wheat, winter, straights.....	117.3	Meat: beef, salt, extra mess.....	132.5
Fruit: apples, evaporated, choice.....	118.1	Bread: crackers, Boston.....	133.7
Bread: loaf, homemade (New York market).....	118.6	Butter: dairy, New York State.....	135.4
Spices: pepper, Singapore.....	118.6	Fruit: apples, sun-dried.....	135.9
Molasses: New Orleans, open kettle.....	120.6		

RELATIVE PRICES, DECEMBER, 1907, COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICE FOR 1890-1899—Continued.

Food, etc., 52 articles—Concluded.

Article.	Relative price, December, 1907.	Article.	Relative price, December, 1907.
PRICE INCREASED—concluded.		PRICE DECREASED.	
Beans: medium, choice.....	137.0	Sugar: 96° centrifugal.....	98.1
Meat: beef, salt, hams, western.....	145.9	Sugar: 89° fair refining.....	96.9
Milk: fresh.....	156.9	Sugar: granulated.....	96.3
Cheese: New York, full cream.....	158.6	Bread: crackers, soda.....	90.5
Flour: buckwheat.....	160.9	Tea: Formosa, fine.....	81.0
Flour: rye.....	162.0	Fruit: prunes, California, in boxes.....	80.0
Fish: herring, shore, round.....	172.1	Soda: bicarbonate of, American.....	62.2
Fruit: currants, in barrels.....	181.6	Coffee: Rio No. 7.....	44.8
Eggs: new-laid, fancy, near-by.....	204.8	Spices: nutmegs.....	28.1

Cloths and clothing, 58 articles.

PRICE INCREASED.	PRICE INCREASED—concluded.		
Linen shoe thread: 10s, Barbour.....	102.1	Wool: Ohio, fine fleece (X and XX grade), scoured.....	130.9
Sheetings: bleached, 10-4, Wamsutta S. T.....	105.1	Ginghams: Amoskeag.....	131.3
Silk: raw, Japan, filatures, No. 1.....	105.6	Women's dress goods: cashmere, all wool, 10-11 twill, 38-inch, Atlantic Mills J.....	134.9
Boots and shoes: men's vicci kid shoes, Goodyear welt.....	108.7	Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Indian Head.....	135.8
Linen thread: 3-cord, 200-yard spools, Barbour.....	109.1	Denims: Amoskeag.....	136.5
Wool: Ohio, medium fleece (1 to 2 grade), scoured.....	112.5	Leather: sole, hemlock, Buenos Aires, and Montana, middle weights, first quality.....	136.7
Leather: sole, oak.....	114.5	Tickings: Amoskeag A. C. A.....	136.7
Underwear: shirts and drawers, white, all wool, full-fashioned, 18 gauge.....	115.8	Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Williamsville, A 1.....	137.0
Broadcloths: first quality, black, 54-inch, made from XXX wool.....	116.6	Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Lonsdale.....	137.6
Silk: raw, Italian, classical.....	118.1	Cotton flannels: 2½ yards to the pound.....	139.1
Leather: wax calf, 30 to 40 pounds to the dozen, B grade.....	118.4	Bags: 2-bushel, Amoskeag.....	139.4
Shirtings: bleached, 4-4 Wamsutta ^{<O>} _{XX}	118.7	Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Hope.....	139.5
Blankets: 11-4, 5 pounds to pair, all wool.....	119.0	Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Pepperell R.....	140.7
Boots and shoes: women's solid grain shoes, leather, polish or polka.....	119.3	Blankets: 11-4, 5 pounds to the pair, cotton warp, cotton and wool filling.....	141.5
Overcoatings: chinchilla, B-rough, all wool.....	119.4	Cotton flannels: 2½ yards to the pound.....	141.6
Women's dress goods: Franklin sackings, 6-4.....	119.9	Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Atlantic A.....	141.8
Carpets: Ingrain, 2-ply, Lowell.....	121.2	Drillings: brown, Pepperell.....	144.2
Boots and shoes: men's brogans, split.....	121.3	Cotton thread: 6-cord, 200-yard spools, J. & P. Coats.....	145.4
Cotton yarns: carded, white, mule-spun, northern, cones, 22/1.....	121.9	Women's dress goods: cashmere, cotton warp, 9-twill, 4-4, Atlantic Mills F.....	148.3
Carpets: Wilton, 5-frame, Bigelow.....	123.7	Boots and shoes: men's split boots, russet-bound top, 17-inch, one-half double sole.....	152.9
Cotton yarns: carded, white, mule-spun, northern, cones, 10/1.....	124.4	Print cloths: 28-inch, 64 by 64.....	155.3
Flannels: white, 4-4, Ballard Vale No. 3.....	124.4	Drillings: 30-inch, Stark A.....	157.8
Carpets: Brussels, 5-frame, Bigelow.....	124.7	Sheetings: bleached, 10-4, Pepperell.....	159.2
Worsted yarns: 2-40s, Australian fine.....	125.7	Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Fruit of the Loom.....	164.8
Suitings: indigo blue, all wool, 16-ounce.....	126.2	PRICE DECREASED.	
Ginghams: Lancaster.....	126.5	Overcoatings: covert cloth, light weight.....	96.9
Worsted yarns: 2-40s, XXXX or its equivalent in quality, white, in skeins.....	129.1	Hosiery: men's cotton half hose, seamless, standard quality, 84 needles.....	95.6
Suitings: indigo blue, all wool, 54-inch, 14-ounce, Middlesex standard.....	129.3	Overcoatings: chinchilla, cotton warp, C. C. grade.....	94.2
Blankets: 11-4, 5 pounds to the pair, cotton warp, all wool filling.....	130.5	Hosiery: women's cotton hose, seamless, fast black, 26 to 28 ounce, 160 to 176 needles.....	89.5
Horse blankets: 6 pounds each, all wool.....	130.9		

RELATIVE PRICES, DECEMBER, 1907, COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICE FOR 1890-1899—Continued.

Fuel and lighting, 13 articles.

Article.	Relative price, December, 1907.	Article.	Relative price, December, 1907.
PRICE INCREASED.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Coal: bituminous, Georges Creek (f.o.b. New York Harbor).....	116.7	Petroleum: refined, 150° fire test, w. w.	151.7
Coke: Connellsville, furnace.....	117.8	Coal: bituminous, Georges Creek (at mine).....	168.8
Coal: anthracite, broken.....	124.9	Petroleum: crude, Pennsylvania.....	195.6
Coal: anthracite, stove.....	130.4	PRICE DECREASED.	
Petroleum: refined, for export.....	134.8	Candles: adamantine, 6s, 14-ounce.....	95.9
Coal: anthracite, chestnut.....	137.5	Matches: parlor, domestic.....	85.4
Coal: anthracite, egg.....	137.7		
Coal: bituminous, Pittsburg (Youghiogheny) lump.....	140.0		

Metals and implements, 35 articles.

Article.	Relative price, December, 1907.	Article.	Relative price, December, 1907.
PRICE SAME AS BASE.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Saws: crosscut, Disston.....	100.0	Butts: loose joint, cast, 3 by 3 inch.....	126.6
Trowels: M. C. O., brick, 10½-inch.....	100.0	Pig iron: foundry No. 1.....	127.9
PRICE INCREASED.		Hammers: Maydole No. 1½.....	129.0
Saws: hand, Disston No. 7.....	101.3	Steel billets.....	130.1
Spelter: western.....	102.4	Pig iron: Bessemer.....	142.3
Barb wire: galvanized.....	106.1	Axes: M. C. O., Yankee.....	144.9
Steel rails.....	107.4	Pig iron: foundry No. 2, northern.....	146.7
Quicksilver.....	109.1	Vises: solid box, 50-pound.....	147.4
Lead: pig.....	111.5	Pig iron: gray forge, southern, coke.....	148.8
Copper wire: bare, No. 8, B. & S.....	112.7	Tin: pig.....	163.9
Copper: ingot, lake.....	113.5	Chisels: extra, socket firmer, 1-inch.....	198.0
Files: 8-inch mill bastard.....	114.9	Augers: extra, ½-inch.....	223.9
Planes: Bailey No. 5.....	115.7	Locks: common mortise.....	244.8
Lead pipe.....	115.8	Doorknobs: steel, bronze-plated.....	265.2
Nails: cut, 8-penny, fence and common.....	116.3	PRICE DECREASED.	
Bar iron: best refined, from store (Philadelphia market).....	119.5	Shovels: Ames No. 2.....	99.7
Copper: sheet, hot rolled (base sizes) ..	120.6	Nails: wire, 8-penny, fence and common.....	99.5
Zinc: sheet.....	121.3	Wood screws: 1-inch, No. 10, flathead.....	80.7
		Silver: bar, fine.....	73.7

Lumber and building materials, 20 articles.

Article.	Relative price, December, 1907.	Article.	Relative price, December, 1907.
PRICE INCREASED.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Cement: Rosendale.....	107.1	Shingles: cypress.....	145.3
Carbonate of lead: American, in oil.....	114.7	Spruce.....	146.4
Window glass: American, single, thirds, 25-inch bracket (6 by 8 to 10 by 15 inch).....	119.2	Turpentine: spirits of.....	146.6
Maple: hard.....	122.6	Oak: white, quartered.....	149.0
Lime: common.....	125.4	Pine: yellow, long leaf.....	165.2
Window glass: American, single, firsts, 25-inch bracket (6 by 8 to 10 by 15 inch).....	126.4	Hemlock: 2 by 4 inch.....	180.0
Tar.....	132.8	Poplar: yellow.....	189.7
Oxide of zinc.....	134.5	Resin: good, strained.....	246.5
Oak: white, plain, 1-inch, 6 inches and up wide.....	144.3	PRICE DECREASED.	
		Linseed oil: raw.....	99.2
		Brick: common domestic.....	98.9
		Putty: bulk.....	75.9

Drugs and chemicals, 9 articles.

Article.	Relative price, December, 1907.	Article.	Relative price, December, 1907.
PRICE INCREASED.		PRICE DECREASED.	
Alum: lump.....	104.8	Brimstone: crude, seconds.....	94.2
Sulphuric acid: 66°.....	112.4	Quinine: American.....	65.0
Glycerin: refined.....	114.4	Alcohol: wood, refined, 95 per cent.....	40.9
Alcohol: grain.....	117.4		
Muriatic acid: 20°.....	129.8		
Opium: natural, in cases.....	233.0		

RELATIVE PRICES, DECEMBER, 1907, COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICE FOR
1890-1899—Concluded.

House furnishing goods, 14 articles.

Article.	Relative price, December, 1907.	Article.	Relative price, December, 1907.
PRICE INCREASED.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Earthenware: plates, white granite.....	102.4	Furniture: chairs, bedroom, maple.....	161.4
Table cutlery: knives and forks, coco- bolo handles.....	104.8	Wooden ware: pails, oak-grained.....	161.7
Table cutlery: carvers, stag handles.....	106.3	PRICE DECREASED.	
Earthenware: plates, cream-colored.....	106.6	Earthenware: teacups and saucers, white granite.....	98.8
Wooden ware: tubs, oak-grained.....	122.5	Glassware: pitchers, 1-gallon, common.....	89.4
Furniture: tables, kitchen.....	124.7	Glassware: tumblers, 1-pint, common.....	84.5
Glassware: nappies, 4-inch.....	125.0		
Furniture: bedroom sets, ash.....	137.4		
Furniture: chairs, kitchen.....	156.8		

Miscellaneous, 12 articles.

Article.	Relative price, December, 1907.	Article.	Relative price, December, 1907.
PRICE INCREASED.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Proof spirits.....	117.4	Cotton-seed meal.....	134.8
Tobacco: smoking, granulated, Seal of North Carolina.....	117.9	Malt: western made.....	172.1
Tobacco: plug.....	118.6	PRICE DECREASED.	
Starch: laundry.....	122.1	Rubber: Para Island.....	97.4
Soap: castile, mottled, pure.....	123.0	Paper: wrapping, manila.....	94.9
Rope: manila.....	125.8	Paper: news.....	88.6
Cotton-seed oil: summer yellow, prime.....	126.5		

Of the farm products group, the prices of 12 of the 16 articles were higher in December, 1907, than the average price for 1890 to 1899, and the prices of 4 articles were lower in December, 1907, than the average for 1890 to 1899.

The December, 1907, price, compared with the average price for 1890 to 1899, shows barley 113.9 per cent above; oats 84.7 per cent above; corn 55.8 per cent above; cotton 51.9 per cent above, etc.

Of the food group, in December, 1907, eggs were 104.8 per cent above the average price for 1890 to 1899; herring 72.1 per cent above; cheese 58.6 per cent above; milk 56.9 per cent above, etc.

With these illustrations the reader is referred to the table.

The facts presented in the foregoing table are summarized in the following table, which shows the changes in prices of articles in each group, classified by per cent of change:

CHANGES IN PRICES OF ARTICLES IN EACH GROUP, CLASSIFIED BY PER CENT OF CHANGE, DECEMBER, 1907, COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICE FOR 1890-1899.

Group.	Number of articles.	Number of articles for which price—									
		Increased—					Was same as base.	Decreased—			
		100 per cent or more.	50 or under 100 per cent.	25 or under 50 per cent.	10 or under 25 per cent.	Less than 10 per cent.		Less than 10 per cent.	10 or under 25 per cent.	25 or under 50 per cent.	50 per cent or more.
Farm products.....	16	1	3	4	4	4	3	1			
Food, etc.....	51	1	6	16	11	8	4	2	1	2	
Cloths and clothing.....	58		5	26	18	5	3	1			
Fuel and lighting.....	13		3	5	3		1	1			
Metals and implements.....	35	3	2	9	10	5	2	1	1		
Lumber and building materials.....	20	1	3	9	3	1	2	1			
Drugs and chemicals.....	9	1		1	3	1	1		1	1	
House furnishing goods.....	14		3	2	2	4	1	2			
Miscellaneous.....	12		1	3	5		2	1			
Total.....	228	7	26	75	55	28	2	10	10	3	

It is seen in the above comparison of the prices of December, 1907, with the average for 1890 to 1899, that of the 16 articles in the farm products group, 12 show an increase and 4 a decrease; of the 51 in the foods, etc., group, 42 show an increase and 9 a decrease; of the 58 in the cloths and clothing group, 54 show an increase and 4 a decrease; of the 13 in the fuel and lighting group, 11 show an increase and 2 a decrease; of the 35 in the metals and implements group, 29 show an increase, 2 show the same price as the average for the base period, and 4 show a decrease; of the 20 in the lumber and building materials group, 17 show an increase and 3 a decrease; of the 9 in the drugs and chemicals group, 6 show an increase and 3 a decrease; of the 14 in the house furnishing goods group, 11 show an increase and 3 a decrease; of the 12 in the miscellaneous group, 9 show an increase and 3 a decrease. Of the 228 commodities included in the above table, 191 show an increase, 2 show the same price as the average for the base period, and 35 show a decrease. Of the 191 commodities that showed an increase in December, 1907, over the average for 1890 to 1899, 28 advanced less than 10 per cent, 55 advanced 10 or under 25 per cent, 75 advanced 25 or under 50 per cent, 26 advanced 50 or under 100 per cent, and 7 advanced 100 per cent or more. Of the 35 commodities which showed a decrease, 19 decreased less than 10 per cent, 10 decreased 10 or under 25 per cent, 3 decreased 25 or under 50 per cent, and 3 decreased 50 per cent or more.

The number and per cent of articles which showed each specified increase or decrease are given in the following table:

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF ARTICLES, BY CLASSIFIED PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE, DECEMBER, 1907, COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICE FOR 1890-1899.

	Number of articles.	Per cent of articles.		Number of articles.	Per cent of articles.
Price increased:			Price decreased:		
100 per cent or more.....	7	3.1	Less than 10 per cent.....	19	8.3
50 or under 100 per cent....	26	11.4	10 or under 25 per cent....	10	4.4
25 or under 50 per cent....	75	32.9	25 or under 50 per cent....	3	1.3
10 or under 25 per cent....	55	24.1	50 per cent or more.....	3	1.3
Less than 10 per cent.....	28	12.3	Total.....	35	15.3
Total.....	191	83.8	Grand total.....	228	100.0
Price same as base.....	2	0.9			

Of the 228 articles included in this table, it is seen that 191, or 83.8 per cent, show an increase in price; 2 articles, or 0.9 per cent, show the same price as the average for the base period, and 35 articles, or 15.3 per cent, show a decrease in price in December, 1907, as compared with the average price for the base period.

Of the 258 commodities considered in the Bureau's compilation of prices, the average price of 108 commodities was higher in December, 1907, than in December, 1906, the average price of 62 was the same in December, 1907, as in December, 1906, and the average price of 87 was lower in December, 1907, than in December, 1906. For one article there was no quotation in December, 1907.

The following table shows the relative prices of certain related articles, so grouped as to render easy a comparison of the course of their prices during the year 1907:

RELATIVE PRICES OF CERTAIN GROUPS OF RELATED ARTICLES IN 1907.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Month.	Cattle and cattle products.						Dairy products.		
	Cattle.	Beef, fresh.	Beef, hams.	Beef, mess.	Tallow.	Hides.	Milk.	Butter.	Cheese.
Jan....	122.6	105.7	134.0	110.7	147.4	173.6	147.1	138.8	146.9
Feb....	124.7	104.5	136.1	113.4	153.3	172.9	137.3	148.9	148.8
Mar....	121.2	103.8	138.2	121.6	155.2	163.4	127.5	142.8	149.4
April....	121.8	108.0	138.2	121.6	144.6	153.8	127.5	139.8	152.0
May....	117.7	111.2	138.2	121.6	144.4	153.4	112.5	114.3	137.8
June....	129.0	119.2	138.2	121.6	146.7	158.8	98.0	110.0	120.4
July....	132.8	123.2	138.2	121.6	143.7	157.1	103.1	115.3	125.1
Aug....	131.0	124.9	145.1	121.6	145.7	150.0	121.2	114.6	123.5
Sept....	125.7	120.4	157.5	124.7	143.7	150.0	132.5	127.7	138.4
Oct....	124.8	121.9	159.2	127.9	137.9	156.9	156.9	132.8	159.6
Nov....	115.9	121.3	160.3	127.9	131.5	145.6	156.9	124.0	132.0
Dec....	109.2	112.8	145.9	132.5	126.0	126.5	156.9	131.5	153.6
1907..	122.9	114.7	144.0	122.5	142.8	155.3	131.4	128.5	143.3

RELATIVE PRICES OF CERTAIN GROUPS OF RELATED ARTICLES IN 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Month.	Hogs and hog products.					Sheep and sheep products.		
	Hogs.	Bacon.	Hams, smoked.	Mess pork.	Lard.	Sheep.	Mutton.	Wool.
Jan.	149.1	144.8	133.4	154.7	149.2	129.3	114.1	121.3
Feb.	158.8	151.7	138.5	161.2	153.7	131.0	112.7	121.3
Mar.	151.2	146.3	136.6	156.3	144.2	137.6	120.2	119.8
Apr.	150.5	141.7	136.0	152.8	138.2	145.7	132.0	119.8
May.	144.7	144.4	139.4	154.7	143.1	141.3	137.7	119.8
June.	139.0	141.4	137.5	155.3	138.2	141.9	128.5	121.7
July.	136.9	139.2	137.0	156.9	139.3	132.8	107.4	121.7
Aug.	139.9	140.0	137.2	155.8	140.5	131.8	111.1	123.7
Sept.	140.4	140.4	133.4	152.6	141.1	133.8	109.4	123.7
Oct.	143.6	140.8	131.6	147.4	142.4	123.5	110.1	121.7
Nov.	114.0	136.7	124.2	137.8	132.1	89.2	109.4	121.7
Dec.	105.4	124.8	108.5	130.0	127.7	88.8	104.1	121.7
1907...	139.2	140.7	132.4	151.0	140.7	126.9	116.0	121.5

Month.	Corn, etc.			Flaxseed, etc.		Rye and rye flour.		Wheat and wheat flour.		Flour, etc.		
	Corn.	Glu- cose. ^a	Meal.	Flax- seed.	Linseed oil.	Rye.	Rye flour.	Wheat.	Wheat flour.	Wheat flour.	Crack- ers.	Loaf bread.
Jan.	108.4	148.8	125.9	103.3	90.4	116.9	119.8	97.1	90.6	90.6	112.1	110.9
Feb.	114.2	148.8	125.9	107.3	90.4	126.8	118.3	105.8	93.0	93.0	112.1	110.9
Mar.	116.0	148.8	125.9	108.2	90.4	127.4	117.6	105.0	91.6	91.6	112.1	110.9
Apr.	123.0	148.8	125.9	104.7	90.4	130.7	116.1	107.9	91.9	91.9	112.1	110.9
May.	139.4	148.8	122.3	105.6	90.4	150.3	119.1	127.7	107.8	107.8	112.1	110.9
June.	140.2	161.1	128.4	118.4	97.0	164.1	152.2	128.8	114.5	114.5	112.1	110.9
July.	142.2	161.1	130.8	112.5	99.2	161.5	153.0	128.5	115.6	115.6	112.1	110.9
Aug.	148.6	161.1	125.9	103.1	94.8	146.8	148.5	123.7	111.7	111.7	112.1	110.9
Sept.	162.0	168.2	135.6	106.4	94.8	166.7	145.5	134.5	116.9	116.9	112.1	110.9
Oct.	162.5	167.8	153.8	107.8	103.6	159.7	156.0	138.8	124.7	124.7	112.1	110.9
Nov.	153.9	174.9	149.2	101.5	108.0	148.0	156.8	124.4	122.5	122.5	112.1	110.9
Dec.	155.8	174.9	128.4	94.1	99.2	148.4	162.0	128.3	122.2	122.2	112.1	110.9
1907...	138.8	159.4	131.5	106.1	95.7	145.4	138.7	120.8	108.6	108.6	112.1	110.9

Cotton and cotton goods.

Month.	Cotton: upland, mid- dling.	Bags: 2-busket, Amos- keag.	Calico: American standard prints.	Cotton flannels.	Cotton thread.	Cotton yarns.	Denims.	Drill- ings.	Ging- hams.	Hosiery.
Feb.	142.0	132.2	105.1	133.9	120.1	133.2	122.1	145.8	115.2	93.0
Mar.	143.8	132.2	114.6	133.9	120.1	131.6	124.5	145.4	115.2	93.0
Apr.	143.4	139.4	114.6	133.9	120.1	131.9	124.5	145.1	115.2	94.5
May.	154.9	139.4	114.6	140.4	120.1	131.9	124.5	151.2	115.2	94.5
June.	168.1	139.4	114.6	140.4	145.4	138.8	134.1	147.7	115.2	94.5
July.	169.5	139.4	124.2	144.4	145.4	142.9	138.9	149.3	124.6	94.5
Aug.	171.8	139.4	124.2	144.4	145.4	142.9	141.3	143.3	129.3	94.5
Sept.	163.5	139.1	133.7	144.4	145.4	140.1	141.3	150.1	133.6	97.4
Oct.	148.5	139.4	133.7	144.4	145.4	134.4	141.3	147.2	128.9	97.4
Nov.	142.0	139.4	133.7	140.4	145.4	123.2	136.5	148.0	128.9	97.4
Dec.	151.9	139.4	133.7	140.4	145.4	123.2	136.5	151.0	128.9	97.4
1907...	153.0	138.5	121.0	139.5	134.8	133.9	132.3	147.2	122.0	97.4

^a Average for 1833-1899=100.0.

^b See statement on page 325.

RELATIVE PRICES OF CERTAIN GROUPS OF RELATED ARTICLES IN 1907—Concluded.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Month.	Cotton and cotton goods.				Wool and woolen goods.					
	Print cloths.	Sheetings.	Shirtings.	Tickings.	Wool.	Blankets (all wool).	Broadcloths.	Carpets.	Flannels.	Horse blankets.
Jan.....	146.9	125.0	124.6	117.8	121.3	119.0	116.6	123.2	122.4	130.9
Feb.....	147.6	127.3	128.7	120.2	121.3	119.0	116.6	123.2	122.4	130.9
Mar.....	158.6	128.7	130.4	122.5	119.8	119.0	116.6	123.2	122.4	130.9
Apr.....	158.6	129.6	133.1	122.5	119.8	119.0	116.6	123.2	122.4	130.9
May.....	161.3	129.4	133.1	127.2	119.8	119.0	116.6	123.2	122.4	130.9
June.....	170.9	133.8	135.1	127.2	121.7	119.0	116.6	123.2	122.4	130.9
July.....	177.3	132.4	143.9	132.0	121.7	119.0	116.6	123.2	122.4	130.9
Aug.....	185.0	133.5	143.9	136.7	123.7	119.0	116.6	123.2	122.4	130.9
Sept.....	185.0	133.6	143.3	136.7	123.7	119.0	116.6	123.2	124.4	130.9
Oct.....	185.0	136.2	145.3	136.7	121.7	119.0	116.6	123.2	124.4	130.9
Nov.....	177.9	139.3	145.3	136.7	121.7	119.0	116.6	123.2	124.4	130.9
Dec.....	165.3	138.1	139.5	136.7	121.7	119.0	116.6	123.2	124.4	130.9
1907..	167.4	132.2	137.4	129.4	121.5	119.0	116.6	123.2	123.1	130.9

Month.	Wool and woolen goods.					Hides, leather, and boots and shoes.			Petroleum.		
	Overcoatings (all wool).	Shawls.	Suitings.	Underwear (all wool).	Women's dress goods (all wool).	Worsted yarns.	Hides.	Leather.	Boots and shoes.	Crude.	Refined.
Jan.....	123.5	107.0	132.8	115.8	132.0	128.4	173.6	124.4	127.3	173.6	135.9
Feb.....	124.9	107.0	132.8	115.8	132.0	128.4	172.9	123.0	127.3	173.6	135.6
Mar.....	124.9	107.0	132.8	115.8	132.0	128.4	163.4	124.1	127.3	179.1	135.6
Apr.....	124.9	107.0	133.5	115.8	132.0	128.4	153.8	124.4	127.3	193.6	139.0
May.....	124.9	107.0	133.4	115.8	132.0	128.4	153.4	124.4	127.3	193.6	139.0
June.....	124.9	107.0	132.4	115.8	132.0	127.4	158.8	123.6	126.7	193.6	139.0
July.....	124.9	107.0	132.4	115.8	132.0	127.4	157.1	122.8	126.2	193.6	141.0
Aug.....	124.9	107.0	133.4	115.8	132.0	127.4	150.6	124.0	125.6	193.6	141.0
Sept.....	124.9	107.0	133.4	115.8	132.0	127.4	150.6	124.0	125.1	193.6	141.0
Oct.....	124.9	107.0	133.4	115.8	127.4	128.4	156.9	125.1	125.1	193.6	141.0
Nov.....	124.9	107.0	133.4	115.8	127.4	127.4	145.6	124.7	123.4	193.6	143.3
Dec.....	124.9	107.0	133.4	115.8	127.4	127.4	126.5	123.9	122.2	193.6	143.3
1907..	124.8	107.0	133.1	115.8	130.9	127.9	155.3	124.0	125.9	190.5	139.1

An examination of this table shows that during 1907, with few exceptions, related articles followed the same price movement for the year. Prices of cattle products, except mess beef, followed in a general way the prices of cattle. Prices of all of the hog products shared in the decline made in the price of hogs during the last two months of the year. Mutton reflects the decline in price of sheep, corn meal reflects the advance and decline of corn, but glucose continued to advance until the end of the year. Prices of wheat flour followed the price of wheat, but crackers and loaf bread remained the same. Cotton receded from the price shown during the summer, but the movement was not fully reflected in cotton goods, as several articles either advanced or remained the same during the year. Wool and woolen goods sustained a very steady price during the year, the principal variation being in women's dress goods (all wool). Leather and boots and shoes reflect but very slightly the heavy decline shown in the price of hides.

The lowest monthly relative price during 1907 for cattle was 109.2 in December, the highest 132.8 in July; the lowest for fresh beef was 103.8 in March, the highest 124.9 in August; the lowest for beef hams was 134.0 in January, the highest 160.3 in November; the lowest for mess beef was 110.7 in January, the highest 132.5 in December; the lowest for tallow was 126.0 in December, the highest 155.2 in March; the lowest for hides was 126.5 in December, the highest 173.6 in January. The facts for the other groups may be seen by reference to the table.

Table IV.—Average yearly actual and relative prices of commodities, 1890 to 1907, and base prices (average for 1890–1899), pages 427 to 453.—This table shows for each commodity the average price for each of the 18 years from 1890 to 1907. In the parallel column following is given the relative price for each year—that is, the per cent that the price in each year is of the average price for the 10 years from 1890 to 1899. In the line above the prices for 1890 are given the average prices for the 10-year period taken as the basis of comparison.

The average price for each year was obtained, as has been explained on page 310, by dividing the sum of the quotations for each year as shown in Table I by the number of quotations for each year. The average price for the 10-year period (1890 to 1899) was obtained by dividing the sum of the average prices of the 10 years by 10. The relative prices for each year were computed in the same way as for each month, as explained in the discussion of Table II.

Table V.—Yearly relative prices of commodities, 1890 to 1907, pages 454 to 471.—This table is taken from Table IV and shows the relative prices of each of the commodities included therein. In this table similar commodities have been grouped and the average of the relative prices shown for the commodities in each subgroup and in each of the 9 general groups. The averages in all cases were found by dividing the sum of the relative prices by the number of commodities in the group under consideration, as explained on page 328 in the discussion of Table III. The average relative price of each of the 9 general groups was found by dividing the sum of the relative prices of the different descriptions of commodities for each year by the number of these commodities or series of quotations considered in that year. The sum of the relative prices in 1890 of the commodities shown under the general group food, etc., for example, is 5,958.2, which amount, divided by 53, the number of different descriptions of commodities or series of quotations considered for that year, gives 112.4, the average for the group food, etc., for 1890. For 1893 to 1903, 54 commodities are quoted in this group, and that number is accordingly the divisor for each of those years. For 1904 to 1907, 53 commodities are included in this group.

The average relative price of each of the 9 general groups for each year of the period and the average relative price of all commodities for each year are shown on page 295.

The average relative prices of the 248 commodities for which quotations were secured for the entire period involved do not differ materially from the average relative price of all commodities shown in a preceding table based on the varying number of commodities in the different years. Eliminating the commodities for which quotations could be secured for only a portion of the period, we find that the average relative price of the 248 commodities remaining was 129.5 in 1907, exactly the same as the relative price for the 258 articles for which wholesale prices were secured in this investigation.

The following table shows for each of the 9 general groups the relative prices of 1907 compared with the average for 1890 to 1899.

There are included in this table only those commodities which have retained practically the same description throughout the 18-year period. The average price for 1890 to 1899 is in every case the base, or 100 per cent. It should be kept in mind in using the table that the comparison is between the average prices for 1907 and the average prices for the base period.

RELATIVE PRICES, 1907, COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICE FOR 1890-1899.

[For a more detailed description of the articles see Table I, page 347 et seq. Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Farm products, 16 articles.

Article.	Relative price, 1907.	Article.	Relative price, 1907.
PRICE INCREASED.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Flaxseed: No. 1.....	106.1	Cotton: upland, middling.....	153.0
Wheat: contract grades, cash.....	120.8	Hides: green, salted, packers, heavy native steers.....	155.3
Cattle: steers, good to choice.....	122.8	Hay: timothy, No. 1.....	162.4
Cattle: steers, choice to extra.....	123.0	Oats: cash.....	167.4
Sheep: western.....	123.5	Barley: by sample.....	169.0
Sheep: native.....	130.3		
Hogs: heavy.....	137.8	PRICE DECREASED.	
Corn: No. 2, cash.....	138.8	Hops: New York State, choice.....	98.1
Hogs: light.....	140.6		
Rye: No. 2, cash.....	145.4		

Food, etc., 52 articles.

PRICE INCREASED.		PRICE INCREASED—continued.	
Bread: loaf (Washington market).....	100.6	Meat: beef, salt, extra mess.....	122.5
Vegetables, fresh: onions.....	103.0	Fruit: apples, sun-dried.....	123.9
Flour: wheat, winter straights.....	103.7	Butter: creamery, extra (N. Y. market)	126.2
Beans: medium, choice.....	106.4	Butter: creamery, Elgin (Elgin market).....	127.2
Fruit: raisins, California, London layer	108.4	Meal: corn, fine white.....	129.5
Starch: pure corn.....	109.5	Molasses: New Orleans, open kettle....	129.7
Salt: American.....	112.6	Milk: fresh.....	131.4
Fish: salmon, canned.....	113.2	Butter: dairy, New York State.....	132.0
Flour: wheat, spring patents.....	113.5	Flour: buckwheat.....	132.4
Bread: loaf, Vienna (N. Y. market).....	113.6	Meat: hams, smoked.....	132.4
Meat: beef, fresh, native sides.....	114.7	Spices: pepper, Singapore.....	132.7
Meat: mutton, dressed.....	116.0	Meal: corn, fine yellow.....	133.5
Vinegar: cider, Monarch.....	116.7	Bread: crackers, Boston.....	133.7
Bread: loaf, homemade (N. Y. market).....	118.6		

RELATIVE PRICES, 1907, COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICE FOR 1890-1899—Continued.

Food, etc., 52 articles—Concluded.

Article.	Relative price, 1907.	Article.	Relative price, 1907.
PRICE INCREASED—concluded.		PRICE DECREASED.	
Fish: cod, dry, bank, large.....	138.6	Fruit: apples, evaporated, choice.....	90.5
Flour: Rye.....	138.7	Fish: mackerel, salt, large No. 3s.....	98.5
Meat: bacon, short rib sides.....	140.1	Sugar: granulated.....	98.4
Lard: prime contract.....	140.7	Vegetables, fresh: potatoes, white.....	98.4
Eggs: new-laid, fancy, near-by.....	141.2	Sugar: 96° centrifugal.....	97.0
Meat: bacon, short clear sides.....	141.3	Sugar: 89° fair refining.....	95.7
Tallow.....	142.8	Rice: domestic, choice.....	95.2
Cheese: New York, full cream.....	143.3	Bread: crackers, soda.....	90.5
Meat: beef, salt, hams, western.....	144.0	Tea: Formosa, fine.....	81.0
Meat: pork, salt, mess, old to new.....	151.0	Fruit: prunes, California, in boxes.....	76.6
Fish: herring, shore, round.....	162.9	Soda: bicarbonate of, American.....	62.2
Fruit: currants, in barrels.....	187.5	Coffee: Rio No. 7.....	50.1
		Spices: nutmegs.....	32.3

Cloths and clothing, 58 articles.

PRICE INCREASED.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Overcoatings: chinchilla, cotton warp, C. C. grade.....	100.5	Cotton yarns: carded, white, mule-spun, northern, cones, 22/1.....	130.6
Linen shoe thread: 10s, Barbour.....	102.1	Horse blankets: 6 pounds each, all wool.....	130.9
Sheetings: bleached, 10-4 Wamsutta S.T.....	103.4	Silk: raw, Italian, classical.....	131.1
Linen thread: 3-cord, 200-yard spools, Barbour.....	107.3	Denims: Amoskeag.....	132.3
Boots and shoes: men's vic kid shoes, Goodyear welt.....	108.7	Shirtings: bleached, Williamsville, Al.....	132.8
Wool: Ohio, medium fleece (1 and 2 grade), scoured.....	113.0	Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Indian Head.....	133.4
Leather: sole, oak.....	113.6	Cotton thread: 6 cord, 200-yard spools, J. & P. Coats, fine.....	134.8
Underwear: shirts and drawers, white, all wool, full-fashioned, 18-gauge.....	115.8	Women's dress goods: cashmere, all wool, 10-11 twill, 38-inch, Atlantic Mills J.....	134.9
Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Wamsutta ^o / _{XX}	116.0	Sheetings: brown, 4-4 Pepperell R.....	135.4
Broadcloths: first quality, black, 54-inch, made from XXX wool.....	116.6	Leather: sole, hemlock, Buenos Aires and Montana, middle weights, first quality.....	136.4
Leather: wax calf, 30 to 40 pounds to the dozen, B grade.....	117.1	Cotton yarns: carded, white, mule-spun, northern, cones, 10/1.....	137.1
Blankets: 11-4, 5 pounds to the pair, all wool.....	119.0	Bags: 2-bushel, Amoskeag.....	138.5
Overcoatings: chinchilla, B-rough, all wool.....	119.4	Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Atlantic A.....	138.9
Ginghams: Lancaster.....	120.4	Cotton flannels: 3 1/2 yards to the pound.....	139.1
Carpets: Ingrain, 2-ply, Lowell.....	121.2	Cotton flannels: 2 1/2 yards to the pound.....	139.9
Boots and shoes: women's solid grain shoes, leather, polish or polka.....	123.1	Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Lonsdale.....	141.0
Flannels: white, 4-4, Ballard Vale No. 3.....	123.1	Blankets: 11-4, 5 pounds to the pair, cotton warp, cotton and wool filling.....	141.5
Ginghams: Amoskeag.....	123.5	Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Hope.....	143.7
Carpets: Wilton, 5-frame, Bigelow.....	123.7	Drillings: brown, Pepperell.....	144.2
Carpets: Brussels, 5-frame, Bigelow.....	124.7	Women's dress goods: cashmere, cotton warp, 9-twill, 4-4, Atlantic mills F.....	147.0
Silk: raw, Japan, filatures.....	125.9	Drillings: 30-inch, Stark A.....	150.1
Suttings: indigo blue, all wool, 16-ounce.....	126.2	Sheetings: bleached, 10-4, Pepperell.....	153.0
Women's dress goods: Franklin sackings, 6-4.....	126.8	Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Fruit of the Loom.....	153.4
Worsted yarns: 2-40s, Australian fine.....	127.3	Boots and shoes: men's split boots.....	160.0
Worsted yarns: 2-40s, XXXX or its equivalent in quality, white, in skeins.....	128.4	Print cloths: 28-inch, 64 by 64.....	167.4
Boots and shoes: men's brogans, split.....	128.7		
Suttings: indigo blue, all wool, 54-inch, 14-ounce, Middlesex standard.....	129.3	PRICE DECREASED.	
Tickings: Amoskeag, A. C. A.....	129.4	Overcoatings: covert cloth, light weight, staple goods.....	96.9
Wool: Ohio, fine fleece (X and XX grade), scoured.....	129.9	Hosiery: men's cotton half hose, seamless, standard quality, 84 needles.....	95.6
Blankets: 11-4, 5 pounds to the pair, cotton warp, all wool filling.....	130.5	Hosiery: women's cotton hose, seamless, last black, 26 to 28 ounce, 160 to 176 needles.....	89.

Fuel and lighting, 13 articles.

PRICE INCREASED.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Coal: bituminous, Georges Creek (f. o. b. N. Y. Harbor).....	118.0	Coke: Connellsville, furnace.....	166.3
Coal: anthracite, broken.....	134.9	Coal: bituminous, Georges Creek (at mine).....	173.0
Petroleum: refined, for export.....	137.0	Petroleum: crude.....	190.5
Coal: anthracite, stove.....	137.1		
Coal: bituminous, Pittsburg (Youghiogheny).....	138.1	PRICE DECREASED.	
Coal: anthracite, chestnut.....	134.1	Candles: adamantine, 6s, 14-ounce.....	94.8
Coal: anthracite, egg.....	154.2	Matches: parlor, domestic.....	85.4
Coal: anthracite, egg, refined, 150° fire test, w. w.....	151.2		

RELATIVE PRICES, 1907, COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICE FOR 1890-1899—Continued.

Metals and implements, 55 articles.

Article.	Relative price, 1907.	Article.	Relative price, 1907.
PRICE SAME AS BASE.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Saws: crosscut, Disston.....	109.0	Pig iron: foundry No. 1.....	161.4
Trowels: M. C. O., brick, 10½-inch.....	109.0	Copper wire: bare.....	164.1
PRICE INCREASED.		Pig iron: Bessemer.....	165.8
Saws: hand, Disston, No. 7.....	101.3	Copper: sheet, hot-rolled (base sizes).....	168.3
Barb wire: galvanized.....	104.3	Copper: ingot, lake.....	172.2
Steel rails.....	107.4	Pig iron: foundry No. 2.....	182.9
Planes: Bailey, No. 5.....	115.7	Pig iron: gray forge, southern, coke.....	189.3
Files: 8-inch mill bastard.....	117.0	Tin: pig.....	211.1
Nails: cut, 8-penny, fence and common.....	118.3	Augers: extra, 1-inch.....	223.9
Bricks: loose joint, cast, 3 by 3 inch.....	126.6	Chisels: extra, socket former, 1-inch.....	234.3
Bar iron: best refined, from stone (Philadelphia market).....	128.7	Locks: common mortise.....	244.8
Hammers: Maydole, No. 1½.....	129.0	Doorknobs: steel, bronze-plated.....	255.2
Steel billets.....	135.9	PRICE DECREASED.	
Spelter: western.....	136.5	Shovels: Ames No. 2.....	99.7
Lead pipe.....	139.2	Nails: wire, 8-penny, fence and common.....	97.9
Zinc: sheet.....	140.9	Quicksilver.....	97.1
Axes: M. C. O., Yankee.....	144.9	Silver: bar, fine.....	88.1
Lead: pig.....	144.9	Wood screws: 1-inch, No. 10, flathead.....	80.7
Vises: solid box, 30-pound.....	147.4		

Lumber and building materials, 20 articles.

Article.	Relative price, 1907.	Article.	Relative price, 1907.
PRICE INCREASED.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Cement: Rosendale.....	107.1	Pine: yellow.....	165.2
Brick: common, domestic.....	110.7	Spruce.....	167.3
Lime: common.....	113.9	Poplar.....	185.2
Carbonate of lead: American, in oil.....	120.8	Hemlock.....	186.0
Maple: hard.....	121.7	Turpentine: spirits of.....	189.8
Window glass: American, single, thirds, 6 by 8 to 10 by 15 inch.....	123.2	Tar.....	193.3
Window glass: American, single, firsts, 6 by 8 to 10 by 15 inch.....	130.8	Resin: common to good, strained.....	304.0
Oxide of zinc.....	134.5	PRICE DECREASED.	
Oak: white, plain.....	147.5	Linseed oil: raw.....	95.7
Oak: white, quartered.....	149.0	Putty.....	75.9
Shingles: cypress.....	149.8		

Drugs and chemicals, 9 articles.

Article.	Relative price, 1907.	Article.	Relative price, 1907.
PRICE INCREASED.		PRICE DECREASED.	
Brimstone: crude, seconds.....	103.9	Glycerin: refined.....	98.0
Alum: lump.....	104.8	Quinine: American.....	72.2
Sulphuric acid: 66°.....	112.4	Alcohol: wood, refined, 95 per cent.....	41.8
Alcohol: grain.....	112.6		
Muriatic acid: 29°.....	129.8		
Opium: natural, in cases.....	209.6		

House furnishing goods, 14 articles.

Article.	Relative price, 1907.	Article.	Relative price, 1907.
PRICE SAME AS BASE.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Table cutlery: carvers, stag handles.....	100.0	Furniture: bedroom sets, ash.....	137.4
PRICE INCREASED.		Furniture: chairs, kitchen.....	151.4
Earthenware: plates, white granite.....	102.4	Wooden ware: pails, oak-grained.....	151.7
Earthenware: plates, cream-colored.....	106.6	Furniture: chairs, bedroom, maple.....	161.4
Table cutlery: knives and forks, coco-bolo handles.....	107.0	PRICE DECREASED.	
Wooden ware: tubs, oak-grained.....	118.8	Earthenware: teacups and saucers, white granite.....	88.8
Furniture: tables, kitchen.....	124.7	Glassware: pitchers, 1-gallon, common.....	82.4
Glassware: nappies, 4-inch.....	125.0	Glassware: tumblers, 1-pint, common.....	84.5

RELATIVE PRICES, 1907, COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICE FOR 1890-1899—Concluded.

Miscellaneous, 12 articles.

Article.	Relative price, 1907.	Article.	Relative price, 1907.
PRICE INCREASED.		PRICE INCREASED—concluded.	
Proof spirits.....	114.2	Rope: manila.....	133.1
Starch: laundry.....	116.1	Malt: western made.....	147.2
Soap: castile, mottled, pure.....	117.9	Cotton-seed oil: summer yellow, prime.....	190.0
Tobacco: smoking, granulated, Seal of North Carolina.....	117.9	PRICE DECREASED.	
Tobacco: plug.....	118.6	Paper: wrapping, manila.....	91.5
Cotton-seed meal.....	130.7	Paper: news.....	83.3
Rubber: Para Island.....	132.8		

The 1907 prices of all of the 16 articles included in the farm products group, except hops, were higher than the average price for 1890 to 1899. The 1907 price, compared with the average price for 1890 to 1899, shows barley 69 per cent above; oats 67.4 per cent above; hay, 62.4 per cent above; hides, 55.3 per cent above; cotton, 53 per cent above, etc. The price of hops was only 1.9 per cent below the average price for 1890 to 1899.

Thirty-nine of the 52 articles of food shown in this table were higher and 13 lower in price than the average for 1890 to 1899. In 1907 the price of currants was 87.5 per cent above the average price for 1890 to 1899; herring, 62.9 per cent above; mess pork, 51 per cent above; beef hams, 44 per cent above; cheese, 43.3 per cent above; clear bacon, 41.3 per cent above; eggs, 41.2 per cent above, etc. The price of nutmegs was 67.7 per cent below the average price for 1890 to 1899; coffee, 49.9 per cent below; prunes, 23.4 per cent below; tea, 19 per cent below; granulated sugar, 1.6 per cent below, etc.

Of the 58 articles considered in the cloths and clothing group in 1907, the prices of 55 were above and 3 below the average price for 1890 to 1899. In 1907 the price of print cloths was 67.4 per cent above the average price for 1890 to 1899; men's split boots, 60 per cent above; Fruit of the Loom shirtings, 53.4 per cent above; Pepperell bleached sheetings, 53 per cent above; Stark A drillings, 50.1 per cent above, etc.

Of the 13 articles included in the fuel and lighting group in 1907, the prices of only the less important articles of matches and candles were below the average price for 1890 to 1899. The price of crude petroleum was 90.5 per cent above the average price for 1890 to 1899; Georges Creek coal at the mine, 73 per cent above; coke, 66.3 per cent above; refined petroleum, 51.2 per cent above, etc.

Thirty-five articles are considered in the metals and implements group. The prices of two articles in 1907 were the same as the average price for 1890 to 1899, while the prices of 28 articles were above

and of 5 below the average price for 1890 to 1899. Doorknobs were 165.2 per cent above; locks, 144.8 per cent above; chisels, 134.3 per cent above; augers, 123.9 per cent above; pig tin, 111.1 per cent above; pig iron, gray forge, 89.3 per cent above, etc. The price of wood screws was 19.3 per cent below the average for 1890 to 1899; bar silver, 11.9 per cent below; wire nails, 2.1 per cent below, etc.

Of the 20 articles included in the lumber and building materials group, all but 2 showed prices above the average for 1890 to 1899. The price of resin was 204 per cent above the average price for 1890 to 1899; tar, 93.3 per cent above; spirits of turpentine, 82.8 per cent above; hemlock, 86 per cent above, etc. The price of putty was 24.1 per cent below the average for 1890 to 1899 and of linseed oil 4.3 per cent below.

Of the 9 articles included in the group of drugs and chemicals, 6 were above and 3 below the average price for 1890 to 1899.

Of the 14 articles considered in the group of house furnishing goods, the price of 1 in 1907 was the same as the average price for 1890 to 1899, while the prices of 10 were above and of 3 below the average price for 1890 to 1899.

Of the 12 articles included in the miscellaneous group, the 1907 prices of 10 were above and of 2 below the average price for 1890 to 1899.

The facts presented in the foregoing table are summarized in the following, which shows the changes in prices of articles in each group, classified by per cent of change:

CHANGES IN PRICES OF ARTICLES IN EACH GROUP, CLASSIFIED BY PER CENT OF CHANGE, 1907 COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICE FOR 1890-1899.

Group.	Number of articles.	Price increased—					Price same as base.	Price decreased—			
		100 per cent or more.	50 or under 100 per cent.	25 or under 50 per cent.	10 or under 25 per cent.	Less than 10 per cent.		Less than 10 per cent.	10 or under 25 per cent.	25 or under 50 per cent.	50 per cent or more.
Farm products.....	16		5	5	4	1		1			
Food, etc.....	52		3	20	10	6		8	2	2	1
Cloths and clothing.....	58		5	30	15	5		2	1		
Fuel and lighting.....	13		4	5	2			1	1		
Metals and implements.....	35	5	7	10	3	3	2	3	2		
Lumber and building materials..	20	1	6	5	5	1		1	1		
Drugs and chemicals.....	9	1		1	2	2		1		1	1
House furnishing goods.....	14		3	2	2	3	1	1	2		
Miscellaneous.....	12		1	4	5			1	1		
Total.....	229	7	34	82	48	21	3	19	10	3	2

It is seen in the above comparison of the prices of 1907 with the average for 1890 to 1899 that of the 16 articles in the farm products group, 15 show an increase and 1 a decrease; of the 52 in the food, etc., group, 39 show an increase and 13 a decrease; of the 58 in the cloths and clothing group, 55 show an increase and 3 show a decrease; of

the 13 in the fuel and lighting group, 11 show an increase and 2 show a decrease; of the 35 in the metal and implements group, 28 show an increase, 2 show the same price as the average for the base period, and 5 show a decrease; of the 20 in the lumber and building materials group, 18 show an increase and 2 a decrease; of the 9 in the drugs and chemicals group, 6 show an increase and 3 a decrease; of the 14 in the house furnishing goods group, 10 show an increase, 1 shows the same price as the average for the base period, and 3 a decrease; of the 12 in the miscellaneous group, 10 show an increase and 2 a decrease. Of the 229 commodities included in this table, 192 show an increase, 3 show the same price as the average for the base period, and 34 show a decrease.

The number of articles according to classified per cents of increase and decrease is also shown in the following table. Of the 192 commodities that showed an increase in 1907 over the average for 1890 to 1899, 21 advanced less than 10 per cent, 48 advanced 10 or under 25 per cent, 82 advanced 25 or under 50 per cent, 34 advanced 50 or under 100 per cent, and 7 advanced 100 per cent or more. Of the 34 commodities which showed a decrease, 19 decreased less than 10 per cent, 10 decreased 10 or under 25 per cent, 3 decreased 25 or under 50 per cent, and 2 decreased 50 per cent or more.

The number and per cent of articles which showed each specified increase or decrease are given in the following table:

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF ARTICLES, BY CLASSIFIED PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE, 1907 COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICE FOR 1890-1899.

	Number of articles.	Per cent of articles.		Number of articles.	Per cent of articles.
Price increased:			Price decreased:		
100 per cent or more.....	7	3.0	Less than 10 per cent....	19	8.3
50 or under 100 per cent.....	34	14.8	10 or under 25 per cent....	10	4.4
25 or under 50 per cent.....	82	35.8	25 or under 50 per cent....	3	1.3
10 or under 25 per cent.....	48	21.0	50 per cent or more.....	2	.9
Less than 10 per cent.....	21	9.2			
Total.....	192	83.8	Total.....	34	14.9
Price same as base.....	3	1.3	Grand total.....	229	100.0

Of the 229 articles included in this table, it is seen that 192, or 83.8 per cent, show an increase in price; 3 articles, or 1.3 per cent, show the same price as the average for the base period, and 34 articles, or 14.9 per cent, show a decrease in price in 1907 as compared with the average price for the base period.

Of the 258 commodities considered in the compilation of prices for 1907, the average price for 172 commodities was higher in 1907 than in 1906, the average price of 35 was the same in 1907 as in 1906, and the average price of 51 was lower in 1907 than in 1906.

The following table shows the relative prices of certain related articles, so grouped as to render easy a comparison of the course of these prices during the years from 1890 to 1907:

RELATIVE PRICES OF CERTAIN GROUPS OF RELATED ARTICLES, 1890 TO 1907.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Cattle and cattle products.						Dairy products.		
	Cattle.	Beef, fresh.	Beef, hams.	Beef, mess.	Tallow.	Hides.	Milk.	Butter.	Cheese.
1890....	89.5	89.2	80.4	86.8	105.7	99.6	103.1	100.4	97.1
1891....	109.2	106.2	85.8	104.4	111.0	101.5	104.7	116.1	102.4
1892....	95.4	98.8	80.5	84.8	106.4	92.8	105.1	116.4	107.2
1893....	103.0	105.4	98.6	102.2	125.1	79.9	109.4	121.3	109.0
1894....	96.3	97.0	101.5	101.0	110.3	68.4	103.1	102.2	107.4
1895....	103.7	102.7	95.9	101.4	99.8	109.7	99.2	94.5	94.1
1896....	88.3	90.5	88.1	93.7	78.9	86.6	91.8	82.3	92.0
1897....	99.5	99.7	125.1	95.7	76.3	106.3	92.2	84.1	98.1
1898....	102.2	101.3	118.8	114.2	81.8	122.8	93.7	86.8	83.3
1899....	113.2	108.3	125.6	115.9	104.1	131.8	99.2	95.8	108.9
1900....	111.3	104.3	114.2	121.7	111.5	127.4	107.5	101.7	114.3
1901....	116.6	102.1	112.6	116.3	119.1	132.0	102.7	97.7	102.4
1902....	139.5	125.9	118.0	147.1	144.6	142.8	112.9	112.1	114.1
1903....	105.8	101.7	117.2	113.1	117.2	124.8	112.9	105.7	123.3
1904....	110.9	106.1	123.5	109.4	105.5	124.4	107.8	98.4	103.2
1905....	111.2	104.0	121.6	125.0	103.2	152.6	113.3	112.8	122.8
1906....	114.2	101.2	119.2	110.3	119.3	164.7	118.0	113.1	133.0
1907....	122.0	114.7	144.0	122.5	142.8	155.3	131.4	128.5	143.3

Year.	Hogs and hog products.					Sheep and sheep products.		
	Hogs.	Bacon.	Hams, smoked.	Mess pork.	Lard.	Sheep.	Mutton.	Wool.
1890....	89.2	89.3	101.1	104.4	96.8	119.3	123.7	132.1
1891....	99.2	103.7	99.8	97.2	100.9	117.8	114.9	125.8
1892....	115.7	116.6	109.3	99.1	117.9	125.2	121.2	113.2
1893....	148.6	154.7	126.9	157.6	157.5	103.8	106.5	101.6
1894....	112.2	111.8	103.6	121.4	118.2	73.6	80.2	79.1
1895....	96.6	96.3	96.2	101.7	99.8	78.4	82.2	70.1
1896....	78.3	73.1	95.8	76.8	71.7	78.7	82.9	70.6
1897....	82.8	79.9	90.9	76.6	67.4	94.2	96.6	88.7
1898....	85.6	89.4	82.0	84.8	84.4	104.9	98.0	108.3
1899....	91.8	85.8	93.8	80.3	85.0	104.3	94.3	110.8
1900....	115.5	111.5	104.2	107.5	105.5	112.0	96.4	117.7
1901....	134.5	132.3	109.2	134.2	135.3	92.0	89.5	96.6
1902....	155.2	159.3	123.1	154.2	161.9	103.2	97.9	100.8
1903....	137.2	142.6	129.2	143.1	134.1	98.4	98.7	110.3
1904....	116.7	115.1	108.9	120.6	111.8	109.1	103.2	115.5
1905....	120.2	119.0	106.3	123.9	113.9	131.5	113.9	127.3
1906....	142.2	139.9	125.5	150.5	135.6	132.6	120.7	121.1
1907....	139.2	140.7	132.4	151.0	140.7	126.9	116.0	121.5

Year.	Corn, etc.			Flaxseed, etc.		Rye and rye flour.		Wheat and wheat flour.		Flour, etc.		
	Corn.	Glu- cose, ^a	Meal.	Flax- seed.	Linseed oil.	Rye.	Rye flour.	Wheat	Wheat flour.	Wheat flour.	Crack- ers.	Loaf bread.
1890....	103.8	100.8	125.5	135.8	103.0	101.4	118.9	120.9	120.9	107.7	100.9
1891....	151.0	142.0	97.1	105.8	157.6	148.3	128.1	125.6	125.6	107.7	100.9
1892....	118.3	114.0	91.4	90.0	127.7	121.1	104.9	104.2	104.2	104.3	100.9
1893....	104.2	124.3	105.8	97.7	102.2	92.6	93.0	90.1	89.3	89.3	100.6	100.9
1894....	113.7	111.4	105.6	121.6	115.6	88.1	83.8	74.4	77.6	77.6	98.8	100.9
1895....	104.0	109.2	103.3	111.8	115.6	91.2	94.5	79.9	84.4	84.4	95.6	98.7
1896....	67.8	81.7	77.4	72.9	81.2	66.5	80.9	85.4	91.2	91.2	94.1	94.5
1897....	60.9	86.0	76.5	78.1	72.2	74.9	84.6	105.8	110.1	110.1	85.3	100.9
1898....	82.6	91.8	83.7	99.8	86.5	93.8	92.9	117.8	109.0	109.0	107.3	100.9
1899....	87.6	95.6	91.2	104.0	94.1	104.4	99.4	94.7	87.9	87.9	100.1	100.9
1900....	100.2	104.9	97.0	145.7	138.7	97.9	103.3	93.7	88.3	88.3	102.7	101.9
1901....	130.6	116.0	115.5	145.8	140.0	100.8	100.1	95.7	87.4	87.4	108.2	100.9
1902....	156.9	153.6	148.2	135.0	130.8	102.5	103.8	98.7	89.7	89.7	108.2	100.9
1903....	121.1	129.7	124.7	94.1	91.9	97.5	94.9	105.1	97.1	97.1	101.3	100.9
1904....	132.6	126.3	129.5	96.6	91.7	133.4	131.1	138.3	125.4	125.4	103.4	106.0
1905....	131.7	125.1	128.4	107.6	103.1	134.5	134.7	134.5	122.3	122.3	113.8	110.9
1906....	121.8	142.9	122.5	99.1	89.3	115.5	115.9	105.6	96.8	96.8	112.1	110.9
1907....	138.8	139.4	131.5	106.1	95.7	145.4	138.7	139.8	108.6	108.6	112.1	110.9

^a Average for 1893-1899=100.

WHOLESALE PRICES, 1890 TO 1907.

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RELATIVE PRICES OF CERTAIN GROUPS OF RELATED ARTICLES, 1890 TO 1907—Concluded.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Cotton and cotton goods.									
	Cotton: upland, mid- dling.	Bags: 2-bushel, Amos- keag.	Calico.	Cotton flannels.	Cotton thread.	Cotton yarns.	Denims.	Drill- ings.	Ging- hams.	Ho- siery.
1890....	142.9	113.9	117.5	121.8	101.6	111.7	112.5	121.1	119.1	129.7
1891....	110.8	111.7	104.0	121.8	100.7	112.8	109.6	114.6	122.1	122.8
1892....	99.0	110.8	117.5	115.9	100.7	117.0	109.6	102.2	122.1	117.4
1893....	107.2	106.8	113.0	101.4	100.7	110.5	112.5	105.6	114.9	109.4
1894....	90.2	91.1	96.5	95.7	100.7	93.0	105.4	97.1	89.5	100.8
1895....	94.0	82.2	94.9	91.7	100.7	92.1	94.6	93.2	87.0	94.4
1896....	102.0	91.6	94.9	93.9	99.6	93.0	94.6	100.2	88.0	90.5
1897....	92.2	92.9	90.4	88.6	98.4	90.6	89.2	90.4	84.2	86.7
1898....	76.9	95.6	81.4	81.0	98.4	90.8	85.9	86.8	85.1	83.4
1899....	84.7	103.4	87.3	88.0	98.4	88.5	85.8	88.5	89.7	82.5
1900....	123.8	112.6	94.9	101.6	120.1	115.5	102.8	105.0	96.3	87.3
1901....	111.1	101.0	90.4	95.4	120.1	98.3	100.2	102.2	92.3	85.9
1902....	115.1	102.4	90.4	96.1	120.1	94.0	100.6	102.0	99.2	85.2
1903....	144.7	104.2	91.1	106.8	120.1	112.9	108.0	109.9	101.8	90.1
1904....	155.9	128.4	95.7	125.6	120.1	119.5	116.6	126.7	99.9	89.2
1905....	123.1	109.6	93.5	119.7	120.1	105.7	103.7	123.8	93.4	87.5
1906....	142.0	129.1	99.5	128.2	120.1	120.8	118.1	138.8	104.7	89.7
1907....	153.0	138.5	121.0	139.5	134.8	133.9	132.3	147.2	122.0	97.4

Year.	Cotton and cotton goods.				Wool and woolen goods.					
	Print cloths.	Sheet-ings.	Shirts-ings.	Tieck-ings.	Wool.	Blan- kets (all wool).	Broad- cloths.	Carpets.	Flan- nels.	Horse blan- kets.
1890....	117.7	117.6	112.9	113.1	132.1	108.3	113.7	105.3	116.8	109.1
1891....	103.5	112.3	110.2	110.7	125.8	106.0	113.7	112.8	116.8	104.7
1892....	119.3	103.8	107.4	108.4	113.2	107.1	113.7	104.5	115.9	109.1
1893....	114.6	107.7	110.2	111.3	101.6	107.1	113.7	104.5	109.5	104.7
1894....	96.8	95.9	99.9	102.2	79.1	101.2	91.2	98.7	94.1	96.0
1895....	100.9	94.6	97.6	94.8	70.1	89.3	79.7	91.0	81.7	92.5
1896....	90.9	97.4	97.9	96.0	70.6	89.3	79.7	90.2	85.4	90.8
1897....	87.6	91.8	92.0	91.9	88.7	89.3	98.2	93.5	82.6	99.5
1898....	72.6	86.7	83.8	84.3	108.3	107.1	98.2	100.2	97.8	99.5
1899....	96.3	92.2	87.8	87.0	110.8	95.2	98.2	99.4	99.5	94.2
1900....	108.6	105.9	100.4	102.2	117.7	107.1	108.0	102.7	108.7	118.7
1901....	99.3	101.8	98.9	95.5	96.6	101.2	110.3	101.9	100.8	109.9
1902....	108.9	101.4	98.8	99.0	100.8	101.2	110.3	102.5	105.8	109.9
1903....	113.3	110.6	103.2	104.1	110.3	110.1	110.3	108.6	114.3	117.8
1904....	117.3	121.1	104.7	114.3	115.5	110.1	110.5	110.0	117.6	122.2
1905....	110.0	113.5	101.2	102.1	127.3	119.0	115.2	115.7	118.4	130.9
1906....	137.7	122.4	111.1	119.0	121.1	122.0	116.6	117.7	122.4	135.3
1907....	167.4	132.2	137.4	129.4	121.5	119.0	116.6	123.2	123.1	130.9

Year.	Wool and woolen goods.						Hides, leather, and boots and shoes.			Petroleum.	
	Over- coat- ings (all wool).	Shawls.	Suit- ings.	Under- wear (all wool).	Women's dress goods (all wool).	Worst- ed yarns.	Hides.	Leather.	Boots and shoes.	Crude.	Re- fined.
1890....	111.9	107.0	113.1	106.2	117.6	122.3	99.6	100.6	104.8	95.4	112.4
1891....	111.9	107.0	113.1	110.0	123.0	123.4	101.5	100.9	103.5	73.6	102.2
1892....	111.9	107.0	113.4	110.0	124.1	117.2	92.8	97.0	102.7	61.1	91.5
1893....	108.6	107.0	112.7	110.0	114.7	109.5	79.9	96.9	100.9	70.3	81.0
1894....	97.5	107.0	98.3	92.7	90.6	91.3	68.4	91.5	99.4	92.2	80.5
1895....	90.8	107.0	89.2	92.7	82.7	74.0	109.7	108.0	98.7	149.2	106.6
1896....	86.7	89.1	87.8	92.7	74.1	72.0	86.6	95.2	99.6	129.5	112.5
1897....	87.8	80.5	88.7	92.7	82.2	82.5	106.3	90.1	97.2	86.5	96.6
1898....	97.1	90.2	103.4	92.7	88.5	100.5	122.8	104.4	96.3	100.2	99.5
1899....	100.6	89.1	106.1	100.4	102.7	106.7	131.8	109.3	96.8	142.1	118.0
1900....	116.1	107.0	115.8	100.4	118.7	118.4	127.4	113.2	99.4	148.5	132.6
1901....	105.3	107.0	104.9	100.4	107.9	102.2	132.0	110.8	99.2	132.9	119.3
1902....	105.3	107.0	105.8	100.4	109.8	111.7	142.8	112.7	98.9	135.9	118.8
1903....	110.2	107.0	109.0	100.4	114.4	118.0	124.8	112.0	100.2	174.5	142.8
1904....	110.3	107.0	109.0	100.4	115.6	116.5	124.4	108.5	101.1	178.8	140.5
1905....	118.2	117.5	122.7	100.4	129.7	124.7	152.6	112.1	107.4	152.1	126.6
1906....	126.1	128.5	134.8	115.8	134.1	128.5	164.7	120.4	121.8	175.5	131.8
1907....	124.8	107.0	133.1	115.8	130.9	127.9	155.3	124.0	125.9	190.5	139.1

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table shows for all of the 6 articles grouped under cattle and products (cattle, fresh beef, beef hams, mess beef, tallow, and lard) an advance in price in 1891, but not in the same degree; in 1892, a decline in all of the articles in this group; in 1893, an increase for all, except for hides, for which there was a further decline; in 1894, a decline, except for beef hams, which increased; in 1895, an increase, except for beef hams and tallow; in 1896, a decline in all of the articles; in 1897, an increase, except for tallow; in 1898, an increase for all of the articles, except beef hams; in 1899, an increase for all; in 1900, a decline, except for mess beef and tallow; in 1901, an increase for cattle, tallow, and hides, and a decline for fresh beef, beef hams, and mess beef; in 1902, an increase for all; in 1903, a decrease for all; in 1904, an increase for cattle, fresh beef, and hams, and a decrease for mess beef, tallow, and hides; in 1905, an increase for cattle, mess beef, and hides, and a decrease for fresh beef, beef hams, and tallow; in 1906, an increase for cattle, hides, and tallow, and a decrease for fresh beef, beef hams, and mess beef; in 1907, an increase for all except hides, which decreased.

For the 18 years from 1890 to 1907 the lowest relative price for cattle was 88.3 in 1896, the highest 139.5 in 1902; the lowest for fresh beef 89.2 in 1890, the highest 125.9 in 1902; the lowest for beef hams 80.4 in 1890, the highest 144 in 1907; the lowest for mess beef 84.8 in 1892, the highest 147.1 in 1902; the lowest for tallow 76.3 in 1897, the highest 144.6 in 1902; **the lowest for hides 68.4 in 1894, the highest 164.7 in 1906.** The facts for the other groups may be seen by reference to the table.

General Tables I, II, III, IV, and V follow.

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907.

[For explanation and discussion of this table, see pages 306 to 325.]

FARM PRODUCTS.

BARLEY: Choice to fancy malting, by sample.

[Price per bushel, in Chicago, weekly range; quotations furnished by the secretary of the Chicago Board of Trade.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.51-\$0.55 .51-.55 .53-.57 .55-.57 .55-.58 .57-.60 .59-.61 .60-.63	Apr....	\$0.67-\$0.70 .69-.71 .70-.73 .71-.74 .73-.75 .74-.80 .81-.85 .77-.84 .72-.78	July ...	\$0.73-\$0.75 .63-.66 .63 .61-.65 .61-.65 .65-.69 .67-.70 .68-.75 .74-.87	Oct.....	\$1.00-\$1.05 1.01-1.08 1.05-1.10 .88-1.08 .75-.92 .78-.95 .85-.90 .85-.90 .86-.90
Feb.....	.62-.65 .65-.73 .73-.75 .68-.73 .68-.72	May72-.76 .75-.76 .74-.75 .73-.75	Aug....	.83-.90 .89-.94 .89-.94 .91-1.00	Nov.....	.95-.98 .97-1.02 .97-.98 .94-.95
Mar.....		June...		Sept...		Dec.....	
						Average.	\$0.7663

CATTLE: Steers, choice to fancy.

[Price per hundred pounds, in Chicago, on Wednesday of each week; quotations from the Chicago Daily Drovers' Journal.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$6.25-\$7.20 6.25-7.15 6.10-7.00 6.15-7.00	Apr....	\$6.10-\$6.75 6.05-6.75 6.10-6.75 6.05-6.65	July ...	\$6.75-\$7.25 6.80-7.30 6.75-7.25 6.70-7.35	Oct.....	\$6.40-\$7.30 6.15-7.20 6.30-7.40 6.15-6.90
Feb.....	6.30-7.00 6.30-7.25 6.10-7.00 6.10-6.90	May ...	5.85-6.40 5.90-6.50 5.75-6.50 5.75-6.50 6.00-6.50	Aug....	6.50-7.50 6.50-7.45 6.50-7.40 6.60-7.30	Nov.....	6.10-7.00 5.75-6.25 5.75-6.65 5.40-6.50
Mar.....	6.00-6.90 6.15-6.90 6.10-6.75 6.00-6.85 6.10-6.80	June...	6.55-6.70 6.50-6.90 6.00-7.00 6.60-7.10	Sept ...	6.35-7.25 6.40-7.35 6.00-7.05 6.35-7.25	Dec.....	5.70-6.35 5.35-6.00 5.45-6.30 5.40-6.15
						Average.	\$6.5442

CATTLE: Steers, good to choice.

[Price per hundred pounds, in Chicago, on Wednesday of each week; quotations from the Chicago Daily Drovers' Journal.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$5.10-\$6.15 5.40-6.10 5.35-6.00 5.40-6.10	Apr....	\$5.65-\$6.00 5.65-6.00 5.75-6.05 6.00-6.00	July ...	\$6.00-\$6.70 6.00-6.75 5.90-6.65 6.00-6.60	Oct.....	\$5.65-\$6.35 5.45-6.10 5.00-6.25 5.15-6.10
Feb.....	5.65-6.25 5.65-6.75 5.50-6.00 5.50-6.00	May ...	5.50-5.80 5.60-5.85 5.45-5.70 5.40-5.70 5.60-5.95	Aug....	5.90-6.60 5.75-6.45 5.85-6.45 5.85-6.45 6.00-6.50	Nov.....	5.20-6.15 5.15-6.00 5.00-5.65 5.00-5.70 4.90-5.25
Mar.....	5.40-5.90 5.60-6.10 5.50-6.00 5.35-5.90 5.55-6.00	June...	6.00-6.50 5.95-6.45 6.00-6.50 5.85-6.40	Sept ...	5.65-6.30 5.60-6.25 5.40-6.00 5.45-6.30	Dec.....	5.15-5.65 4.70-5.25 4.85-5.40 4.85-5.30
						Average.	\$5.8120

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

FARM PRODUCTS—Continued.

CORN: No. 2, cash.

[Price per bushel, in Chicago, on Tuesday of each week; quotations furnished by the secretary of the Chicago Board of Trade.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan....	\$0.39½-\$0.40	Apr....	\$0.44½-\$0.44	July....	\$0.54½	Oct....	\$0.62-\$0.62½
	.39½		.45½		.54½		.63½
	.40		.46½		.53½		.66½
	.42½		.47½		.53		.66
Feb....	.43	May....	.49	Aug....	.54	Nov....	.55½
	.43		.52½		.54		.56½
	.43		.56		.56½		.58
	.43		.54		.59½		.56½
Mar....	.44	June....	.54	Sept....	.61	Dec....	.58
	.44		.53		.62½		.58
	.44		.52½		.60½		.60½
	.44		.52		.62		.55½
							.59
							.59½
						Average.	\$0.5280

COTTON: Upland, middling.

[Price per pound, in New York, on Tuesday of each week; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Jan....	\$0.1075	Apr....	\$0.1090	July....	\$0.1150	Oct....	\$0.1180
	.1085		.1100		.1345		.1185
	.1080		.1115		.1285		.1175
	.1090		.1115		.1310		.1145
Feb....	.1100	May....	.1145	Aug....	.1290	Nov....	.1089
	.1105		.1175		.1325		.1110
	.1100		.1205		.1320		.1080
	.1105		.1225		.1355		.1140
Mar....	.1135	June....	.1290	Sept....	.1355	Dec....	.1170
	.1135		.1325		.1305		.1185
	.1100		.1295		.1225		.1190
	.1095		.1310		.1190		.1170
							.1180
						Average.	\$0.11879

FLAXSEED: No. 1.

[Price per bushel, in Chicago, on the first of each month; quotations furnished by the secretary of the Chicago Board of Trade.]

Jan....	\$1.11½-\$1.18	Apr....	\$1.13-\$1.20	July....	\$1.25-\$1.25½	Oct....	\$1.15-\$1.25
Feb....	1.16-1.23	May....	1.14-1.21	Aug....	1.14½-1.15	Nov....	1.08-1.18
Mar....	1.17-1.24	June....	1.31½-1.32	Sept....	1.13½-1.23	Dec....	.99½-1.10
						Average.	\$1.1898

HAY: Timothy, No. 1.

[Price per ton, in Chicago, on Tuesday of each week; quotations from the Daily Inter-Ocean.]

Jan....	\$15.50-\$16.50	Apr....	\$15.00-\$16.00	July....	\$18.50-\$19.00	Oct....	\$15.00-\$16.00
	15.00-16.00		15.00-16.00		17.50-18.50		15.00-16.50
	15.00-16.00		16.00-17.00		18.00-19.50		16.50-17.50
	14.50-15.50		16.50-17.50		17.50-19.00		18.00-19.00
Feb....	15.00-16.00	May....	17.00-18.00	Aug....	17.50-19.00	Nov....	16.00-17.00
	15.00-16.00		15.50-16.50		18.50-19.50		15.50-17.00
	16.00-17.00		17.00-18.00		18.50-19.50		14.50-15.50
	16.00-17.00		18.00-19.00		18.50-19.50		14.50-15.50
Mar....	16.00-17.00	June....	18.00-19.00	Sept....	18.50-19.50	Dec....	16.50-17.50
	16.00-17.00		19.00-20.50		17.50-18.50		16.20-17.50
	15.00-16.00		20.50-21.50		15.50-16.50		15.00-16.50
	15.00-16.00		18.50-20.00		15.00-15.50		14.00-15.50
							13.00-14.00
						Average.	\$16.3587

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.
FARM PRODUCTS—Continued.

HIDES: Green, salted, packers, heavy native steers.

[Average monthly price per pound, in Chicago; quotations from the Shoe and Leather Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.1627	Apr....	\$0.1441	July...	\$0.1472	Oct.....	\$0.1470	
Feb.....	.1620	May....	.1437	Aug....	.1411	Nov.....	.1364	
Mar.....	.1531	June...	.1483	Sept...	.1411	Dec.....	.1185	
							Average.	\$0.1455

HOGS: Heavy.

[Price per hundred pounds, in Chicago, on Tuesday of each week; quotations from the Daily Inter-Ocean.]

Jan.....	\$0.30-\$0.45 0.40-0.55 0.50-0.65 0.60-0.72½	Apr....	\$0.70-\$0.80 0.50-0.67½ 0.55-0.77½	July...	\$5.70-\$6.15 5.40-5.95 5.55-5.90	Oct.....	\$5.95-\$6.65 6.05-6.75 6.25-6.70	
Feb.....	0.80-0.95 0.85-7.05 7.05-7.20 6.90-7.07½ 7.09-7.12½	May....	0.55-0.70 0.40-0.57½ 6.30-0.47½ 6.30-0.50 6.30-0.50 6.05-0.20	Aug....	5.80-6.10 5.95-0.37½ 5.75-0.20 5.80-0.30 5.55-0.00 5.90-0.35	Nov....	5.35-6.00 5.00-5.50 4.75-5.15 4.00-4.30 4.80-5.15	
Mar.....	6.85-7.00 6.80-6.97½ 6.50-6.75 6.05-6.25	June...	6.15-6.30 6.05-0.20 6.00-6.22½ 5.75-5.97½	Sept...	5.00-0.05 5.80-0.30 5.75-0.20 5.85-0.40	Dec.....	4.45-4.90 4.20-4.55 4.45-4.90 4.50-4.85 4.45-4.65	
							Average.	\$6.0795

HOGS: Light.

[Price per hundred pounds, in Chicago, on Tuesday of each week; quotations from the Daily Inter-Ocean.]

Jan.....	\$0.30-\$0.45 0.35-0.55 0.45-0.65 0.55-0.72½	Apr....	\$0.65-\$0.82½ 0.55-0.70 0.65-0.80 0.60-0.75	July...	\$6.10-\$6.30 6.00-6.15 5.90-6.10 6.10-0.30	Oct.....	\$6.30-\$6.70 6.65-6.90 6.45-6.70 6.15-6.50	
Feb.....	0.80-0.95 0.85-7.02½ 7.00-7.20 6.80-7.05 6.90-7.10	May....	6.50-0.65 6.40-0.55 6.45-0.69 6.50-0.62½ 6.20-0.30	Aug....	6.40-6.65 6.15-0.40 6.40-0.65 6.05-0.30 6.35-6.65	Nov....	5.85-6.27½ 5.55-6.15 5.00-5.45 4.85-5.20 3.95-4.32½	
Mar.....	6.85-7.00 6.85-7.00 6.70-6.80 6.15-0.30	June...	6.25-0.35 6.17½-0.30 6.15-0.30 5.92½-6.12½	Sept...	6.05-6.55 6.25-6.60 6.25-6.60 6.35-6.60	Dec.....	4.85-5.15 4.25-4.65 4.55-4.85 4.50-4.80 4.30-4.65	
							Average.	\$6.2103

HOPS: New York State, choice.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Jan.....	\$0.21-\$0.21	Apr....	\$0.19-\$0.20	July...	\$0.15-\$0.16	Oct.....	\$0.12-\$0.14	
Feb.....	.21- .23	May....	.15- .16	Aug....	.15- .16	Nov....	.16- .18	
Mar.....	.21- .23	June...	.15- .16	Sept...	.14- .15	Dec.....	.16- .17	
							Average.	\$0.1738

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E I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

FARM PRODUCTS—Continued.

OATS: Contract grades, cash.

[Price per bushel, in Chicago, on Tuesday of each week; quotations furnished by the secretary of the Chicago Board of Trade.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.34	Apr....	\$0.41	July...	\$0.41	Oct.....	\$0.51
	.33		.42		.43		.52
	.34		.43		.43		.54
	.35		.43		.43		.54
	.35		.45		\$0.45		.45
Feb.....	.37	May...	.44	Aug...	.48	Nov....	.49
	.38		.45		(a)		.45
	\$0.38		.48		.40		.46
	.41		.47		.51		.46
Mar.....	.40	June...	.49	Sept...	.54	Dec....	(a)
	.40		.42		.52		.50
	.41		.44		.53		.50
	.41		.42		.51		.48
							.49
						Average.	\$0.4501

RYE: No. 2, cash.

[Price per bushel, in Chicago, on Tuesday of each week; quotations furnished by the secretary of the Chicago Board of Trade.]

Jan.....	\$0.62	Apr....	\$0.67-\$0.69	July...	\$0.84-\$0.85	Oct.....	\$0.96-\$0.98
	.60		.67-.69		.83-.85		.87-.88
	.62		.68-.70		.85-.87		.89-.90
	.62		.69-.71		.85-.87		.84-.86
	.63		.69-.71		.85-.87		.72-.74
Feb.....	\$0.65-.70	May...	.71-.74	Aug...	.76-.85	Nov....	.78
	.66-.69		.78-.81		.72-.75		.78-.80
	.64-.68		.80-.83		.75-.76		.79-.80
	.66-.68		.84-.85		.81		.75-.78
Mar.....	.64-.66	June...	.85-.87	Sept...	.85-.86	Dec....	.78-.80
	.68-.70		.86-.88		.86-.87		.76-.77
	.66-.69		.86-.88		.90-.90		.75-.79
	.67-.69		.86-.88		.90-.90		.79
						Average.	\$0.7688

SHEEP: Native.

[Price per hundred pounds, in Chicago, on Tuesday of each week; quotations from the Daily Inter-Ocean.]

Jan.....	\$4.00-\$6.00	Apr....	\$4.40-\$6.50	July...	\$4.25-\$5.85	Oct.....	\$4.25-\$5.50
	4.00-5.75		4.75-6.85		4.50-6.00		4.25-5.90
	4.00-6.00		5.00-7.25		4.50-6.10		4.00-5.75
	4.60-5.85		4.50-6.25		4.25-6.00		4.00-5.75
	4.00-5.85		4.50-6.15		4.00-5.70		2.75-5.25
Feb.....	4.00-6.00	May...	4.50-6.25	Aug...	4.50-6.00	Nov....	2.00-5.35
	4.25-6.00		4.50-6.10		4.25-6.00		1.50-5.00
	4.25-6.00		4.75-6.25		4.25-5.75		1.75-5.15
	4.25-6.00		4.75-6.50		4.25-5.50		1.75-5.00
Mar.....	4.25-6.25	June...	3.75-7.00	Sept...	4.25-6.75	Dec....	2.00-4.90
	4.25-6.25		4.50-6.75		4.25-5.85		2.00-4.75
	4.40-6.40		4.75-6.25		4.25-6.00		2.00-4.40
	4.40-6.50		4.50-6.25		4.25-5.65		1.75-4.60
							2.50-5.20
						Average.	\$4.8962

* No quotation for week.

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.
FARM PRODUCTS—Concluded.

SHEEP: Western.

[Price per hundred pounds, in Chicago, on Tuesday of each week; quotations from the Daily Inter-Ocean.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$4.00-\$6.00	Apr....	\$4.40-\$6.50	July...	\$4.25-\$5.85	Oct.....	\$4.25-\$5.85
	4.00-5.65		4.75-6.85		4.50-6.00		4.25-5.90
	4.00-5.80		5.00-7.35		4.50-6.10		4.00-5.75
	4.60-5.75		4.50-6.15		4.25-6.00		4.00-5.75
	4.00-5.75		4.50-6.15		4.00-5.70		2.75-5.25
Feb.....	4.00-5.75	May...	4.50-6.15	Aug...	4.50-6.00	Nov....	2.00-5.35
	4.25-5.75		4.50-6.10		4.25-6.00		1.50-5.00
	4.25-5.75		4.75-6.25		4.25-5.75		1.75-5.15
	4.25-6.00		4.75-6.50		4.25-5.75		1.75-5.00
Mar....	4.00-6.00	June...	3.75-7.00	Sept...	4.25-6.75	Dec.....	2.00-4.90
	4.25-6.15		4.50-6.75		4.25-5.85		2.00-4.75
	4.40-6.40		4.75-6.25		4.25-6.00		2.00-4.40
	4.40-6.50		4.50-6.25		4.25-5.65		1.75-4.60
							2.50-5.30
						Average.	\$4.8835

WHEAT: Regular grades, cash.

[Price per bushel, in Chicago, on Tuesday of each week; quotations furnished by the secretary of the Chicago Board of Trade.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.72-\$0.72½	Apr....	\$0.75-\$0.85	July...	\$0.94-\$1.04	Oct.....	\$0.94-\$1.10
	.71½-.71½		.75-.85		.91-1.02		1.00-1.15
	.72-.72½		.76-.85		.89-1.02		1.03-1.20
	.73½-.74½		.77-.86		.89-1.01		.97-1.15
	.74-.74½		.78-.86½		.89-1.02		.91-.95½
Feb.....	.73½-.85	May...	.82-.90	Aug...	.88-1.01	Nov....	.93-.95
	.75-.86		.91-1.01		.82-.96		.91-.93½
	.72½-.84		.96-1.04		.84-.97		.92½-.94½
	.74-.84½		.96-1.05		.90-1.05		.92½-.94½
Mar.....	.72-.84	June...	.92-1.02	Sept...	.91-1.07	Dec.....	.94-.95½
	.74-.85		.91-1.02½		.93-1.09		.92½-.93½
	.72½-.85		.89-1.02		.94-1.08		.95-.98½
	.73½-.84		.90-1.03		.95-1.09		.97-.98½
							.97½-.99½
						Average.	\$0.9073

FOOD, ETC.

BEANS: Medium, choice.

[Price per bushel, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$1.55	Apr....	\$1.45-\$1.47½	July...	\$1.70	Oct.....	\$2.30
Feb.....	1.50	May...	1.45	Aug...	1.65	Nov....	\$2.25-2.27½
Mar.....	1.50	June...	1.85	Sept...	\$1.80-1.82½	Dec.....	2.27½-2.30
						Average.	\$1.7771

BREAD: Crackers, Boston, butter, in boxes.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.09	Apr....	\$0.09	July...	\$0.09	Oct.....	\$0.09
Feb.....	.09	May...	.09	Aug...	.09	Nov....	.09
Mar.....	.09	June...	.09	Sept...	.09	Dec.....	.09
						Average.	\$0.09

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

FOOD, ETC.—Continued.

BREAD: Crackers, soda, N. B. C., in boxes.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Merchants' Review.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.06½	Apr....	\$0.06½	July...	\$0.06½	Oct.....	\$0.06½	
Feb.....	.06½	May...	.06½	Aug....	.06½	Nov.....	.06½	
Mar.....	.06½	June...	.06½	Sept...	.06½	Dec.....	.06½	
							Average.	\$0.0650

BREAD: Loaf, 1 pound after baking.

[Price per loaf, in Washington, D. C., on the first of each month. Weight before baking, 18 ounces. Price per pound (before baking), January to December, \$0.0376.]

Jan.....	\$0.04	Apr....	\$0.04	July....	\$0.04	Oct.....	\$0.04	
Feb.....	.04	May...	.04	Aug....	.04	Nov.....	.04	
Mar.....	.04	June...	.04	Sept...	.04	Dec.....	.04	
							Average.	\$0.04

BREAD: Loaf, homemade.

[Price per loaf, in New York, on the first of each month. Weight before baking, 17 ounces. Price per pound (before baking), January to December, \$0.0376. Standard weight and standard prices charged by the Bakers' Association, which includes leading bread manufacturers in New York and Brooklyn, and one or two in New Jersey who deliver bread in Manhattan.]

Jan.....	\$0.04	Apr....	\$0.04	July....	\$0.04	Oct.....	\$0.04	
Feb.....	.04	May...	.04	Aug....	.04	Nov.....	.04	
Mar.....	.04	June...	.04	Sept...	.04	Dec.....	.04	
							Average.	\$0.04

BREAD: Loaf, Vienna.

[Price per loaf, in New York, on the first of each month. Weight before baking, 16 ounces. Price per pound (before baking), January to December, \$0.04. Standard weight and standard prices charged by the Bakers' Association, which includes leading bread manufacturers in New York and Brooklyn, and one or two in New Jersey who deliver bread in Manhattan.]

Jan.....	\$0.04	Apr....	\$0.04	July....	\$0.04	Oct.....	\$0.04	
Feb.....	.04	May...	.04	Aug....	.04	Nov.....	.04	
Mar.....	.04	June...	.04	Sept...	.04	Dec.....	.04	
							Average.	\$0.04

BUTTER: Creamery, Elgin.

[Price per pound, in Elgin, Ill., on Monday of each week; quotations furnished by W. C. Willson, manager of the Elgin Dairy Report.]

Jan.....	\$0.32	Apr....	\$0.30	July....	\$0.24	Oct.....	\$0.30	
	.29		.30		.24½		.29½	
	.29½		.30		.25		.29	
	.32		.33		.25		.27	
Feb.....	.32	May...	.27	Aug....	.24	Nov.....	.24	
	.33		.25		.24		.27	
	.33		.24		.24		.27	
	.33		.23		.24		.27	
	.33		.23		.25		.27	
Mar.....	.32	June...	.26	Sept...	.26	Dec.....	.27	
	.31		.27		.27		.28	
	.30		.23		.26½		.28½	
	.30		.23½		.29		.29	
							.29	
							Average.	\$0.2761

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.
FOOD, ETC.—Continued.

BUTTER: Creamery, extra.

[Price per pound, in New York, on Tuesday of each week; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.33 \$0.32½-.33 .28-.28½ .30½-.31 .32½	Apr....	\$0.30½-\$0.31 .30½-.31 .30½-.31 .34½-.35 .27	July...	\$0.24½-\$0.25 .25½-.26 .25½-.26½ .25½-.26 .24½-.25	Oct.....	\$0.29½ .30 .28½ .28 .27
Feb.....	.32½-.33 .32½-.33 .33½-.34 .33½-.34 .33½-.34	May...	.24-.24½ .24½-.25 .24½-.25	Aug...	.24½ .24½ .25 .25	Nov.....	.24½ .28 .28 .28
Mar.....	.33½-.34 .31-.32 .29½-.30 .30½-.31	June...	.23½-.24 .23½-.24 .24½-.25	Sept...	.26½ .27 .27 .28½	Dec.....	.28 .29 \$0.28½-.29 .29-.29½ .29-.29½
						Average.	\$0.2850

BUTTER: Dairy, New York State, tubs and half tubs, fancy.

[Price per pound, in New York, on Tuesday of each week; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Jan.....	Price.	Apr....	Price.	July...	Price.	Oct.....	Price.
	\$0.27-\$0.29 .27-.29 .25-.26 .26-.28 .27-.29		\$0.23-\$0.29 .23-.29 .29-.30 .33 .26		\$0.23-\$0.23½ .24-.24½ .24½-.25 .24½-.25		\$0.28-\$0.28½ .28½-.29 .28 .27½-.28 .26½-.27
Feb.....	.27-.29 .28-.29 .31-.32 .31-.32	May...	.26-.26½ .23½-.24 .23½-.24	Aug...	.24 .24 .24	Nov....	.24-.24½ .27 .27
Mar.....	.31-.32 .29-.29 .23-.29	June...	.24 .23 .23	Sept...	.25-.25½ .26-.26½ .26½-.27 .27½-.28	Dec.....	.27 .27-.28 .27-.28 .27-.28 .27-.28
						Average.	\$0.2671

CHEESE: New York State, full cream, large, colored, best grades.

[Price per pound, in New York, on Tuesday of each week; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Jan.....	Price.	Apr....	Price.	July...	Price.	Oct.....	Price.
	\$0.14½ .14 .14 .14½ .14½		\$0.15 .15 .15 .15 .15		\$0.12½ .12½ .12½ .12½ .12½		\$0.14½ .15½ .16 .16½ .16½
Feb.....	.14½ .14½ .14½ .14½	May...	.15 .15 .12½ .12½	Aug...	.11½ .12 .12½ .12½	Nov....	.15 .15 .15 .15
Mar.....	.14½ .14½ .14½ .14½	June...	\$0.12-.12½ .12 .12 .11½ .11½	Sept...	.13 .13 .13 .13	Dec.....	.15½ .15½ .15½ .15½ .15½
						Average.	\$0.1414

COFFEE: Rio No. 7, Brazil grades.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Jan.....	Price.	Apr....	Price.	July...	Price.	Oct.....	Price.
	\$1.07½ \$0.06½-.07		\$0.07 .06½		\$0.06½-\$0.06½ .06½-.06½		\$0.06½-\$0.06½ .06 .06½
Feb.....	.07½	May...	.06½	Aug...	.06½	Nov....	.06½
Mar.....	.07½	June...	.06½	Sept...	.06½	Dec.....	.06½
						Average.	\$0.0658

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.
FOOD, ETC.—Continued.

EGGS: New-laid, fancy, near-by.

[Price per dozen, in New York, on Tuesday of each week; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.33-\$0.36	Apr....	\$0.18-\$0.19	July...	\$0.18-\$0.21	Oct.....	\$0.20-\$0.32
	.27-.30		.18-.19		.19-.21		.29-.36
	.31-.35		.19-.20		.20-.23		.29-.36
	.30-.34		.19-.20		.21-.25		.32-.40
	.28-.32		.19-.21		.22-.26		.32-.42
Feb.....	.29-.31	May....	.20-.21	Aug....	.23-.28	Nov....	.34-.45
	.27-.30		.18-.20		.23-.28		.38-.50
	.28-.32		.18-.19		.23-.28		.38-.50
	.28-.30		.18-.19		.24-.30		.38-.50
Mar.....	.20-.23	June....	.18-.19	Sept....	.24-.30	Dec.....	.38-.50
	.19-.22		.17-.19		.24-.30		.38-.50
	.19-.22		.18-.20		.25-.30		.43-.50
	.20-.22		.18-.20		.26-.32		.32-.40
							.27-.34
						Average.	\$0.2771

FISH: Cod, dry, bank, large.

[Price per quintal, in Boston, on the first of each month; quotations from the Boston Herald.]

Jan.....	\$8.00	Apr....	\$8.00	July...	\$8.00	Oct.....	\$7.25-\$7.50
Feb.....	8.00	May....	8.00	Aug....	\$7.25-7.50	Nov....	7.25-7.50
Mar.....	8.00	June....	8.00	Sept....	7.25-7.50	Dec.....	7.25-7.50
						Average.	\$7.7366

FISH: Herring, shore, round, large.

[Price per barrel, in Boston, on the first of each month; quotations from the Boston Globe.]

Jan.....	\$6.00	Apr....	\$6.00	July...	\$6.00	Oct.....	\$6.50
Feb.....	6.00	May....	6.00	Aug....	(a)	Nov....	6.50
Mar.....	6.00	June....	6.00	Sept....	(a)	Dec.....	6.50
						Average.	\$6.1500

FISH: Mackerel, salt, large No. 3s.

[Price per barrel, in Boston, on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$17.00	Apr....	\$12.00	July...	\$12.50	Oct.....	\$14.00
Feb.....	16.50	May....	12.00	Aug....	12.50	Nov....	14.50
Mar.....	16.00	June....	12.50	Sept....	13.00	Dec.....	14.50
						Average.	\$13.9167

FISH: Salmon, canned, Columbia River, 1-pound talls.

[Price per dozen cans, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Commercial.]

Jan.....	\$1.60-\$1.75	Apr....	\$1.60-\$1.75	July...	(a)	Oct.....	(a)
Feb.....	1.60-1.75	May....	1.60-1.75	Aug....	\$1.65	Nov....	(a)
Mar.....	1.60-1.75	June....	1.65	Sept....	(a)	Dec.....	(a)
						Average.	\$1.6679

(a) No quotation for month.

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

FOOD, ETC.—Continued.

FLOUR: Buckwheat.

[Price per hundred pounds, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$2.20-\$2.30	Apr....	\$2.10-\$2.20	July ...	(a)	Oct.....	\$3.60	
Feb.....	2.10- 2.25	May ...	(a)	Aug ...	(a)	Nov.....	\$3.15- 3.25	
Mar.....	2.00- 2.20	June...	(a)	Sept....	(a)	Dec.....	3.10- 3.15	
							Average.	\$2.5714

FLOUR: Rye.

[Price per barrel, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Jan.....	\$3.75-\$4.20	Apr....	\$3.60-\$4.10	July ...	\$4.75-\$5.40	Oct.....	\$5.00-\$5.35	
Feb.....	3.65- 4.20	May ...	3.65- 4.25	Aug ...	4.60- 5.25	Nov.....	4.90- 5.50	
Mar.....	3.65- 4.15	June...	4.85- 5.25	Sept....	4.50- 5.15	Dec.....	5.25- 5.50	
							Average.	\$4.9321

FLOUR: Wheat, spring patents.

[Price per barrel, in New York, on Tuesday of each week; quotations furnished by the statistician of the New York Produce Exchange.]

Jan.....	\$3.80-\$4.35	Apr....	\$3.90-\$4.40	July ...	\$4.80-\$5.35	Oct.....	\$5.25-\$5.75	
	3.80- 4.35		3.90- 4.40		5.00- 5.40		5.25- 5.75	
	3.80- 4.35		3.90- 4.40		5.00- 5.40		5.30- 6.00	
	3.80- 4.35		3.90- 4.40		4.85- 5.35		5.40- 5.75	
	3.85- 4.40		4.00- 4.50		4.85- 5.35		5.40- 5.75	
Feb.....	3.90- 4.50	May ...	4.15- 4.60	Aug ...	4.85- 5.40	Nov.....	5.10- 5.65	
	4.05- 4.60		4.45- 5.00		4.75- 5.25		5.20- 5.80	
	4.00- 4.50		4.75- 5.40		4.75- 5.25		5.20- 5.80	
	4.00- 4.45		4.80- 5.40		4.75- 5.25		5.10- 5.70	
Mar.....	3.90- 4.40	June...	4.80- 5.40	Sept....	4.85- 5.40	Dec.....	5.10- 5.70	
	3.90- 4.40		4.80- 5.40		5.00- 5.60		5.10- 5.65	
	3.90- 4.40		4.75- 5.30		5.00- 5.60		5.10- 5.65	
	3.90- 4.40		4.75- 5.30		5.20- 5.80		5.30- 5.85	
		5.30- 5.85	
							Average.	\$4.8755

FLOUR: Wheat, winter straights.

[Price per barrel, in New York, on Tuesday of each week; quotations furnished by the statistician of the New York Produce Exchange.]

Jan.....	\$3.15-\$3.45	Apr....	\$3.20-\$3.45	July ...	\$4.15-\$4.55	Oct.....	\$4.30-\$4.60	
	3.15- 3.45		3.20- 3.45		4.15- 4.55		4.35- 4.75	
	3.15- 3.45		3.20- 3.45		4.15- 4.55		4.55- 5.00	
	3.15- 3.45		3.20- 3.45		4.00- 4.40		4.40- 4.80	
	3.15- 3.50		3.25- 3.50		4.00- 4.40		4.40- 4.80	
Feb.....	3.20- 3.50	May ...	3.30- 3.55	Aug ...	3.90- 4.25	Nov.....	4.30- 4.75	
	3.20- 3.50		3.75- 4.00		3.90- 4.25		4.35- 4.80	
	3.20- 3.50		4.10- 4.40		3.90- 4.25		4.35- 4.80	
	3.20- 3.45		4.20- 4.50		3.90- 4.35		4.30- 4.75	
Mar.....	3.20- 3.45	June...	4.20- 4.50	Sept....	4.00- 4.30	Dec.....	4.30- 4.75	
	3.20- 3.45		4.20- 4.50		4.00- 4.40		4.25- 4.65	
	3.20- 3.45		4.00- 4.40		4.00- 4.40		4.25- 4.70	
	3.20- 3.45		4.00- 4.40		4.20- 4.60		4.35- 4.75	
		4.35- 4.75	
							Average.	\$3.9877

a No quotation for m

LETIN OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR,

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.
FOOD, ETC.—Continued.

FRUIT: Apples, evaporated, choice.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.08-\$0.08	Apr....	\$0.07	July....	\$0.08	Oct.....	\$0.09
Feb.....	.08-.08	May....	\$0.07-.07	Aug....	.08	Nov.....	\$0.09-.09
Mar.....	.08-.08	June....	.07-.07	Sept....	.09	Dec.....	.10
						Average.	\$0.0843

FRUIT: Apples, sun-dried.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.06	Apr....	\$0.06	July....	(*)	Oct.....	(*)
Feb.....	\$0.06-.07	May....	.06	Aug....	(*)	Nov.....	(*)
Mar.....	.06-.06	June....	.06	Sept....	(*)	Dec.....	\$0.07
						Average.	\$0.0638

FRUIT: Currants, Amalia's, in barrels.

[Price per barrel, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.07	Apr....	\$0.07-\$0.07	July....	\$0.07	Oct.....	\$0.06-\$0.07
Feb.....	\$0.07-.07	May....	.06-.07	Aug....	\$0.06-.07	Nov.....	.06-.07
Mar.....	.07-.07	June....	.06-.07	Sept....	.06-.06	Dec.....	.06-.06
						Average.	\$0.0703

FRUIT: Prunes, California, 00s to 70s, in 25-pound boxes.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.05-\$0.06	Apr....	\$0.05-\$0.05	July....	\$0.06-\$0.06	Oct.....	\$0.06-\$0.06
Feb.....	.05-.05	May....	.04-.05	Aug....	.06-.06	Nov.....	.06-.06
Mar.....	.05-.05	June....	.05-.06	Sept....	.06-.06	Dec.....	.06-.06
						Average.	\$0.0533

FRUIT: Raisins, California, London layer.

[Price per box, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$1.45-\$1.55	Apr....	\$1.50-\$1.60	July....	\$1.50-\$1.65	Oct.....	\$1.75-\$1.85
Feb.....	1.35-1.45	May....	1.50-1.65	Aug....	1.75-1.85	Nov.....	1.75-1.85
Mar.....	1.35-1.45	June....	1.50-1.65	Sept....	1.75-1.85	Dec.....	1.70-1.80
						Average.	\$1.6271

* No quotation for month.

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

FOOD, ETC.—Continued.

GLUCOSE.

[Price per hundred pounds, in New York, on the first of each month; from January to April the prices are for 41° and 43° mixing, and May to December for 42° mixing; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$2.11	Apr.....	\$2.11	July...	\$2.26-\$2.31	Oct.....	\$2.38	
Feb.....	2.11	May...	2.11	Aug...	2.26-2.31	Nov.....	2.48	
Mar.....	2.11	June...	\$2.25-2.31	Sept....	2.36-2.41	Dec.....	2.48	
							Average.	\$2.208

LARD: Prime, contract.

[Price per pound, in New York, on Tuesday of each week; quotations furnished by the statistician of the New York Produce Exchange.]

Jan.....	\$0.0830-\$0.0960	Apr....	\$0.0920-\$0.0945	July....	\$0.0880-\$0.0930	Oct.....	\$0.0910-\$0.0940	
	.0950-.0990		.0900-.0925		.0870-.0915		.0910-.0955	
	.0950-.0965		.0870-.0910		.0875-.0930		.0940-.0980	
	.0995-1.000		.0875-.0910		.0890-.0950		.0910-.0965	
	.1000-.1025		.0880-.0900		.0920-.0950		.0880-.0915	
Feb.....	.1000-.1030	May...	.0895-.0930	Aug....	.0905-.0940	Nov.....	.0840-.0900	
	.1010-.1030		.0935-.0965		.0900-.0940		.0875-.0915	
	.0980-.1010		.0940-.0965		.0885-.0930		.0865-.0900	
	.0980-.1000		.0910-.0945		.0905-.0950		.0775-.0840	
Mar.....	.0970-.0985	June...	.0915-.0950	Sept....	.0900-.0945	Dec.....	.0845-.0875	
	.0930-.0970		.0870-.0920		.0900-.0945		.0830-.0860	
	.0905-.0960		.0870-.0920		.0895-.0945		.0830-.0850	
	.0885-.0935		.0865-.0920		.0905-.0950		.0810-.0825	
							Average.	\$0.0920

MEAL: Corn, fine white.

[Price per bag of 100 pounds, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Jan.....	\$1.30	Apr....	\$1.30	July...	\$1.35	Oct.....	\$1.55-\$1.62½	
Feb.....	1.30	May...	\$1.25-1.27½	Aug...	\$1.25-1.35	Nov.....	1.53-1.55	
Mar.....	1.30	June...	1.30-1.35	Sept...	1.40	Dec.....	1.30-1.35	
							Average.	\$1.3575

MEAL: Corn, fine yellow.

[Price per 100 pounds, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Jan.....	\$1.30	Apr....	\$1.30	July...	\$1.35	Oct.....	\$1.55-\$1.62½	
Feb.....	1.30	May...	\$1.25-1.27½	Aug...	\$1.25-1.35	Nov.....	1.53-1.55	
Mar.....	1.30	June...	1.30-1.35	Sept...	1.40	Dec.....	1.30-1.35	
							Average.	\$1.3575

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.
FOOD, ETC.—Continued.

FRUIT: Apples, evaporated, choice.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.08½-0.08½	Apr....	\$0.07	July...	\$0.08	Oct.....	\$0.08½
Feb.....	.08½-.08½	May....	\$0.07- .07½	Aug....	.08½	Nov.....	\$0.09½-.09½
Mar....	.08- .08½	June...	.07- .07½	Sept...	.09	Dec.....	.10
						Average.	\$0.0843

FRUIT: Apples, sun-dried.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.06½	Apr....	\$0.06	July...	(a)	Oct.....	(a)
Feb.....	\$0.06- .07	May....	.06	Aug....	(a)	Nov.....	(a)
Mar....	.06- .06½	June...	.06	Sept...	(a)	Dec.....	\$0.07
						Average.	\$0.0638

FRUIT: Currants, Amalia's, in barrels.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.07	Apr....	\$0.07-0.07½	July...	\$0.07	Oct.....	\$0.06½-0.07
Feb.....	\$0.07- .07	May....	.06½- .07	Aug....	\$0.06½- .07	Nov.....	.06½- .07
Mar....	.07- .07	June...	.06½- .07	Sept...	.06½- .06½	Dec.....	.06½- .06½
						Average.	\$0.0703

FRUIT: Prunes, California, 00s to 70s, in 25-pound boxes.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.05½-0.06	Apr....	\$0.05½-0.05½	July...	\$0.06-0.06½	Oct.....	\$0.06½-0.06½
Feb.....	.05½- .05½	May....	.04½- .05½	Aug....	.06- .06½	Nov.....	.06½- .06½
Mar....	.05½- .05½	June...	.05- .06	Sept...	.06½- .06½	Dec.....	.06½- .06½
						Average.	\$0.0593

FRUIT: Raisins, California, London layer.

[Price per box, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$1.45-1.55	Apr....	\$1.50-1.60	July...	\$1.50-1.65	Oct.....	\$1.75-1.85
Feb.....	1.35-1.45	May....	1.50-1.65	Aug....	1.75-1.85	Nov.....	1.75-1.85
Mar....	1.35-1.45	June...	1.50-1.65	Sept...	1.75-1.85	Dec.....	1.70-1.80
						Average.	\$1.6271

a No quotation for month.

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

FOOD, ETC.—Continued.

GLUCOSE.

[Price per hundred pounds, in New York, on the first of each month; from January to April the prices are for 41° and 43° mixing, and May to December for 42° mixing; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$2.11	Apr....	\$2.11	July...	\$2.26-\$2.31	Oct.....	\$2.28
Feb.....	2.11	May...	2.11	Aug...	2.26- 2.31	Nov.....	2.48
Mar.....	2.11	June...	\$2.25- 2.31	Sept....	2.36- 2.41	Dec.....	2.48
						Average.	\$2.2688

LARD: Prime, contract.

[Price per pound, in New York, on Tuesday of each week; quotations furnished by the statistician of the New York Produce Exchange.]

Jan.....	\$0.0920-\$0.0960	Apr....	\$0.0920-\$0.0945	July...	\$0.0880-\$0.0930	Oct.....	\$0.0910-\$0.0940
	.0950- .0960		.0900- .0925		.0870- .0915		.0910- .0955
	.0950- .0985		.0870- .0910		.0875- .0930		.0940- .0980
	.0965- .1000		.0875- .0910		.0890- .0950		.0910- .0965
	.1000- .1025		.0880- .0900		.0920- .0950		.0880- .0915
Feb.....	.1000- .1030	May...	.0895- .0930	Aug....	.0905- .0940	Nov.....	.0840- .0900
	.1010- .1030		.0935- .0965		.0900- .0940		.0875- .0915
	.0980- .1010		.0940- .0965		.0885- .0930		.0865- .0900
	.0980- .1000		.0910- .0945		.0905- .0950		.0775- .0840
Mar.....	.0970- .0985	June...	.0915- .0950	Sept....	.0900- .0945	Dec.....	.0845- .0875
	.0930- .0970		.0870- .0920		.0900- .0945		.0830- .0860
	.0905- .0960		.0870- .0920		.0895- .0945		.0830- .0850
	.0885- .0935		.0865- .0920		.0905- .0950		.0810- .0825
							.0800- .0825
						Average.	\$0.0920

MEAL: Corn, fine white.

[Price per bag of 100 pounds, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Jan.....	\$1.30	Apr....	\$1.30	July...	\$1.35	Oct.....	\$1.55-\$1.62½
Feb.....	1.30	May...	\$1.25- 1.27½	Aug...	\$1.25- 1.35	Nov.....	1.53- 1.55
Mar.....	1.30	June...	1.30- 1.35	Sept....	1.40	Dec.....	1.30- 1.35
						Average.	\$1.3575

MEAL: Corn, fine yellow.

[Price per 100 pounds, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Jan.....	\$1.30	Apr....	\$1.30	July...	\$1.35	Oct.....	\$1.55-\$1.62½
Feb.....	1.30	May...	\$1.25- 1.27½	Aug...	\$1.25- 1.35	Nov.....	1.53- 1.55
Mar.....	1.30	June...	1.30- 1.35	Sept....	1.40	Dec.....	1.30- 1.35
						Average.	\$1.3575

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TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.
FOOD, ETC.—Continued.

MEAT: Bacon, short clear sides, smoked, loose.

[Price per pound, in Chicago, on Tuesday of each week; quotations from the Daily Trade Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan....	\$0.09-\$0.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.10 .09-.10	Apr....	\$0.09-\$0.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09	July...	\$0.09-\$0.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09	Oct....	\$0.09-\$0.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09
Feb....	.10-.10 .10-.10 .10-.10 .10-.10	May...	.09-.09 .09-.10 .09-.09 .09-.09	Aug...	.09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09	Nov....	.09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09
Mar....	.10-.10 .10-.10 .10-.10 .09-.09	June...	.09-.08 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09	Sept...	.09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09	Dec....	.08-.08 .08-.08 .08-.08 .08-.08
						Average.	\$0.0954

MEAT: Bacon, short rib sides, smoked, loose.

[Price per pound, in Chicago, on Tuesday of each week; quotations from the Daily Trade Bulletin.]

Jan....	\$0.09-\$0.09	Apr....	\$0.09-\$0.09	July...	\$0.09-\$0.09	Oct....	\$0.09-\$0.09
	.09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09		.09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09		.09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09		.09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09
Feb....	.09-.09 .10-.10 .09-.09 .09-.09	May...	.09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09	Aug...	.09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09	Nov....	.09-.09 .08-.09 .08-.09 .08-.09
Mar....	.09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09	June...	.09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09	Sept...	.09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09 .09-.09	Dec....	.08-.08 .08-.08 .08-.08 .07-.08
						Average.	\$0.0919

MEAT: Beef, fresh, native sides.

[Price per pound in New York, on Tuesday of each week; quotations from the New York Daily Tribune.]

Jan....	\$0.06-\$0.09	Apr....	\$0.07-\$0.09	July...	\$0.08-\$0.10	Oct....	\$0.08-\$0.10
	.07-.09 .07-.09 .07-.09 .07-.09 .07-.09		.07-.09 .07-.09 .07-.09 .07-.09 .07-.09		.09-.10 .09-.10 .09-.10 .08-.10 .08-.10		.08-.10 .08-.10 .08-.10 .08-.10 .08-.10
Feb....	.07-.09 .07-.09 .07-.09 .07-.09	May...	.07-.09 .08-.09 .08-.09 .08-.09	Aug...	.09-.11 .08-.10 .08-.10 .08-.10	Nov....	.08-.10 .08-.10 .08-.11 .08-.10
Mar....	.07-.09 .07-.09 .07-.09 .07-.09	June...	.08-.09 .08-.10 .08-.10 .08-.10	Sept...	.08-.10 .08-.10 .08-.10 .08-.10	Dec....	.08-.10 .07-.10 .07-.10 .07-.09
						Average.	\$0.0884

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

FOOD, ETC.—Continued.

MEAT: Beef, salt, extra mess.

[Average weekly price per barrel, in New York; quotations furnished by the statistician of the New York Produce Exchange.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$8.50 8.50 9.25 9.25	Apr... ..	\$9.75 9.75 9.75 9.75 9.75	July... ..	\$9.75 9.75 9.75 9.75 9.75	Oct.....	\$10.25 10.25 10.25 10.25 10.25 10.25 10.25 10.25
Feb.....	9.25 9.25 9.25 9.25	May... ..	9.75 9.75 9.75 9.75	Aug... ..	9.75 9.75 9.75 9.75	Nov.....	10.25 10.25 10.25 10.25 10.25
Mar... ..	9.75 9.75 9.75 9.75 9.75	June... ..	9.75 9.75 9.75 9.75	Sept... ..	9.75 9.75 10.25 10.25	Dec.....	10.25 10.75 10.75 10.75
						Average.	\$9.8173

MEAT: Beef, salt, hams, western.

[Price per barrel, in New York, on Tuesday of each week; quotations furnished by the statistician of the New York Produce Exchange.]

Jan.....	\$23.50-\$25.00 23.50-25.00 23.50-25.00 23.50-25.00 23.50-25.00	Apr....	\$24.00-\$26.00 24.00-26.00 24.00-26.00 24.00-26.00 24.00-26.00	July....	\$24.00-\$26.00 24.00-26.00 24.00-26.00 24.00-26.00 24.00-26.00	Oct.....	\$29.00 29.00 28.50 28.50 29.00
Feb.....	23.50-25.00 23.50-25.00 24.00-26.00 24.00-26.00	May... ..	24.00-26.00 24.00-26.00 24.00-26.00 24.00-26.00	Aug... ..	25.00-27.00 25.00-27.00 25.50-27.00 26.00-27.50	Nov.....	29.00 29.00 29.00 29.00
Mar.....	24.00-26.00 24.00-26.00 24.00-26.00 24.00-26.00	June... ..	24.00-26.00 24.00-26.00 24.00-26.00 24.00-26.00	Sept... ..	28.50 28.50 28.50 28.50	Dec.....	27.50 27.50 \$25.00-27.00 24.50-26.50 24.50-26.50
						Average.	\$26.0519

MEAT: Hams, smoked, loose.

[Price per pound on Tuesday of each week; quotations from the Daily Trade Bulletin.]

Jan.....	\$0.124-\$0.134 .13-.134 .124-.134 .124-.134 .13-.134	Apr....	\$0.131-\$0.134 .131-.134 .131-.134 .131-.134 .131-.134	July... ..	\$0.13-\$0.134 .13-.134 .13-.14 .13-.134 .13-.134	Oct.....	\$0.124-\$0.134 .124-.134 .124-.134 .124-.134 .124-.134
Feb.....	.131-.134 .131-.134 .131-.134 .131-.134	May... ..	.131-.134 .131-.14 .131-.14 .131-.14 .131-.14	Aug... ..	.131-.14 .13-.14 .13-.14 .122-.14	Nov.....	.124-.134 .12-.13 .114-.124 .104-.12
Mar.....	.131-.134 .131-.134 .131-.134 .131-.134	June... ..	.131-.14 .131-.134 .131-.134 .131-.134	Sept... ..	.124-.134 .124-.134 .124-.134 .124-.134	Dec.....	.104-.114 .104-.114 .104-.104 .094-.104 .094-.104
						Average.	\$0.1303

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TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

FOOD, ETC.—Continued.

MEAT: Mutton, dressed.

Price per pound, in New York, on Tuesday of each week; quotations from the New York Daily Tribune.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
	\$0.07-\$0.10	Apr....	\$0.08-\$0.10	July...	\$0.06-\$0.09	Oct.....	\$0.07-\$0.09
	.07-.10		.09-.11		.07-.09		.07-.09
	.07-.09		.09-.11		.07-.09		.07-.09
	.07-.09		.09-.11		.07-.09		.07-.09
	.07-.09	May...	.09-.11	Aug...	.07-.09	Nov....	.07-.09
	.07-.09		.09-.11		.07-.10		.07-.09
	.07-.09		.09-.12		.07-.10		.07-.10
	.07-.09	June...	.09-.12	Sept....	.07-.09	Dec....	.07-.09
	.07-.09		.09-.12		.07-.09		.06-.08
	.08-.10		.08-.10		.07-.09		.07-.09
	.08-.10		.08-.10		.07-.09		.06-.09
	.08-.10		.06-.09		.07-.09		.06-.09
	Average.	\$0.0875

MEAT: Pork, salt, mess, old to new.

Price per barrel, in New York, on Tuesday of each week; quotations furnished by the statistician of the New York Produce Exchange.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
	\$17.50-\$18.50	Apr....	\$17.50-\$18.25	July...	\$18.00-\$18.50	Oct.....	\$16.75-\$17.50
	17.50-18.50		17.50-18.25		18.00-18.50		16.75-17.50
	17.50-18.50		17.25-18.00		18.00-18.50		17.00-17.75
	17.50-18.50		17.25-18.00		18.00-18.50		17.00-17.75
Feb....	18.00-18.75	May...	17.25-18.00	Aug...	18.00-18.50	Nov....	16.25-17.25
	18.50-19.25		17.75-18.50		18.00-18.50		16.00-17.00
	18.50-19.25		17.75-18.50		17.75-18.25		16.00-16.75
	18.50-19.25	June...	17.75-18.50	Sept...	17.75-18.25	Dec....	15.50-16.00
Mar....	18.00-18.75		17.75-18.50		17.50-18.00		15.25-15.75
	18.00-18.75		17.75-18.50		17.50-18.00		15.00-15.75
	17.75-18.50		17.50-18.25		17.50-18.00		14.75-15.50
	17.50-18.25		17.75-18.50		17.50-18.00		14.50-15.25
	Average.	\$17.5684

MILK: Fresh.

[Average monthly exchange price per quart; net price at shipping stations subject to a freight rate to New York of 26 cents per can of 40 quarts; quotations from the Milk Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.0375	Apr....	\$0.0325	July...	\$0.0263	Oct.....	\$0.0400
Feb.....	.0350	May...	.0287	Aug...	.0309	Nov....	.0400
Mar.....	.0325	June...	.0250	Sept...	.0338	Dec....	.0400
						Average.	\$0.0335

MOULASSES: New Orleans, open kettle.

[Price per gallon, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.37-\$0.48	Apr....	\$0.37-\$0.38	July...	\$0.37-\$0.48	Oct.....	\$0.37-\$0.48
Feb.....	.37-.48	May...	.37-.38	Aug...	.37-.48	Nov....	.37-.48
Mar.....	.37-.38	June...	.37-.48	Sept...	.37-.48	Dec....	.34-.42
						Average.	\$0.4088

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TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

FOOD, ETC.—Continued.

STARCH: Pure corn, for culinary purposes.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Merchants' Review.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.06	Apr....	\$0.06	July...	\$0.06	Oct.....	\$0.06	
Feb.....	.06	May....	.06	Aug....	.06	Nov.....	.06	
Mar.....	.06	June...	.06	Sept...	.06	Dec.....	.06	
							Average.	\$0.0600

SUGAR: 89° fair, refining.

[Price per pound, in New York, on Thursday of each week, including import duty of 1.44 cents per pound; quotations from Willett & Gray's Weekly Statistical Sugar Trade Journal.]

Jan.....	\$0.0306	Apr....	\$0.0311	July...	\$0.0333	Oct.....	\$0.0345	
	.0306		.0323		.0333		.0345	
	.0300		.0326		.0333		.0340	
	.0298		.0323		.0344		.0340	
	.0298						.0340	
Feb.....	.0292	May....	.0326	Aug....	.0344	Nov.....	.0340	
	.0292		.0335		.0344		.0330	
	.0288		.0330		.0325		.0320	
	.0292		.0342		.0330		.0312	
			.0340		.0342			
Mar.....	.0301	June...	.0334	Sept...	.0342	Dec.....	.0312	
	.0300		.0323		.0345		.0335	
	.0301		.0321		.0345		.0335	
	.0308		.0337		.0345		.0335	
							Average.	\$0.03251

SUGAR: 96° centrifugal.

[Price per pound, in New York, on Thursday of each week, including import duty of 1.68 cents per pound; quotations from Willett & Gray's Weekly Statistical Sugar Trade Journal.]

Jan.....	\$0.0356	Apr....	\$0.0361	July...	\$0.0383	Oct.....	\$0.0385	
	.0356		.0373		.0383		.0386	
	.0350		.0376		.0383		.0390	
	.0348		.0373		.0394		.0390	
Feb.....	.0348	May....	.0376	Aug...	.0394	Nov.....	.0390	
	.0342		.0383		.0394		.0380	
	.0338		.0386		.0389		.0370	
	.0342		.0392		.0380		.0362	
			.0390		.0392			
Mar.....	.0351	June...	.0384	Sept...	.0392	Dec.....	.0362	
	.0350		.0373		.0395		.0385	
	.0351		.0371		.0395		.0385	
	.0358		.0387		.0395		.0385	
							Average.	\$0.03754

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

FOOD, ETC.—Continued.

SUGAR: Granulated, in barrels.

[Price per pound, in New York, on Thursday of each week, including import duty of 1.95 cents per pound; quotations from Willett & Gray's Weekly Statistical Sugar Trade Journal.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.0462	Apr....	\$0.0455	July...	\$0.0485	Oct.....	\$0.0654
	.0450		.0465		.0475		.0465
	.0462		.0465		.0475		.0465
	.0460		.0460		.0470		.0465
	.0465						.0465
Feb.....	.0450	May...	.0460	Aug...	.0465	Nov....	.0465
	.0455		.0470		.0465		.0460
	.0455		.0485		.0465		.0460
	.0455		.0485		.0465		.0460
			.0485		.0465		
Mar.....	.0455	June...	.0485	Sept...	.0465	Dec....	.0455
	.0455		.0485		.0465		.0455
	.0455		.0485		.0465		.0455
	.0455		.0485		.0465		.0455
						Average.	\$0.04651

TALLOW.

[Price per pound, in New York, on Tuesday of each week; quotations furnished by the statistician of the New York Produce Exchange.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.06½	Apr....	\$0.06½	July...	\$0.06½	Oct.....	\$0.06
	.06½		.06½		.06½		.06
	.06½		.06		.06½		.06
	.06½		.06		.06½		.06
	.06½		.05½		.06½		.06
Feb.....	.06½	May...	.06	Aug...	.06½	Nov....	.06
	.06½		.06½		.06½		.05½
	.06½		.06½		.06½		.05½
	.06½		.06½		.06½		.05½
	.06½		.06½		.06½		.05½
Mar....	.06½	June...	.06½	Sept...	.06½	Dec....	.05½
	.06½		.06½		.06½		.05½
	.06½		.06½		.06½		.05½
	.06½		.06½		.06½		.05½
						Average.	\$0.0621

TEA: Formosa, fine.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.22-\$0.24	Apr....	\$0.22-\$0.24	July...	\$0.22-\$0.24	Oct.....	\$0.22-\$0.24
Feb.....	.22-.24	May...	.22-.24	Aug...	.22-.24	Nov....	.22-.24
Mar....	.22-.24	June...	.22-.24	Sept...	.22-.24	Dec....	.22-.24
						Average.	\$0.2300

VEGETABLES, FRESH: Onions.

[Price per barrel, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$2.00-\$5.00	Apr....	\$1.50-\$3.00	July...	\$4.00	Oct.....	\$2.50-\$4.00
Feb.....	3.00- 6.00	May...	1.00- 5.00	Aug....	\$3.00- 3.25	Nov....	2.50- 3.75
Mar....	4.00- 7.00	June...	4.00	Sept...	2.00- 2.50	Dec....	2.50- 4.50
						Average.	\$3.5000

LETIN OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR.

TABLE 1.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

FOOD, ETC.—Concluded.

VEGETABLES, FRESH: Potatoes, white, good to fancy.

[Price per bushel, in Chicago, weekly range; quotations furnished by the secretary of the Chicago Board of Trade.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan....	\$0.36-\$0.43	Apr....	\$0.33-\$0.39	July...	\$0.30-\$0.50	Oct....	\$0.50-\$0.58
	.38-.43		.36-.43		.30-.35		.45-.56
	.36-.40		.40-.50		(e)		.60-.63
	.36-.42		.45-.61		(e)		.58-.62
Feb....	.37-.46	May...	.55-.62	Aug...	(e)	Nov....	.55-.58
	.40-.48		.55-.75		(e)		.56-.60
	.40-.45		.60-.75		(e)		.56-.58
	.40-.40		.57-.60		(e)		.47-.57
60-.70		(e)		.45-.50
Mar....	.41-.47	June...	.55-.65	Sept...	(e)	Dec....	.46-.55
	.41-.45		.55-.60		(e)		.48-.55
	.40-.45		.38-.53		(e)		.48-.55
	.40-.44		.36-.52		(e)		.51-.58
	.33-.42	
						Average.	\$0.4912

VINEGAR: Cider, Monarch, in barrels.

[Price per gallon, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Merchants' Review.]

Jan....	\$0.1700	Apr....	\$0.1700	July...	\$0.1700	Oct....	\$0.1700
Feb....	.1700	May...	.1700	Aug....	.1700	Nov....	.1900
Mar....	.1700	June...	.1700	Sept...	.1700	Dec....	.1800
						Average.	\$0.1725

CLOTHS AND CLOTHING.

BAGS: 2-bushel, Amoskeag.

[Price per bag on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan....	\$0.19½	Apr....	\$0.19½	July...	\$0.19½	Oct....	\$0.19½
Feb....	.18½	May...	.19½	Aug....	.19½	Nov....	.19½
Mar....	.18½	June...	.19½	Sept...	.21	Dec....	.19½
						Average.	\$0.1938

BLANKETS: 11-4, 5 pounds to the pair, all wool.

[Average price per pound.]

Year.	Price.
1907.....	\$1.00

BLANKETS: 11-1, 5 pounds to the pair, cotton warp, all wool filling.

[Average price per pound.]

1907.....	\$0.80
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BLANKETS: 11-4, 5 pounds to the pair, cotton warp, cotton and wool filling.

[Average price per pound.]

1907.....
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*No quot.

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

CLOTHS AND CLOTHING—Continued.

BOOTS AND SHOES: Men's brogans, split.

[Price per pair on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$1.30	Apr....	\$1.30	July...	\$1.27½	Oct.....	\$1.25
Feb.....	1.30	May...	1.30	Aug...	1.27½	Nov.....	1.22½
Mar.....	1.30	June...	1.30	Sept...	1.25	Dec.....	1.20
						Average.	\$1.2729

BOOTS AND SHOES: Men's split boots, russet-bound top, 17-inch, one-half double sole.

[Price per dozen pairs on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$26.50	Apr....	\$26.50	July...	\$26.50	Oct.....	\$26.00
Feb.....	26.50	May...	26.50	Aug...	26.00	Nov.....	25.50
Mar.....	26.50	June...	26.50	Sept...	26.00	Dec.....	25.00
						Average.	\$26.1667

BOOTS AND SHOES: Men's vici calf shoes, Blucher bal., vici calf top, single sole.

[Price per pair on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$2.80	Apr....	\$2.80	July...	\$2.80	Oct.....	\$2.80
Feb.....	2.80	May...	2.80	Aug...	2.80	Nov.....	2.80
Mar.....	2.80	June...	2.80	Sept...	2.80	Dec.....	2.80
						Average.	\$2.80

BOOTS AND SHOES: Men's vici kid shoes, Goodyear welt.

[Price per pair on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$2.50	Apr....	\$2.50	July...	\$2.50	Oct.....	\$2.50
Feb.....	2.50	May...	2.50	Aug...	2.50	Nov.....	2.50
Mar.....	2.50	June...	2.50	Sept...	2.50	Dec.....	2.50
						Average.	\$2.50

BOOTS AND SHOES: Women's solid grain shoes, leather, polish or polka.

[Price per pair on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$1.02½	Apr....	\$1.02½	July...	\$1.00	Oct.....	\$1.00
Feb.....	1.02½	May...	1.02½	Aug...	1.00	Nov.....	.97½
Mar.....	1.02½	June...	1.00	Sept...	1.00	Dec.....	.97½
						Average.	\$1.0063

BROADCLOTHS: First quality, black, 54-inch, made from XXX wool.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$2.02	Apr....	\$2.02	July...	\$2.02	Oct.....	\$2.02
Feb.....	2.02	May...	2.02	Aug...	2.02	Nov.....	2.02
Mar.....	2.02	June...	2.02	Sept...	2.02	Dec.....	2.02
						Average.	\$2.02

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.
CLOTHS AND CLOTHING—Continued.

CALICO: American standard prints, 64 x 64, 7 yards to the pound.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.0523	Apr....	\$0.0570	July...	\$0.0618	Oct.....	\$0.0665
Feb.....	.0523	May....	.0570	Aug....	.0618	Nov....	.0665
Mar.....	.0570	June...	.0570	Sept...	.0665	Dec.....	.0665
						Average.	\$0.0602

CARPETS: Brussels, 5-frame, Bigelow.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$1.2480	Apr....	\$1.2480	July...	\$1.2480	Oct.....	\$1.2480
Feb.....	1.2480	May....	1.2480	Aug....	1.2480	Nov....	1.2480
Mar.....	1.2480	June...	1.2480	Sept...	1.2480	Dec.....	1.2480
						Average.	\$1.2480

CARPETS: Ingrain, 2-ply, Lowell.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.5760	Apr....	\$0.5760	July...	\$0.5760	Oct.....	\$0.5760
Feb.....	.5760	May....	.5760	Aug....	.5760	Nov....	.5760
Mar.....	.5760	June...	.5760	Sept...	.5760	Dec.....	.5760
						Average.	\$0.5760

CARPETS: Wilton, 5-frame, Bigelow.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$2.2800	Apr....	\$2.2800	July...	\$2.2800	Oct.....	\$2.2800
Feb.....	2.2800	May....	2.2800	Aug....	2.2800	Nov....	2.2800
Mar.....	2.2800	June...	2.2800	Sept...	2.2800	Dec.....	2.2800
						Average.	\$2.2800

COTTON FLANNELS: 2½ yards to the pound.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.09½	Apr....	\$0.09½	July...	\$0.10½	Oct.....	\$0.10½
Feb.....	.09½	May....	.10	Aug....	.10½	Nov....	.10
Mar.....	.09½	June...	.10	Sept...	.10½	Dec.....	.10
						Average.	\$0.0988

COTTON FLANNELS: 3½ yards to the pound.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.07½	Apr....	\$0.07½	July...	\$0.08½	Oct.....	\$0.08½
Feb.....	.07½	May....	.08	Aug....	.08½	Nov....	.08
Mar.....	.07½	June...	.08	Sept...	.08½	Dec.....	.08
						Average.	\$0.0800

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.
CLOTHS AND CLOTHING—Continued.

COTTON THREAD: 6-cord, 200-yard spools, J. & P. Coats.

[Price per spool, freight paid, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.03724	Apr....	\$0.03724	July...	\$0.04508	Oct.....	\$0.04508
Feb.....	.03724	May....	.03724	Aug...	.04508	Nov....	.04508
Mar.....	.03724	June...	.04508	Sept...	.04508	Dec.....	.04508
						Average.	\$0.041813

COTTON YARNS: Carded, white, mule-spun, northern, cones, 10/1.

[Price per pound on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.22	Apr....	\$0.22	July...	\$0.23½	Oct.....	\$0.22
Feb.....	.22	May....	.22	Aug...	.23½	Nov....	.20
Mar.....	.21½	June...	.23	Sept...	.23	Dec.....	.20
						Average.	\$0.2204

COTTON YARNS: Carded, white, mule-spun, northern, cones, 22/1.

[Price per pound on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.25	Apr....	\$0.25	July...	\$0.27½	Oct.....	\$0.26
Feb.....	.25½	May....	.25	Aug...	.27½	Nov....	.24
Mar.....	.25½	June...	.26½	Sept...	.27	Dec.....	.24
						Average.	\$0.2571

DENIMS: Amoskeag.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.12½	Apr....	\$0.13	July...	\$0.14½	Oct.....	\$0.14½
Feb.....	.12½	May....	.13	Aug....	.14½	Nov....	.14½
Mar.....	.13	June...	.14	Sept...	.14½	Dec.....	.14½
						Average.	\$0.1381

DRILLINGS: Brown, Pepperell.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.08½	Apr....	\$0.08½	July...	\$0.08½	Oct.....	\$0.08½
Feb.....	.08½	May....	.08½	Aug...	.08½	Nov....	.08½
Mar.....	.08½	June...	.08½	Sept...	.08½	Dec.....	.08½
						Average.	\$0.0825

DRILLINGS: 30-inch, Stark A.

[Average monthly price per yard.]

Jan.....	\$0.0729	Apr....	\$0.0760	July...	\$0.0804	Oct.....	\$0.0782
Feb.....	.0768	May....	.0824	Aug...	.0742	Nov....	.0791
Mar.....	.0764	June...	.0787	Sept...	.0812	Dec.....	.0822
						Average.	\$0.0782

ULLETIN OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR,

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

CLOTHS AND CLOTHING—Continued.

FLANNELS: White, 4-4, Ballard Vale No. 3.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
..	\$0.4613	Apr....	\$0.4613	July...	\$0.4613	Oct.....	\$0.4627
..	.4623	May....	.4613	Aug...	.4623	Nov....	.4627
..	.4613	June...	.4613	Sept...	.4627	Dec.....	.4627
						Average.	\$0.4636

GENSHAWES: Amoskeog.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

...	\$0.66	Apr....	\$0.66	July...	\$0.67	Oct.....	\$0.67
...	.66	May....	.66	Aug...	.67	Nov....	.67
...	.66	June...	.66	Sept...	.67	Dec.....	.67
						Average.	\$0.6656

GENSHAWES: Lancaster.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

...	\$0.66	Apr....	\$0.66	July...	\$0.66	Oct.....	\$0.67
...	.66	May....	.66	Aug...	.66	Nov....	.67
...	.66	June...	.66	Sept...	.67	Dec.....	.67
						Average.	\$0.6690

HORSE BLANKETS: 6 pounds each, all wool.

[Average price per pound.]

Year.	Price.
1907.....	\$0.75

HOSIERY: Men's cotton half hose, seamless, fast black, 20 to 22 ounce, 160 needles, single thread.

[Price per dozen pairs in September. Represents bulk of sales.]

1907.....	\$0.7350
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HOSIERY: Men's cotton half hose, seamless, standard quality, 84 needles.

[Price per dozen pairs on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.75	Apr....	\$0.75	July...	\$0.75	Oct.....	\$0.75
Feb.....	.75	May....	.75	Aug...	.75	Nov....	.75
Mar.....	.75	June...	.75	Sept...	.75	Dec.....	.75
						Average.	\$0.75

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

CLOTHS AND CLOTHING—Continued.

HOSIERY: Women's combed Egyptian cotton hose, high spliced heel, double sole, full-fashioned.

[Price per dozen pairs maintained throughout the year.]

Year.	Price.
1907.....	\$2.02½

HOSIERY: Women's cotton hose, seamless, fast black, 26 to 28 ounce, 160 to 176 needles.

[Price per dozen pairs in September. Represents bulk of sales.]

1907.....	\$0.8330
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LEATHER: Harness, oak, packers' hides, heavy, No. 1.

[Price per pound on the first of each month in the general market; quotations from the Shoe and Leather Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.37-\$0.39	Apr....	\$0.37-\$0.39	July....	\$0.36-\$0.38	Oct.....	\$0.36-\$0.38	
Feb.....	.37- .39	May....	.37- .39	Aug....	.36- .38	Nov....	.36- .38	
Mar.....	.37- .39	June...	.36- .38	Sept....	.36- .38	Dec.....	.36- .37	
							Average.	\$0.3738

LEATHER: Sole, hemlock, Buenos Aires and Montana, middle weights, first quality.

[Price per pound on the first of each month in the general market; quotations from the Shoe and Leather Reporter.]

Jan.....	\$0.26-\$0.26½	Apr....	\$0.26-\$0.27	July....	\$0.26-\$0.27	Oct.....	\$0.26-\$0.27	
Feb.....	.26- .26½	May....	.26- .27	Aug....	.26- .27	Nov....	.26- .27	
Mar....	.26- .26½	June...	.26- .27	Sept....	.26- .27	Dec.....	.26- .27	
							Average.	\$0.2644

LEATHER: Sole, oak, scoured backs, heavy, No. 1.

[Price per pound on the first of each month in the general market; quotations from the Shoe and Leather Reporter.]

Jan.....	\$0.40-\$0.41	Apr....	\$0.37-\$0.38	July....	\$0.36-\$0.37	Oct.....	\$0.38-\$0.41	
Feb.....	.38- .39	May....	.37- .38	Aug....	.38	Nov....	.38- .40	
Mar.....	.37- .38	June...	.37- .38	Sept....	.38	Dec.....	.37- .40	
							Average.	\$0.3821

LEATHER: Wax calf, 30 to 40 pounds to the dozen, B grade.

[Price persquare foot on the first of each month in the general market; quotations from the Shoe and Leather Reporter.]

Jan.....	\$0.70-\$0.75	Apr....	\$0.75-\$0.80	July....	\$0.75-\$0.80	Oct.....	\$0.75-\$0.80	
Feb.....	.70- .75	May....	.75- .80	Aug....	.75- .80	Nov....	.75- .80	
Mar.....	.75- .80	June...	.75- .80	Sept....	.75- .80	Dec.....	.75- .80	
							Average.	\$0.7667

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

CLOTHS AND CLOTHING—Continued.

LINEN SHOE THREAD: 10s, Barbour.

[Price per pound on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.8930	Apr....	\$0.8930	July...	\$0.8930	Oct.....	\$0.8930	
Feb.....	.8930	May....	.8930	Aug....	.8930	Nov.....	.8930	
Mar.....	.8930	June...	.8930	Sept...	.8930	Dec.....	.8930	
							Average.	\$0.8930

LINEN THREAD: 3-cord, 200-yard spools, Barbour.

[Price per dozen spools on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.8835	Apr....	\$0.8835	July...	\$0.9300	Oct.....	\$0.9300	
Feb.....	.8835	May....	.9300	Aug....	.9300	Nov.....	.9300	
Mar.....	.8835	June...	.9300	Sept...	.9300	Dec.....	.9300	
							Average.	\$0.9145

OVERCOATINGS: Chinchilla, B-rough, all wool.

[Price per yard maintained generally throughout the year. Represents bulk of sales.]

Year.	Price.
1907.....	\$2.5375

OVERCOATINGS: Chinchilla, cotton warp, C. C. grade.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.49	Apr....	\$0.49½	July...	\$0.50½	Oct.....	\$0.50	
Feb.....	.49½	May....	.50	Aug....	.49	Nov.....	.48	
Mar.....	.49½	June...	.49	Sept...	.49	Dec.....	.46	
							Average.	\$0.4908

OVERCOATINGS: Covert cloth, light weight, staple goods.

[Price per yard maintained throughout the year.]

Year.	Price.
1907.....	\$2.2568

OVERCOATINGS: Kersey, standard, 27 to 28 ounce.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$1.97	Apr....	\$1.97½	July...	\$1.97½	Oct.....	\$1.97½	
Feb.....	1.97	May....	1.97½	Aug....	1.97	Nov.....	1.97	
Mar.....	1.97	June...	1.97½	Sept...	1.97½	Dec.....	1.97	
							Average.	\$1.9708

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

CLOTHS AND CLOTHING—Continued.

PRINT CLOTHS: 28-inch, 64 by 64.

[Average weekly price per yard.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.0400	Apr....	\$0.0450	July...	\$0.0500	Oct.....	\$0.0525
	.0400		.0450		.0500		.0525
	.0400		.0450		.0500		.0525
	.0400		.0450		.0512½		.0525
Feb.....	.0400	May...	.0450	Aug...	.0525	Nov....	.0525
	.0412½		.0450		.0525		.0525
	.0425		.0462½		.0525		a. 0525
	.0437½		.0462½		.0525		a. 0475
0525		a. 0475
Mar.....	.0450	June...	.0475	Sept...	.0525	Dec.....	a. 0450
	.0450		.0475		.0525		a. 0450
	.0450		.0487½		.0525		a. 0437½
	.0450		.0487½		.0525		a. 0425
	.0450		.0500	
						Average.	\$0.047512

SHAWLS: Standard, all wool (low grade), 72 by 144 inch, 40 to 42 ounce.

[Price per shawl on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$2.04	Apr....	\$2.04	July...	\$2.04	Oct.....	\$2.04
Feb.....	2.04	May...	2.04	Aug...	2.04	Nov....	2.04
Mar.....	2.04	June...	2.04	Sept...	2.04	Dec.....	2.04
						Average.	\$2.04

SHEETINGS: Bleached, 9-4, Atlantic.

[Average monthly price per yard.]

Jan.....	\$0.2096	Apr....	\$0.2190	July...	\$0.2174	Oct.....	\$0.2405
Feb.....	.2310	May...	.2174	Aug...	.2127	Nov....	.2789
Mar.....	.2187	June...	.2331	Sept...	.2126	Dec.....	.2779
						Average.	\$0.2315

SHEETINGS: Bleached, 10-4, Pepperell.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.26	Apr....	\$0.28	July...	\$0.30	Oct.....	\$0.30
Feb.....	.26	May...	.28	Aug...	.30	Nov....	.30
Mar.....	.28	June...	.30	Sept...	.30	Dec.....	.30
						Average.	\$0.2883

SHEETINGS: Bleached, 10-4, Wamsutta S. T.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.29	Apr....	\$0.31	July....	\$0.31	Oct.....	\$0.31
Feb.....	.29	May....	.31	Aug....	.31	Nov....	.31
Mar.....	.29	June...	.31	Sept...	.31	Dec.....	.31
						Average.	\$0.3050

a Nominal.

BULLETIN OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR.
TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.
CLOTHS AND CLOTHING—Continued.
SHEETINGS: Brown, 4-4, Atlantic A.

[Average monthly price per yard.]

Mo.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
	\$0.0751	Apr.....	\$0.0753	July....	\$0.0760	Oct.....	\$0.0780
	.0749	May.....	.0750	Aug....	.0772	Nov.....	.0805
	.0756	June....	.0787	Sept....	.0774	Dec.....	.0784
						Average.	\$0.0768

SHEETINGS: Brown, 4-4, Indian Head.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

	\$0.081	Apr.....	\$0.081	July....	\$0.081	Oct.....	\$0.081
	.081	May.....	.081	Aug....	.081	Nov.....	.081
	.081	June....	.081	Sept....	.081	Dec.....	.081
						Average.	\$0.0835

SHEETINGS: Brown, 4-4, Massachusetts Mills, Flying Horse brand, 2 1/2 yards to the pound.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

	\$0.071	Apr.....	\$0.071	July....	\$0.081	Oct.....	\$0.071
	.071	May.....	.071	Aug....	.081	Nov.....	.071
	.071	June....	.071	Sept....	.081	Dec.....	.071
						Average.	\$0.0777

SHEETINGS: Brown, 4-4, Pepperell R.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.071	Apr.....	\$0.071	July....	\$0.071	Oct.....	\$0.071
Feb.....	.071	May.....	.071	Aug....	.071	Nov.....	.071
Mar.....	.071	June....	.071	Sept....	.071	Dec.....	.071
						Average.	\$0.0746

SHIRTINGS: Bleached, 4-4, Fruit of the Loom.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.091	Apr.....	\$0.111	July....	\$0.111	Oct.....	\$0.121
Feb.....	.101	May.....	.111	Aug....	.111	Nov.....	.121
Mar.....	.101	June....	.111	Sept....	.121	Dec.....	.121
						Average.	\$0.1117

SHIRTINGS: Bleached, 4-4, Hope.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.0831	Apr.....	\$0.0855	July....	\$0.0974	Oct.....	\$0.0974
Feb.....	.0855	May.....	.0855	Aug....	.0974	Nov.....	.0974
Mar.....	.0855	June....	.0855	Sept....	.0974	Dec.....	.0879
						Average.	\$0.0906

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

CLOTHS AND CLOTHING—Continued.

SHIRTINGS: Bleached, 4-4, Lonsdale.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.09 ¹	Apr....	\$0.09 ¹	July...	\$0.11	Oct.....	\$0.11	
Feb.....	.09 ¹	May....	.09 ¹	Aug....	.11	Nov.....	.11	
Mar.....	.09 ¹	June...	.09 ¹	Sept...	.11	Dec.....	.10	
							Average.	\$0.1025

SHIRTINGS: Bleached, 4-4, Wamsutta ^{<O>}_{XX}.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.10 ¹	Apr....	\$0.10 ¹	July...	\$0.11 ¹	Oct.....	\$0.11 ¹	
Feb.....	.10 ¹	May....	.10 ¹	Aug....	.11 ¹	Nov.....	.11 ¹	
Mar.....	.10 ¹	June...	.10 ¹	Sept...	.11 ¹	Dec.....	.11 ¹	
							Average.	\$0.1100

SHIRTINGS: Bleached, 4-4, Williamsville, A1.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.10 ¹	Apr....	\$0.11 ¹	July...	\$0.12	Oct.....	\$0.12	
Feb.....	.10 ¹	May....	.11 ¹	Aug....	.12	Nov.....	.12	
Mar.....	.11 ¹	June...	.11 ¹	Sept...	.12	Dec.....	.12	
							Average.	\$0.1163

SILK: Raw, Italian, classical.

[Net cash price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the American Silk Journal.]

Jan.....	\$5.2965-\$5.3955	Apr....	\$5.6430-\$5.6925	July...	\$5.6925-\$5.8410	Oct.....	\$5.7915-\$5.8410	
Feb.....	5.1975- 5.2470	May....	5.8905- 5.9400	Aug....	5.5935	Nov.....	5.5935- 5.6430	
Mar.....	5.3460- 5.3955	June...	5.7915- 5.8410	Sept...	5.7915- 5.8410	Dec.....	4.9995- 5.0490	
							Average.	\$5.5812

SILK: Raw, Japan, flatures, No. 1.

[Net cash price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the American Silk Journal.]

Jan.....	\$5.0925-\$5.1410	Apr....	\$5.4320-\$5.5290	July...	\$4.9955-\$5.0925	Oct.....	\$4.8500-\$4.8985	
Feb.....	4.9955- 5.0440	May....	5.5775- 5.6260	Aug....	4.7530	Nov.....	4.7530- 4.8015	
Mar.....	5.1895- 5.2380	June...	5.2380- 5.3350	Sept...	5.2865- 5.3350	Dec.....	4.2195- 4.2680	
							Average.	\$5.0002

SUITINGS: Clay worsted diagonal, 12-ounce, Washington Mills.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$1.1700	Apr....	\$1.1700	July...	\$1.1700	Oct.....	\$1.1700	
Feb.....	1.1700	May....	1.1700	Aug....	1.1700	Nov.....	1.1700	
Mar.....	1.1700	June...	1.1700	Sept...	1.1700	Dec.....	1.1700	
							Average.	\$1.1700

¹Nominal.

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

CLOTHS AND CLOTHING—Continued.

SUITINGS: Clay worsted diagonal, 16-ounce, Washington Mills.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$1.4175	Apr....	\$1.4175	July...	\$1.3950	Oct.....	\$1.3950	
Feb.....	1.4175	May....	1.3950	Aug...	1.3950	Nov.....	1.3950	
Mar.....	1.4175	June...	1.3950	Sept...	1.3950	Dec.....	1.3950	
							Average.	\$1.4025

SUITINGS: Indigo blue, all wool, 54-inch, 14-ounce, Middlesex standard.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$1.7100	Apr....	\$1.7100	July...	\$1.7100	Oct.....	\$1.7100	
Feb.....	1.7100	May....	1.7100	Aug...	1.7100	Nov.....	1.7100	
Mar.....	1.7100	June...	1.7100	Sept...	1.7100	Dec.....	1.7100	
							Average.	\$1.7100

SUITINGS: Indigo blue, all wool, 16-ounce.

[Price per yard maintained generally throughout the year. Represents bulk of sales.]

Year.	Price.
1907.....	\$2.4180

SUITINGS: Serge, Washington Mills 6700.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$1.0575	Apr....	\$1.0575	July...	\$1.0125	Oct.....	\$1.0575	
Feb.....	1.0575	May....	1.0575	Aug...	1.0575	Nov.....	1.0575	
Mar.....	1.0575	June...	1.0125	Sept...	1.0575	Dec.....	1.0575	
							Average.	\$1.0500

TICKINGS: Amoskeag A. C. A.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.124	Apr....	\$0.13	July...	\$0.14	Oct.....	\$0.144	
Feb.....	.124	May....	.134	Aug...	.144	Nov.....	.144	
Mar.....	.13	June...	.134	Sept...	.144	Dec.....	.144	
							Average.	\$0.1373

TROUSERINGS: Fancy worsted, 21 to 22 ounce, all worsted wrap and billing, wool and worsted back.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$2.3625	Apr....	\$2.4750	July...	\$2.4750	Oct.....	\$2.4750	
Feb.....	2.3625	May....	2.4750	Aug...	2.4750	Nov.....	2.4750	
Mar.....	2.3625	June...	2.4750	Sept...	2.4750	Dec.....	2.4750	
							Average.	\$2.4469

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

CLOTHS AND CLOTHING—Continued.

UNDERWEAR: Shirts and drawers, white, all wool, full-fashioned, 18-gauge.

[Price per dozen garments on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$27.00	Apr....	\$27.00	July...	\$27.00	Oct.....	\$27.00
Feb.....	27.00	May...	27.00	Aug...	27.00	Nov.....	27.00
Mar.....	27.00	June...	27.00	Sept...	27.00	Dec.....	27.00
						Average.	\$27.00

UNDERWEAR: Shirts and drawers, white, merino, full-fashioned, 60 per cent wool, 40 per cent cotton, 24-gauge.

[Price per dozen garments on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$18.00	Apr....	\$18.00	July...	\$18.00	Oct.....	\$18.00
Feb.....	18.00	May...	18.00	Aug...	18.00	Nov.....	18.00
Mar.....	18.00	June...	18.00	Sept...	18.00	Dec.....	18.00
						Average.	\$18.00

WOMEN'S DRESS GOODS: Cashmere, all wool, 10-11 twill, 38-inch, Atlantic Mills J.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.3920	Apr....	\$0.3920	July...	\$0.3920	Oct.....	\$0.3920
Feb.....	.3920	May...	.3920	Aug...	.3920	Nov.....	.3920
Mar.....	.3920	June...	.3920	Sept...	.3920	Dec.....	.3920
						Average.	\$0.3920

WOMEN'S DRESS GOODS: Cashmere, cotton warp, 9-twill, 4-4, Atlantic Mills F.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.2205	Apr....	\$0.2205	July...	\$0.2254	Oct.....	\$0.2254
Feb.....	.2205	May...	.2205	Aug...	.2254	Nov.....	.2254
Mar.....	.2205	June...	.2254	Sept...	.2254	Dec.....	.2254
						Average.	\$0.2234

WOMEN'S DRESS GOODS: Cashmere, cotton warp, 36-inch, Hamilton.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.1960	Apr....	\$0.1960	July...	\$0.1960	Oct.....	\$0.1960
Feb.....	.1960	May...	.1960	Aug...	.1960	Nov.....	.1960
Mar.....	.1960	June...	.1960	Sept...	.1960	Dec.....	.1960
						Average.	\$0.1960

WOMEN'S DRESS GOODS: Danish cloth, cotton warp and worsted filling, 22-inch.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.123	Apr....	\$0.123	July...	\$0.123	Oct.....	\$0.123
Feb.....	.123	May...	.123	Aug...	.123	Nov.....	.123
Mar.....	.123	June...	.123	Sept...	.123	Dec.....	.123
						Average.	\$0.1230

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

CLOTHS AND CLOTHING—Concluded.

WOMEN'S DRESS GOODS: Franklin sackings, 6-4.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.66½	Apr. ...	\$0.66½	July...	\$0.66½	Oct.....	\$0.61½	
Feb.....	.66½	May...	.66½	Aug...	.66½	Nov.....	.61½	
Mar.....	.66½	June...	.66½	Sept...	.66½	Dec.....	.61½	
							Average.	\$0.6531

WOMEN'S DRESS GOODS: Poplar cloth, cotton warp and worsted filling, 36-inch.

[Price per yard on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.19	Apr. ...	\$0.19	July...	\$0.19	Oct.....	\$0.19	
Feb.....	.19	May...	.19	Aug...	.19	Nov.....	.19	
Mar.....	.19	June...	.19	Sept...	.19	Dec.....	.20	
							Average.	\$0.1908

WOOL: Ohio, fine fleece (X and XX grade), scoured.

[Price per pound, in the eastern markets (Baltimore, Boston, New York, and Philadelphia), on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.7021	Apr. ...	\$0.7021	July...	\$0.7234	Oct.....	\$0.7234	
Feb.....	.7021	May...	.7021	Aug...	.7447	Nov.....	.7234	
Mar.....	.7021	June...	.7234	Sept...	.7447	Dec.....	.7234	
							Average.	\$0.7181

WOOL: Ohio, medium fleece (one-fourth and three-eighths grade), scoured.

[Price per pound, in the eastern markets (Baltimore, Boston, New York, and Philadelphia), on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.5270	Apr. ...	\$0.5135	July...	\$0.5135	Oct.....	\$0.5135	
Feb.....	.5270	May...	.5135	Aug...	.5135	Nov.....	.5135	
Mar.....	.5135	June...	.5135	Sept...	.5135	Dec.....	.5135	
							Average.	\$0.5158

WORSTED YARNS: 2-40s, Australian fine.

[Price per pound on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$1.30	Apr. ...	\$1.30	July...	\$1.30	Oct.....	\$1.30	
Feb.....	1.30	May...	1.30	Aug...	1.30	Nov.....	1.28	
Mar.....	1.30	June...	1.30	Sept...	1.30	Dec.....	1.28	
							Average.	\$1.2967

WORSTED YARNS: 2-40s, XXXX or its equivalent in quality, white, in skeins.

[Price per pound on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$1.30	Apr. ...	\$1.30	July...	\$1.28	Oct.....	\$1.30	
Feb.....	1.30	May...	1.30	Aug...	1.28	Nov.....	1.30	
Mar.....	1.30	June...	1.28	Sept...	1.28	Dec.....	1.30	
							Average.	\$1.2931

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.
FUEL AND LIGHTING.

CANDLES: Adamantine, 6s, 14-ounce.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.07	Apr....	\$0.07	July...	\$0.07	Oct.....	\$0.07
Feb.....	.07	May...	.07	Aug...	.07	Nov.....	.07
Mar.....	.07	June...	.07	Sept...	.07	Dec.....	.07
						Average.	\$0.0741

COAL: Anthracite, broken.

[Average monthly selling price per ton, at tide water, New York Harbor.]

Jan.....	\$4.2042	Apr....	\$4.2007	July...	\$4.2066	Oct.....	\$4.2075
Feb.....	4.2020	May...	4.2015	Aug...	4.2034	Nov.....	4.2048
Mar.....	4.2011	June...	4.2049	Sept...	4.2069	Dec.....	4.2047
						Average.	\$4.2040

COAL: Anthracite, chestnut.

[Average monthly selling price per ton, at tide water, New York Harbor.]

Jan.....	\$4.9507	Apr....	\$4.4504	July...	\$4.7442	Oct.....	\$4.9483
Feb.....	4.9500	May...	4.5334	Aug...	4.8417	Nov.....	4.9416
Mar.....	4.9509	June...	4.6478	Sept...	4.9403	Dec.....	4.9450
						Average.	\$4.8204

COAL: Anthracite, egg.

[Average monthly selling price per ton, at tide water, New York Harbor.]

Jan.....	\$4.9512	Apr....	\$4.4500	July...	\$4.7399	Oct.....	\$4.9510
Feb.....	4.9500	May...	4.5265	Aug...	4.8444	Nov.....	4.9470
Mar.....	4.9500	June...	4.6434	Sept...	4.9500	Dec.....	4.9500
						Average.	\$4.8211

COAL: Anthracite, stove.

[Average monthly selling price per ton, at tide water, New York Harbor.]

Jan.....	\$4.9502	Apr....	\$4.4503	July...	\$4.7434	Oct.....	\$4.9503
Feb.....	4.9501	May...	4.5283	Aug...	4.8433	Nov.....	4.9500
Mar.....	4.9521	June...	4.6455	Sept...	4.9438	Dec.....	4.9503
						Average.	\$4.8215

COAL: Bituminous, Georges Creek.

[Price per ton, at the mine, on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$1.50	Apr....	\$1.50	July...	\$1.50	Oct.....	\$1.75
Feb.....	1.50	May...	1.50	Aug...	1.50	Nov.....	1.75
Mar.....	1.50	June...	1.50	Sept...	1.45	Dec.....	1.50
						Average.	\$1.5375

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

FUEL AND LIGHTING—Concluded.

PETROLEUM: Refined, in barrels, cargo lots, for export.

[Price per gallon, New York loading, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.0750	Apr....	\$0.0820	July...	\$0.0845	Oct.....	\$0.0845
Feb.....	.0775	May....	.0820	Aug....	.0845	Nov.....	.0875
Mar.....	.0775	June...	.0820	Sept...	.0845	Dec.....	.0875
						Average.	\$0.0824

PETROLEUM: Refined, 150° fire test, water white, in barrels, packages included (jobbing lots).

[Price per gallon, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Jan.....	\$0.13	Apr....	\$0.13½	July...	\$0.13½	Oct.....	\$0.13½
Feb.....	.13½	May....	.13½	Aug....	.13½	Nov.....	.13½
Mar.....	.13½	June...	.13½	Sept...	.13½	Dec.....	.13½
						Average.	\$0.1346

METALS AND IMPLEMENTS.

AUGERS: Extra, ¾-inch.

[Price per auger, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.36	Apr....	\$0.36	July...	\$0.36	Oct.....	\$0.36
Feb.....	.36	May....	.36	Aug....	.36	Nov.....	.36
Mar.....	.36	June...	.36	Sept...	.36	Dec.....	.36
						Average.	\$0.3600

AXES: M. C. O., Yankee.

[Price per ax, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.68	Apr....	\$0.68	July...	\$0.68	Oct.....	\$0.68
Feb.....	.68	May....	.68	Aug....	.68	Nov.....	.68
Mar.....	.68	June...	.68	Sept...	.68	Dec.....	.68
						Average.	\$0.6800

BAR IRON: Best refined, from store.

[Average monthly price per pound, in Philadelphia; quotations from the Bulletin of the American Iron and Steel Association.]

Jan.....	\$0.0208	Apr....	\$0.0216	July...	\$0.0216	Oct.....	\$0.0206
Feb.....	.0216	May....	.0216	Aug....	.0216	Nov.....	.0196
Mar.....	.0216	June...	.0216	Sept...	.0216	Dec.....	.0196
						Average.	\$0.0211

BAR IRON: Common to best refined, from mill.

[Price per pound, on the first of each month, I. o. b. Pittsburg; quotations from the Iron Age.]

Jan.....	\$0.0180-\$0.0185	Apr....	\$0.0180	July...	\$0.0170-\$0.0175	Oct.....	\$0.0170
Feb.....	.0180	May....	.0180	Aug....	.0170-.0175	Nov.....	.0170
Mar.....	.0180	June...	\$0.0175-.0180	Sept...	.0170	Dec.....	.0160
						Average.	\$0.0175

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

METALS AND IMPLEMENTS—Continued.

BARB WIRE: Galvanized.

[Average monthly price per hundred pounds, in Chicago; quotations from the Iron Age.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$2.60	Apr....	\$2.60	July...	\$2.63	Oct.....	\$2.68	
Feb.....	2.60	May...	2.60	Aug...	2.63	Nov.....	2.68	
Mar.....	2.60	June...	2.63	Sept...	2.68	Dec.....	2.68	
							Average.	\$2.6342

BUTTS: Loose joint, cast, 3 by 3 inch.

[Price per pair, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.04	Apr....	\$0.04	July...	\$0.04	Oct.....	\$0.04	
Feb.....	.04	May...	.04	Aug...	.04	Nov.....	.04	
Mar.....	.04	June...	.04	Sept...	.04	Dec.....	.04	
							Average.	\$0.04

CHISELS: Extra, socket firmer, 1-inch.

[Price per chisel, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.450	Apr....	\$0.450	July...	\$0.450	Oct.....	\$0.450	
Feb.....	.450	May...	.450	Aug...	.450	Nov.....	.450	
Mar.....	.450	June...	.450	Sept...	.450	Dec.....	.375	
							Average.	\$0.4438

COPPER: Ingot, lake.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Iron Age.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.2350-\$0.2425	Apr....	\$0.2450-\$0.2500	July...	\$0.2350-\$0.2425	Oct.....	\$0.1500-\$0.1525	
Feb.....	.2500-.2525	May...	.2500-.2500	Aug...	.1950-.2050	Nov.....	.1450	
Mar.....	.2525-.2575	June...	.2425-.2500	Sept...	.1812	Dec.....	.1400	
							Average.	\$0.2125

COPPER: Sheet, hot-rolled (base sizes).

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.29	Apr....	\$0.32	July...	\$0.32	Oct.....	\$0.29	
Feb.....	.30	May...	.32	Aug...	.28	Nov.....	.29	
Mar.....	.32	June...	.32	Sept...	.28	Dec.....	.29	
							Average.	\$0.2792

COPPER WIRE: Bare, No. 8, B. and 8. gauge, and heavier (base sizes).

[Price per pound, f. o. b. New York, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.25½	Apr....	\$0.27½	July...	\$0.27½	Oct.....	\$0.16½	
Feb.....	.27½	May...	.27½	Aug...	.24	Nov.....	.16	
Mar.....	.27½	June...	.27½	Sept...	.24	Dec.....	.16½	
							Average.	\$0.2402

DOORKNOBS: Steel, bronze plated.

[Price per pair, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.45	Apr....	\$0.45	July...	\$0.45	Oct.....	\$0.45	
Feb.....	.45	May...	.45	Aug...	.45	Nov.....	.45	
Mar.....	.45	June...	.45	Sept...	.45	Dec.....	.45	
							Average.	\$0.4500

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.
METALS AND IMPLEMENTS—Continued.

FILES: 8-inch mill bastard, Nicholson.

[Price per dozen on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$1.01	Apr.....	\$1.00	July...	\$1.00	Oct.....	\$0.99	
Feb.....	1.01	May...	1.00	Aug...	1.00	Nov.....	.93	
Mar.....	1.01	June...	1.00	Sept...	.99	Dec.....	.98	
							Average.	\$0.9975

HAMMERS: Maydole No. 1.

[Price per hammer, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.466	Apr....	\$0.466	July...	\$0.466	Oct.....	\$0.466	
Feb.....	.466	May...	.466	Aug...	.466	Nov.....	.466	
Mar.....	.466	June...	.466	Sept...	.466	Dec.....	.466	
							Average.	\$0.466

LEAD: Pig, desilverized.

[Price per pound, in New York, from store, on the first of each month; quotations from the Iron Age.]

Jan.....	\$0.0630	Apr....	\$0.0620-\$0.0625	July...	\$0.0525	Oct.....	\$0.0468	
Feb.....	\$0.0630-.0635	May...	.0610	Aug...	.0515	Nov.....	.0460	
Mar.....	.0635-.0640	June...	.0575-.0580	Sept...	.0520	Dec.....	.0425	
							Average.	\$0.0532

LEAD PIPE.

[Price per hundred pounds, f. o. b. New York, on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$7.20	Apr....	\$7.20	July...	\$6.84	Oct.....	\$6.12	
Feb.....	7.20	May...	7.20	Aug...	6.48	Nov.....	6.12	
Mar.....	7.20	June...	6.84	Sept...	6.48	Dec.....	5.58	
							Average.	\$6.7050

LOCKS: Common mortise.

[Price per lock, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.20	Apr....	\$0.20	July...	\$0.20	Oct.....	\$0.20	
Feb.....	.20	May...	.20	Aug...	.20	Nov.....	.20	
Mar.....	.20	June...	.20	Sept...	.20	Dec.....	.20	
							Average.	\$0.2000

NAILS: Cut, 8-penny, fence and common.

[Price per 100-pound keg, f. o. b. Pittsburg, on the first of each month; quotations computed from base prices published in the Iron Age.]

Jan.....	\$2.15	Apr....	\$2.15	July...	\$2.15	Oct.....	\$2.20	
Feb.....	2.15	May...	2.15	Aug...	2.20	Nov.....	\$2.10-2.15	
Mar.....	2.15	June...	2.15	Sept...	2.25	Dec.....	2.10-2.15	
							Average.	\$2.1625

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.
METALS AND IMPLEMENTS—Continued.

NAILS: Wire, 8-penny, fence and common.

[Price per 100-pound keg, f. o. b. Pittsburg, on the first of each month; quotations computed from base prices published in the Iron Age.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$2.10	Apr....	\$2.10	July....	\$2.10	Oct.....	\$2.15
Feb.....	2.10	May....	2.10	Aug....	2.10	Nov.....	2.15
Mar.....	2.10	June...	2.10	Sept...	2.15	Dec.....	2.15
						Average.	\$2.1167

PIG IRON: Bessemer.

[Average monthly price per ton in Pittsburg; quotations from the Bulletin of the American Iron and Steel Association.]

Jan.....	\$23.35	Apr....	\$23.55	July....	\$23.80	Oct.....	\$22.90
Feb.....	23.25	May....	24.05	Aug....	22.95	Nov.....	20.35
Mar.....	22.95	June...	24.50	Sept...	22.85	Dec.....	19.60
						Average.	\$22.8417

PIG IRON: Foundry No. 1.

[Average monthly price per ton in Philadelphia; quotations from the Bulletin of the American Iron and Steel Association.]

Jan.....	\$27.50	Apr....	\$26.56	July....	\$23.62	Oct.....	\$20.40
Feb.....	27.37	May....	26.60	Aug....	22.50	Nov.....	19.44
Mar.....	26.87	June...	25.75	Sept...	21.19	Dec.....	18.94
						Average.	\$23.8950

PIG IRON: Foundry No. 2, northern.

[Price per ton, f. o. b. Pittsburg, on the first of each month; quotations from the Iron Age.]

Jan.....	\$25.35-\$25.85	Apr....	\$25.10	July....	\$25.90	Oct.....	\$20.40-\$22.15
Feb.....	25.35-25.85	May....	\$24.85-25.85	Aug....	22.90	Nov.....	19.00-20.40
Mar.....	24.85	June...	26.40-26.90	Sept...	\$22.40-23.40	Dec.....	18.90-19.40
						Average.	\$23.8088

PIG IRON: Gray forge, southern, coke.

[Price per ton, f. o. b. Cincinnati, on the first of each month; quotations from the Iron Age.]

Jan.....	\$23.00-\$23.50	Apr....	\$23.00-\$23.50	July...	\$21.75-\$22.25	Oct.....	\$18.75-\$19.25
Feb.....	23.00-23.50	May...	21.75-22.25	Aug...	20.75-21.25	Nov.....	17.50-18.00
Mar.....	22.35-22.85	June...	21.75-22.25	Sept...	19.00-19.50	Dec.....	16.25-16.75
						Average.	\$20.9875

PLANES: Bailey No. 5.

[Price per plane, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$1.53	Apr....	\$1.53	July...	\$1.53	Oct.....	\$1.53
Feb.....	1.53	May...	1.53	Aug...	1.53	Nov.....	1.53
Mar.....	1.53	June...	1.53	Sept...	1.53	Dec.....	1.53
						Average.	\$1.53

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.
METALS AND IMPLEMENTS—Continued.

QUICKSILVER.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.54	Apr....	\$0.53	July...	\$0.51	Oct.....	\$0.54	
Feb.....	.54	May....	.53	Aug....	.51	Nov.....	.61	
Mar.....	.54	June...	.53	Sept...	.51	Dec.....	.61	
							Average.	\$0.5429

SAWS: Crosscut, Disston No. 2, 6-foot.

[Price per saw to small jobbers, f. o. b. Philadelphia, on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$1.6038	Apr....	\$1.6038	July...	\$1.6038	Oct.....	\$1.6038	
Feb.....	1.6038	May....	1.6038	Aug....	1.6038	Nov.....	1.6038	
Mar.....	1.6038	June...	1.6038	Sept...	1.6038	Dec.....	1.6038	
							Average.	\$1.6038

SAWS: Hand, Disston No. 7, 26-inch.

[Price per dozen to small jobbers, f. o. b. Philadelphia, on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$12.9500	Apr....	\$12.9500	July...	\$12.9500	Oct.....	\$12.9500	
Feb.....	12.9500	May....	12.9500	Aug....	12.9500	Nov.....	12.9500	
Mar.....	12.9500	June...	12.9500	Sept...	12.9500	Dec.....	12.9500	
							Average.	\$12.9500

SHOVELS: Ames No. 2, cast steel, D handle, square point, back strap, black.

[Price per dozen on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$7.84	Apr....	\$7.84	July...	\$7.84	Oct.....	\$7.84	
Feb.....	7.84	May....	7.84	Aug....	7.84	Nov.....	7.84	
Mar.....	7.84	June...	7.84	Sept...	7.84	Dec.....	7.84	
							Average.	\$7.84

SILVER: Bar, fine.

[Average monthly price, in New York; quotations furnished by the Director of the Mint.]

Jan.....	\$0.69333	Apr....	\$0.69062	July...	\$0.68759	Oct.....	\$0.63111	
Feb.....	.69437	May....	.69648	Aug....	.69415	Nov.....	.59403	
Mar.....	.68110	June...	.67820	Sept...	.68430	Dec.....	.55215	
							Average.	\$0.65979

SPELTER: Western.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Iron Age.]

Jan.....	\$0.0665-\$0.0670	Apr....	\$0.0685-\$0.0690	July...	\$0.0635-\$0.0640	Oct.....	\$0.0540	
Feb.....	.0700-.0725	May....	.0660-.0665	Aug....	.0580-.0590	Nov.....	.0550	
Mar.....	.0695	June...	.0650	Sept...	.0550-.0555	Dec.....	\$0.0460-.0465	
							Average.	\$0.0617

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.
METALS AND IMPLEMENTS—Continued.

STEEL BILLETS.

[Average monthly price per ton, at mills at Pittsburg; quotations from the Bulletin of the American Iron and Steel Association.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$29.40	Apr...	\$30.25	July...	\$30.00	Oct.....	\$28.20
Feb.....	29.50	May...	30.30	Aug...	29.40	Nov.....	28.00
Mar.....	29.00	June...	29.62	Sept...	29.37	Dec.....	28.00
						Average.	\$29.2533

STEEL RAILS.

[Average monthly price per ton, at mills in Pennsylvania; quotations from the Bulletin of the American Iron and Steel Association.]

Jan.....	\$28.00	Apr...	\$28.00	July...	\$28.00	Oct.....	\$28.00
Feb.....	28.00	May...	28.00	Aug...	28.00	Nov.....	28.00
Mar.....	28.00	June...	28.00	Sept...	28.00	Dec.....	28.00
						Average.	\$28.00

STEEL SHEETS: Black, No. 27, box annealed, one pass through cold rolls.

[Price per pound, in Pittsburg, on the first of each month; quotations from the Iron Age.]

Jan.....	\$0.0250	Apr...	\$0.0250	July...	\$0.0250	Oct.....	\$0.0250
Feb.....	.0250	May...	.0250	Aug...	.0250	Nov.....	.0250
Mar.....	.0250	June...	.0250	Sept...	.0250	Dec.....	.0250
						Average.	\$0.0250

TIN: Pig.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Iron Age.]

Jan.....	\$0.4185	Apr...	\$0.4000	July...	\$0.4275-\$0.4300	Oct.....	\$0.3470
Feb.....	.4250	May...	.4305	Aug...	.3860-.3900	Nov.....	.3060
Mar.....	.4190	June...	.4150	Sept...	.3712}	Dec.....	.3010
						Average.	\$0.3875

TIN PLATES: Domestic, Bessemer, coke, 14 by 20 inch.

[Price per 100 pounds, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Iron Age.]

Jan.....	\$4.09	Apr.....	\$4.09	July...	\$4.09	Oct.....	\$4.09
Feb.....	4.09	May....	4.09	Aug...	4.09	Nov.....	4.09
Mar.....	4.09	June...	4.09	Sept...	4.09	Dec.....	4.09
						Average.	\$4.0900

TROWELS: M. C. O., brick, 10½-inch.

[Price per trowel, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Jan.....	\$0.34	Apr....	\$0.34	July...	\$0.34	Oct.....	\$0.34
Feb.....	.34	May....	.34	Aug...	.34	Nov.....	.34
Mar.....	.34	June...	.34	Sept...	.34	Dec.....	.34
						Average.	\$0.34

TABLE E.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Concluded.

METALS AND IMPLEMENTS—Concluded.

VICES: Solid box, 50-pound.

[Price per vise, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$5.75	Apr....	\$5.75	July...	\$5.75	Oct.....	\$5.75	
Feb.....	5.75	May....	5.75	Aug...	5.75	Nov.....	5.75	
Mar.....	5.75	June...	5.75	Sept...	5.75	Dec.....	5.75	
							Average.	\$5.7500

WOOD SCREWS: 1-inch, No. 10, flat head.

[Price per gross, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.1219	Apr....	\$0.1219	July...	\$0.1219	Oct.....	\$0.1219	
Feb.....	.1219	May....	.1219	Aug...	.1219	Nov.....	.1219	
Mar.....	.1219	June...	.1219	Sept...	.1219	Dec.....	.1219	
							Average.	\$0.1219

ZINC: Sheet, ordinary numbers and sizes, packed in 600-pound casks.

[Price per hundred pounds, f. o. b. La Salle, Ill., on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$7.59	Apr....	\$7.91	July...	\$7.91	Oct.....	\$6.90	
Feb.....	7.73	May....	7.91	Aug...	7.68	Nov.....	6.90	
Mar.....	7.82	June...	7.91	Sept...	7.13	Dec.....	6.44	
							Average.	\$7.4858

LUMBER AND BUILDING MATERIALS.

BRICK: Common domestic building.

[Price per thousand, on dock in New York, from the first to the last of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$6.00-\$6.50	Apr....	\$5.00-\$5.50	July...	\$6.25-\$6.75	Oct.....	\$5.50-\$6.25	
Feb.....	6.00-6.75	May....	5.50-6.25	Aug...	6.00-7.00	Nov.....	5.50-6.00	
Mar.....	6.00-6.75	June...	7.25-7.75	Sept...	5.75-6.50	Dec.....	5.25-5.75	
							Average.	\$6.1563

CARBONATE OF LEAD: American, in oil.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.0735	Apr....	\$0.0711	July...	\$0.0711	Oct.....	\$0.0662	
Feb.....	.0689	May....	.0711	Aug...	.0711	Nov.....	.0662	
Mar.....	.0686	June...	.0711	Sept...	.0711	Dec.....	.0662	
							Average.	\$0.0697

CEMENT: Portland, domestic.

[Price per barrel, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$1.60-\$1.70	Apr....	\$1.60-\$1.70	July...	\$1.60-\$1.70	Oct.....	\$1.70	
Feb.....	1.60-1.70	May....	1.60-1.70	Aug...	1.70	Nov.....	1.55	
Mar.....	1.60-1.70	June...	1.60-1.70	Sept...	1.70	Dec.....	1.55	
							Average.	1.60

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.
LUMBER AND BUILDING MATERIALS—Continued.

CEMENT: Rosendale.

[Price per barrel, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan....	\$0.95	Apr....	\$0.95	July...	\$0.95	Oct....	\$0.95	
Feb....	.95	May...	.95	Aug...	.95	Nov....	.95	
Mar....	.95	June...	.95	Sept...	.95	Dec....	.95	
							Average.	\$0.9500

DOORS: Western white pine, 2 feet 8 inches by 6 feet 8 inches, 1½ inches thick, 5-panel, No. 1, O. G.

[Price per door, in Buffalo, on the first of each month.]

Jan....	\$1.89	Apr....	\$1.89	July...	\$1.89	Oct....	\$1.95	
Feb....	1.89	May...	1.89	Aug...	1.89	Nov....	1.95	
Mar....	1.89	June...	1.89	Sept...	1.89	Dec....	1.70	
							Average.	\$1.8342

HEMLOCK: 2 by 4 inch, 12 to 14 feet long, Pennsylvania stock.

[Price per M feet, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Lumber Trade Journal.]

Jan....	\$22.00-\$22.50	Apr....	\$22.00-\$22.50	July...	\$22.00-\$22.50	Oct....	\$22.00-\$22.50	
Feb....	22.00-22.50	May...	22.00-22.50	Aug...	22.00-22.50	Nov....	22.00-22.50	
Mar....	22.00-22.50	June...	22.00-22.50	Sept...	22.00-22.50	Dec....	22.00-22.50	
							Average.	\$22.2500

LIME: Eastern, common.

[Price per barrel, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Jan....	\$1.02	Apr....	\$1.02	July...	\$0.87-\$0.92	Oct....	\$0.87-\$0.92	
Feb....	1.02	May...	\$0.87-.92	Aug...	.87-.92	Nov....	.87-.92	
Mar....	1.02	June...	.87-.92	Sept...	.87-.92	Dec....	1.02-1.07	
							Average.	\$0.9492

LINSEED OIL: Raw, city, in barrels.

[Price per gallon, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Jan....	\$0.41	Apr....	\$0.41	July...	\$0.45	Oct....	\$0.47	
Feb....	.41	May...	.41	Aug...	.43	Nov....	.49	
Mar....	.41	June...	.44	Sept...	.43	Dec....	.46	
							Average.	\$0.4342

MAPLE: Hard, 1-inch, firsts and seconds, 6 inches and up wide.

[Price per M feet, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Lumber Trade Journal.]

Jan....	\$30.00-\$32.00	Apr....	\$32.00-\$33.00	July...	\$32.00-\$33.00	Oct....	\$32.00-\$33.00	
Feb....	30.00-32.00	May...	32.00-33.00	Aug...	32.00-33.00	Nov....	32.00-33.00	
Mar....	32.00-33.00	June...	32.00-33.00	Sept...	32.00-33.00	Dec....	32.00-33.00	
							Average.	\$32.2500

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

LUMBER AND BUILDING MATERIALS—Continued.

OAK: White, plain, 1-inch, 6 inches and up wide.

[Price per M feet, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Lumber Trade Journal.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$50.00-\$52.00	Apr....	\$54.00-\$56.00	July...	\$55.00-\$60.00	Oct.....	\$53.00-\$55.00
Feb.....	52.00- 54.00	May...	58.00- 65.00	Aug...	55.00- 57.00	Nov.....	53.00- 55.00
Mar.....	54.00- 56.00	June...	55.00- 60.00	Sept...	53.00- 55.00	Dec.....	53.00- 55.00
						Average.	\$55.2083

OAK: White, quartered, clear and good seconds, 1-inch, 6 inches and up wide, 10 to 16 feet long.

[Price per M feet, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Lumber Trade Journal.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$78.00-\$82.00	Apr....	\$78.00-\$82.00	July...	\$78.00-\$82.00	Oct.....	\$78.00-\$82.00
Feb.....	78.00- 82.00	May...	78.00- 82.00	Aug...	78.00- 82.00	Nov.....	78.00- 82.00
Mar.....	78.00- 82.00	June...	78.00- 82.00	Sept...	78.00- 82.00	Dec.....	78.00- 82.00
						Average.	\$80.0000

OXIDE OF ZINC: American, extra dry.

[Price per pound on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.05½	Apr....	\$0.05½	July...	\$0.05½	Oct.....	\$0.05½
Feb.....	.05	May...	.05	Aug...	.05	Nov.....	.05
Mar.....	.05½	June...	.05	Sept...	.05½	Dec.....	.05½
						Average.	\$0.0538

PINE: White, boards, No. 2 barn, 1 inch by 10 inches wide, rough.

[Price per M feet, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Lumber Trade Journal.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$36.50-\$37.00	Apr....	\$36.50-\$37.00	July...	\$37.50-\$38.00	Oct.....	\$37.50-\$38.00
Feb.....	36.50- 37.00	May...	37.50- 38.00	Aug...	37.50- 38.00	Nov.....	37.50- 38.00
Mar.....	36.50- 37.00	June...	37.50- 38.00	Sept...	37.50- 38.00	Dec.....	37.50- 38.00
						Average.	\$37.4167

PINE: White, boards, uppers, 1-inch, 8 inches and up wide, rough.

[Price per M feet, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Lumber Trade Journal.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$93.50-\$95.50	Apr....	\$95.50-\$97.50	July...	\$96.50-\$98.50	Oct.....	\$97.50-\$99.50
Feb.....	93.50- 95.50	May...	96.50- 98.50	Aug...	96.50- 98.50	Nov.....	97.50- 99.50
Mar.....	95.50- 97.50	June...	96.50- 98.50	Sept...	96.50- 98.50	Dec.....	97.50- 99.50
						Average.	\$97.0833

PINE: Yellow, long leaf, boards, heart-face sidings, 1-inch and 1½-inch.

[Price per M feet, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Lumber Trade Journal.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$30.00-\$31.00	Apr....	\$30.00-\$31.00	July...	\$30.00-\$31.00	Oct.....	\$30.00-\$31.00
Feb.....	30.00- 31.00	May...	30.00- 31.00	Aug...	30.00- 31.00	Nov.....	30.00- 31.00
Mar.....	30.00- 31.00	June...	30.00- 31.00	Sept...	30.00- 31.00	Dec.....	30.00- 31.00
						Average.	\$30.5000

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

LUMBER AND BUILDING MATERIALS—Continued.

PLATE GLASS: Polished, glazing, area 3 to 5 square feet.

[Price per square foot, f. o. b. New York, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.23	Apr....	\$0.23	July...	\$0.23	Oct.....	\$0.23	
Feb.....	.23	May...	.23	Aug...	.23	Nov.....	.23	
Mar.....	.23	June...	.23	Sept...	.23	Dec.....	.23	
							Average.	\$0.2300

PLATE GLASS: Polished, glazing, area 5 to 10 square feet.

[Price per square foot, f. o. b. New York, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.34	Apr....	\$0.34	July...	\$0.34	Oct.....	\$0.34	
Feb.....	.34	May...	.34	Aug...	.34	Nov.....	.34	
Mar.....	.34	June...	.34	Sept...	.34	Dec.....	.34	
							Average.	\$0.3400

POPEAR: Yellow, 1-inch, 8 inches and up wide, firsts and seconds, rough.

[Price per M feet, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Lumber Trade Journal.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$52.00-\$55.00	Apr....	\$56.00-\$60.00	July...	\$55.00-\$60.00	Oct.....	\$57.00-\$62.00	
Feb.....	52.00-55.00	May...	58.00-65.00	Aug...	57.00-62.00	Nov.....	57.00-62.00	
Mar.....	56.00-60.00	June...	55.00-60.00	Sept...	57.00-62.00	Dec.....	57.00-62.00	
							Average.	\$58.0833

PUTTY: Bulk.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.0120	Apr....	\$0.0120	July...	\$0.0120	Oct.....	\$0.0120	
Feb.....	.0120	May...	.0120	Aug...	.0120	Nov.....	.0120	
Mar.....	.0120	June...	.0120	Sept...	.0120	Dec.....	.0120	
							Average.	\$0.0120

RESIN: Common to good, strained.

[Price per barrel, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$4.25	Apr....	\$4.50-\$4.60	July...	\$4.40-\$4.45	Oct.....	\$4.20-\$4.25	
Feb.....	4.45	May...	4.80	Aug...	4.50	Nov.....	4.20	
Mar.....	\$4.40-4.45	June...	4.80	Sept...	4.35	Dec.....	3.55	
							Average.	\$4.3771

SHINGLES: Cypress, all heart, 5 and 6 inches wide, 16 inches long.

[Price per M. f. o. b. mills, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$3.85	Apr....	\$4.35	July...	\$4.35	Oct.....	\$4.35	
Feb.....	3.85	May...	4.35	Aug...	4.35	Nov.....	4.10	
Mar.....	4.35	June...	4.33	Sept...	4.35	Dec.....	4.10	
							Average.	\$4.3250

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

LUMBER AND BUILDING MATERIALS—Concluded.

SHINGLES: Red cedar, clears, random width, 16 inches long.

[Average monthly price at the mills in Washington.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$2.50	Apr....	\$2.90	July...	\$3.00	Oct.....	\$2.75	
Feb.....	2.75	May...	3.00	Aug...	3.10	Nov.....	2.00	
Mar.....	2.75	June...	2.60	Sept...	3.00	Dec.....	2.00	
							Average.	\$2.6958

SPRUCE: 6 to 9 inch, cargoes.

[Price per M feet, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Lumber Trade Journal.]

Jan.....	\$22.00-\$28.00	Apr....	\$22.00-\$28.00	July...	\$22.00-\$28.00	Oct.....	\$20.00-\$22.00	
Feb.....	22.00-28.00	May...	22.00-28.00	Aug...	22.00-28.00	Nov.....	20.00-22.00	
Mar.....	22.00-28.00	June...	22.00-28.00	Sept...	22.00-28.00	Dec.....	20.00-22.00	
							Average.	\$24.0000

TAR.

[Price per barrel, in Wilmington, N. C., on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Jan.....	\$2.35	Apr....	\$2.80	July...	\$2.50	Oct.....	\$2.30	
Feb.....	2.30	May...	2.30	Aug...	2.50	Nov.....	2.30	
Mar.....	2.30	June...	2.40	Sept...	2.30	Dec.....	1.60	
							Average.	\$2.3292

TURPENTINE: Spirits of, in machine barrels.

[Price per gallon, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Jan.....	\$0.71	Apr....	\$0.73	July...	\$0.61	Oct.....	\$0.55	
Feb.....	.74	May...	.67½	Aug...	.59	Nov.....	.54	
Mar.....	.75½	June...	.64	Sept...	\$0.58- .58½	Dec.....	.49	
							Average.	\$0.6344

WINDOW GLASS: American, single, firsts, 25-inch bracket (6 by 8 to 10 by 15 inch).

[Price per 50 square feet, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Jan.....	\$2.88	Apr....	\$2.88	July...	\$2.88	Oct.....	\$2.72	
Feb.....	2.88	May...	2.88	Aug...	2.72	Nov.....	2.72	
Mar.....	2.88	June...	2.88	Sept...	2.72	Dec.....	2.72	
							Average.	\$2.8133

WINDOW GLASS: American, single, thirds, 25-inch bracket (6 by 8 to 10 by 15 inch).

[Price per 50 square feet, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Jan.....	\$2.2950	Apr....	\$2.2950	July...	\$2.2950	Oct.....	\$2.1675	
Feb.....	2.2950	May...	2.2950	Aug...	2.1675	Nov.....	2.1675	
Mar.....	2.2950	June...	2.2950	Sept...	2.1675	Dec.....	2.1675	
							Average.	\$2.2419

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

DRUGS AND CHEMICALS.

ALCOHOL: Grain.

[Price per gallon, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$2.46½	Apr....	\$2.46½	July...	\$2.53	Oct.....	\$2.59	
Feb.....	2.46½	May...	2.46½	Aug...	2.53	Nov.....	2.61	
Mar.....	2.46½	June...	2.53	Sept...	2.53	Dec.....	2.63	
							Average.	\$2.5220

ALCOHOL: Wood, refined, 95 per cent.

[Price per gallon, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.40	Apr....	\$0.40	July...	\$0.40	Oct.....	\$0.40	
Feb.....	.40	May...	.40	Aug...	.40	Nov.....	.40	
Mar.....	.40	June...	.40	Sept...	.40	Dec.....	.39	
							Average.	\$0.3992

ALUM: Lump.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.0175	Apr....	\$0.0175	July...	\$0.0175	Oct.....	\$0.0175	
Feb.....	.0175	May...	.0175	Aug...	.0175	Nov.....	.0175	
Mar.....	.0175	June...	.0175	Sept...	.0175	Dec.....	.0175	
							Average.	\$0.0175

BRIMSTONE: Crude, seconds.

[Price per ton, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$22.50	Apr....	\$22.12½	July...	\$22.12½	Oct.....	\$19.50	
Feb.....	22.12½	May...	22.12½	Aug...	22.12½	Nov.....	19.50	
Mar.....	22.12½	June...	22.12½	Sept...	22.12½	Dec.....	19.50	
							Average.	\$21.4983

GLYCERIN: Refined, chemically pure, in bulk.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.11½	Apr....	\$0.13	July...	\$0.13½	Oct.....	\$0.15½	
Feb.....	.12	May...	.13½	Aug...	.14	Nov.....	.15½	
Mar.....	.13	June...	.13½	Sept...	.14½	Dec.....	.16	
							Average.	\$0.1383

MURIATIC ACID: 20°.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.0135	Apr....	\$0.0135	July...	\$0.0135	Oct.....	\$0.0135	
Feb.....	.0135	May...	.0137	Aug...	.0135	Nov.....	.0135	
Mar.....	.0135	June...	.0135	Sept...	.0135	Dec.....	.0135	
							Average.	\$0.0135

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

DRUGS AND CHEMICALS—Concluded.

OPIUM: Natural, in cases.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$3.55	Apr....	\$4.00	July...	\$4.75	Oct.....	\$6.50	
Feb.....	3.55	May...	4.00	Aug...	7.00	Nov.....	6.25	
Mar.....	3.45	June...	3.80	Sept...	7.00	Dec.....	5.50	
							Average.	\$4.9458

QUININE: American, in 100-ounce tins.

[Price per ounce, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.19	Apr....	\$0.19	July...	\$0.16	Oct.....	\$0.16	
Feb.....	.22	May...	.18	Aug...	.16	Nov.....	.16	
Mar.....	.21	June...	.18	Sept...	.16	Dec.....	.16	
							Average.	\$0.1775

SULPHURIC ACID: 66°.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.0100	Apr....	\$0.0100	July...	\$0.0100	Oct.....	\$0.0100	
Feb.....	.0100	May...	.0100	Aug...	.0100	Nov.....	.0100	
Mar.....	.0100	June...	.0100	Sept...	.0100	Dec.....	.0100	
							Average.	\$0.0100

HOUSE FURNISHING GOODS.

EARTHENWARE: Plates, cream-colored, 7-inch.

[Price per dozen, f. o. b. Trenton, N. J., on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.4410	Apr....	\$0.4410	July...	\$0.4410	Oct.....	\$0.4410	
Feb.....	.4410	May...	.4410	Aug...	.4410	Nov.....	.4410	
Mar.....	.4410	June...	.4410	Sept...	.4410	Dec.....	.4410	
							Average.	\$0.4410

EARTHENWARE: Plates, white granite, 7-inch.

[Price per dozen, f. o. b. Trenton, N. J., on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.4586	Apr....	\$0.4586	July...	\$0.4586	Oct.....	\$0.4586	
Feb.....	.4586	May...	.4586	Aug...	.4586	Nov.....	.4586	
Mar.....	.4586	June...	.4586	Sept...	.4586	Dec.....	.4586	
							Average.	\$0.4586

EARTHENWARE: Teacups and saucers, white granite, with handles.

[Price per gross (6 dozen cups and 6 dozen saucers), f. o. b. Trenton, N. J., on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$3.3869	Apr....	\$3.3869	July...	\$3.3869	Oct.....	\$3.3869	
Feb.....	3.3869	May...	3.3869	Aug...	3.3869	Nov.....	3.3869	
Mar.....	3.3869	June...	3.3869	Sept...	3.3869	Dec.....	3.3869	
							Average.	\$3.3869

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

HOUSE FURNISHING GOODS—Continued.

FURNITURE: Bedroom sets, ash, 3 pieces, bedstead, bureau, and wash-stand.

[Price per set, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$14.50	Apr....	\$14.50	July....	\$14.50	Oct.....	\$14.50	
Feb.....	14.50	May....	14.50	Aug....	14.50	Nov.....	14.50	
Mar.....	14.50	June...	14.50	Sept...	14.50	Dec.....	14.50	
							Average.	\$14.5000

FURNITURE: Chairs, bedroom, maple, cane seat.

[Price per dozen, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$10.00	Apr....	\$10.00	July....	\$10.00	Oct.....	\$10.00	
Feb.....	10.00	May....	10.00	Aug....	10.00	Nov.....	10.00	
Mar.....	10.00	June...	10.00	Sept...	10.00	Dec.....	10.00	
							Average.	\$10.0000

FURNITURE: Chairs, kitchen, common spindle.

[Price per dozen, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$5.50	Apr....	\$5.50	July....	\$6.00	Oct.....	\$6.00	
Feb.....	5.50	May....	5.50	Aug....	6.00	Nov.....	6.00	
Mar.....	5.50	June...	6.00	Sept...	6.00	Dec.....	6.00	
							Average.	\$5.7917

FURNITURE: Tables, kitchen, 3½-foot.

[Price per dozen, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$18.00	Apr....	\$18.00	July....	\$18.00	Oct.....	\$18.00	
Feb.....	18.00	May....	18.00	Aug....	18.00	Nov.....	18.00	
Mar.....	18.00	June...	18.00	Sept...	18.00	Dec.....	18.00	
							Average.	\$18.0000

GLASSWARE: Nappies, 4-inch.

[Price per dozen, f. o. b. factory, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.14	Apr....	\$0.14	July....	\$0.14	Oct.....	\$0.14	
Feb.....	.14	May....	.14	Aug....	.14	Nov.....	.14	
Mar.....	.14	June...	.14	Sept...	.14	Dec.....	.14	
							Average.	\$0.1400

GLASSWARE: Pitchers, one-half gallon, common.

[Price per dozen, f. o. b. factory, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$1.05	Apr....	\$1.05	July....	\$1.05	Oct.....	\$1.05	
Feb.....	1.05	May....	1.05	Aug....	1.05	Nov.....	1.05	
Mar.....	1.05	June...	1.05	Sept...	1.05	Dec.....	1.05	
							Average.	\$1.0500

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

HOUSE FURNISHING GOODS—Concluded.

GLASSWARE: Tumblers, table, one-third pint, common.

[Price per dozen, f. o. b. factory, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.15	Apr....	\$0.15	July...	\$0.15	Oct.....	\$0.15	
Feb.....	.15	May....	.15	Aug....	.15	Nov.....	.15	
Mar.....	.15	June...	.15	Sept...	.15	Dec.....	.15	
							Average.	\$0.1500

TABLE CUTLERY: Carvers, stag handles.

[Price per pair on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$0.75	Apr....	\$0.75	July...	\$0.85	Oct.....	\$0.85	
Feb.....	.75	May....	.75	Aug....	.85	Nov.....	.85	
Mar.....	.75	June...	.75	Sept...	.85	Dec.....	.85	
							Average.	\$0.80

TABLE CUTLERY: Knives and forks, cocobolo handles, metal bolsters.

[Price per gross on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$6.30	Apr....	\$6.60	July...	\$6.60	Oct.....	\$6.60	
Feb.....	6.30	May....	6.60	Aug....	6.60	Nov.....	6.35	
Mar.....	6.30	June...	6.60	Sept...	6.60	Dec.....	6.35	
							Average.	\$6.4833

WOODEN WARE: Pails, oak-grained, 3-hoop, wire ear.

[Price per dozen, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Merchants' Review.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$1.70	Apr....	\$1.95	July...	\$1.95	Oct.....	\$2.10	
Feb.....	1.70	May....	1.95	Aug....	2.10	Nov.....	2.10	
Mar.....	1.95	June...	1.95	Sept...	2.10	Dec.....	2.10	
							Average.	\$1.9708

WOODEN WARE: Tubs, oak-grained, 3 in nest.

[Price per nest of 3, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Merchants' Review.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$1.45	Apr....	\$1.60	July...	\$1.65	Oct.....	\$1.65	
Feb.....	1.45	May....	1.60	Aug....	1.65	Nov.....	1.65	
Mar.....	1.60	June...	1.60	Sept...	1.65	Dec.....	1.65	
							Average.	\$1.60

MISCELLANEOUS.

COTTON-SEED MEAL.

[Price per ton of 2,000 pounds, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	
Jan.....	\$29.60	Apr....	\$27.60	July...	\$28.55	Oct.....	\$30.10	
Feb.....	28.60	May....	26.60	Aug....	28.35	Nov.....	30.10	
Mar.....	28.35	June...	27.60	Sept...	29.10	Dec.....	60	
							Average.	

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

MISCELLANEOUS—Continued.

COTTON-SEED OIL: Summer yellow, prime.

[Price per gallon, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.40	Apr....	\$0.46	July...	\$0.58	Oct.....	\$0.52
Feb.....	.43	May...	.48	Aug...	.57	Nov.....	.38
Mar.....	.48	June...	.56	Sept...	.56	Dec.....	.38
						Average.	\$0.4869

JUTE: Raw, M-double triangle, shipment, medium grades.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.06	Apr....	\$0.05	July...	\$0.05	Oct.....	\$0.04
Feb.....	.05	May...	.05	Aug...	.04	Nov.....	.04
Mar.....	.05	June...	.05	Sept...	.04	Dec.....	.03
						Average.	\$0.0486

MALT: Western made.

[Price per bushel, in New York, on the last of each month; quotations from the Brewers' Journal.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.71-\$0.81	Apr....	\$0.90-\$1.00	July...	\$1.00-\$1.05	Oct.....	\$1.22-\$1.27
Feb.....	.74-.84	May...	1.00-1.12	Aug...	1.00-1.05	Nov.....	1.17-1.25
Mar.....	.90-1.00	June...	1.00-1.10	Sept...	1.13-1.15	Dec.....	1.17-1.25
						Average.	\$1.0346

PAPER: News, wood.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.0225-\$0.0250	Apr....	\$0.0245-\$0.0265	July...	\$0.0245-\$0.0265	Oct.....	\$0.0255-\$0.0275
Feb.....	.0200-.0225	May...	.0245-.0265	Aug...	.0245-.0265	Nov.....	.0255-.0275
Mar.....	.0200-.0225	June...	.0245-.0265	Sept...	.0245-.0265	Dec.....	.0255-.0275
						Average.	\$0.0249

PAPER: Wrapping, manila, No. 1, jute.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.05	Apr....	\$0.05	July...	\$0.05	Oct.....	\$0.05
Feb.....	.05	May...	.05	Aug...	.05	Nov.....	.05
Mar.....	.05	June...	.05	Sept...	.05	Dec.....	.05
						Average.	\$0.0500

PROOF SPIRITS.

[Price per gallon, including tax, in Peoria, Ill., weekly range; quotations furnished by the secretary of the Peoria Board of Trade.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$1.29	Apr....	\$1.29	July...	\$1.31	Oct.....	\$1.34
	1.29		1.29		1.31		1.34
	1.29		1.29		1.31		1.35
	1.29		1.29		1.31		1.35
Feb.....	1.29	May...	1.29	Aug...	1.31	Nov.....	1.35
	1.29		1.29		1.31		1.35
	1.29		1.29		1.31		1.35
	1.29		\$1.29-1.31		1.31		1.35
	1.29		1.31		1.31		1.35
Mar.....	1.29	June...	1.31	Sept...	1.32	Dec.....	1.35
	1.29		1.31		1.32		1.35
	1.29		1.31		1.34		1.35
	1.29		1.31		1.34		1.35
	1.29		1.31		1.34		1.35
						Average.	\$1.3133

TABLE I.—WHOLESALE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Concluded.

MISCELLANEOUS—Concluded.

ROPE: Manila, $\frac{1}{8}$ -inch and larger.

[Price per pound, f. o. b. New York or factory, on the first of each month; quotations from the Iron Age.]

Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.	Month.	Price.
Jan.....	\$0.12½-\$0.13	Apr....	\$0.13-\$0.13½	July...	\$0.13-\$0.13½	Oct.....	\$0.12½-\$0.12½
Feb.....	.13-.13½	May....	.13-.13½	Aug....	.13-.13½	Nov.....	.11½-.12½
Mar.....	.13-.13½	June...	.13-.13½	Sept...	.12½-.12½	Dec.....	.11½-.12
						Average.	\$0.1290

RUBBER: Para Island, new.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the New York Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.]

Jan.....	\$1.18	Apr....	\$1.15	July...	\$1.04-\$1.05	Oct.....	\$0.99½
Feb.....	\$1.18-1.19	May....	1.14	Aug....	1.06½	Nov.....	\$0.91-.92
Mar.....	1.18-1.19	June...	1.09	Sept...	1.03	Dec.....	.78
						Average.	\$1.0633

SOAP: Castile, mottled, pure.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Oil, Paint, and Drug Reporter.]

Jan.....	\$0.0650	Apr....	\$0.0650	July...	\$0.0700	Oct.....	\$0.0700
Feb.....	.0650	May....	.0650	Aug....	.0700	Nov.....	.0700
Mar.....	.0650	June...	.0600	Sept...	.0700	Dec.....	.0700
						Average.	\$0.0671

STARCH: Laundry, Austin, Nichols & Co., 40-pound boxes, in bulk.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Merchants' Review.]

Jan.....	\$0.03½	Apr....	\$0.04	July...	\$0.04	Oct.....	\$0.04½
Feb.....	.04	May....	.04	Aug....	.04	Nov.....	.04½
Mar.....	.04	June...	.04	Sept...	.04	Dec.....	.04½
						Average.	\$0.0404

TOBACCO: Plug, Climax.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Merchants' Review.]

Jan.....	\$0.47	Apr....	\$0.47	July...	\$0.47	Oct.....	\$0.47
Feb.....	.47	May....	.47	Aug....	.47	Nov.....	.47
Mar.....	.47	June...	.47	Sept...	.47	Dec.....	.47
						Average.	\$0.47

TOBACCO: Smoking, granulated, Seal of North Carolina.

[Price per pound, in New York, on the first of each month; quotations from the Merchants' Review.]

Jan.....	\$0.60	Apr....	\$0.60	July...	\$0.60	Oct.....	\$0.60
Feb.....	.60	May....	.60	Aug....	.60	Nov.....	.60
Mar.....	.60	June...	.60	Sept...	.60	Dec.....	.60
						Average.	\$0.60

TABLE III.—MONTHLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907 AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899).

[For explanation and discussion of this table, see pages 325 to 328. For a more detailed description of the articles, see Table I. Average for 1907 computed from quotations in Table I.]

Month.	Farm products.									
	Barley; by sample.		Cattle: steers, choice to extra.		Cattle: steers, good to choice.		Corn: No. 2, cash.		Cotton: upland, middling.	
	Price per bushel.	Relative price.	Price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Price per bushel.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.4534	100.0	\$5.3203	100.0	\$4.7347	100.0	\$0.3804	100.0	\$0.07762	100.0
Jan.....	.5425	119.7	6.6375	124.8	5.7000	120.4	.4123	108.4	.10860	139.9
Feb.....	.5913	130.4	6.6188	124.4	5.9125	124.9	.4344	114.2	.11025	142.0
Mar.....	.6945	153.2	6.4650	121.3	5.7300	121.0	.4413	116.0	.11163	143.8
Apr.....	.7069	155.9	6.4000	120.3	5.8375	123.3	.4678	123.0	.11130	143.4
May.....	.7790	171.8	6.1650	115.9	5.6550	119.4	.5303	139.4	.12025	154.9
June.....	.7450	164.3	6.7438	126.8	6.2063	131.1	.5332	140.2	.13050	168.1
July.....	.6613	145.9	7.0188	131.9	6.3250	133.6	.5408	142.2	.13160	169.5
Aug.....	.7010	154.6	6.9950	131.5	6.1800	130.5	.5654	148.6	.13338	171.8
Sept.....	.9125	201.3	6.7500	126.9	5.8938	124.5	.6163	162.0	.12688	163.5
Oct.....	1.0313	227.5	6.7250	126.4	5.8313	123.2	.6183	162.5	.11530	148.5
Nov.....	.8670	191.2	6.2600	117.7	5.4000	114.1	.5850	153.9	.11025	142.0
Dec.....	.6700	213.9	5.8375	109.7	5.1438	108.6	.5925	155.8	.11790	151.9
Average, 1907.....	.7663	169.0	6.5442	123.0	5.8120	122.8	.5280	138.8	.11879	153.0

Month.	Hides: green, salted, packers, heavy native steers.									
	Flaxseed: No. 1.		Hay: timothy, No. 1.		Hides: green, salted, packers, heavy native steers.		Hogs: heavy.		Hogs: light.	
	Price per bushel.	Relative price.	Price per ton.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$1.1132	100.0	\$10.4304	100.0	\$0.0937	100.0	\$4.4123	100.0	\$4.4206	100.0
Jan.....	1.1500	103.3	15.5000	148.6	.1027	173.6	6.5925	149.4	6.5775	148.8
Feb.....	1.1950	107.3	16.2500	155.8	.1020	172.9	7.0313	159.4	6.9006	158.1
Mar.....	1.2050	108.2	16.0000	153.4	.1531	163.4	6.6469	150.6	6.7063	151.7
Apr.....	1.1650	104.7	16.4000	157.2	.1441	153.8	6.6225	150.1	6.6675	150.8
May.....	1.1750	105.6	17.0250	169.0	.1437	153.4	6.3281	143.4	6.4531	146.0
June.....	1.3175	118.4	20.0000	191.7	.1488	158.8	6.0813	137.8	6.1969	140.2
July.....	1.2525	112.5	18.4000	176.4	.1472	157.1	5.8875	133.4	6.2000	140.3
Aug.....	1.1475	103.1	19.0000	182.2	.1411	150.6	5.9813	135.6	6.2688	144.1
Sept.....	1.1850	106.4	17.0625	163.6	.1411	150.6	5.9938	135.8	6.4063	144.9
Oct.....	1.2000	107.8	16.6500	159.6	.1470	156.9	6.2350	141.3	6.4475	145.9
Nov.....	1.1300	101.5	15.3125	146.8	.1364	145.6	5.0063	113.5	5.0594	114.5
Dec.....	1.0475	94.1	15.0000	149.6	.1185	126.5	4.6500	105.4	4.6530	105.3
Average, 1907.....	1.1808	106.1	16.9387	162.4	.1455	155.3	6.0795	137.8	6.2163	140.6

Month.	Hops: N. Y., choice.		Oats: cash.		Rye: No. 2, cash.		Sheep: native.		Sheep: western.	
	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per bushel.	Relative price.	Price per bushel.	Relative price.	Price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.
	Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.1771	100.0	\$0.2688	100.0	\$0.5288	100.0	\$3.7280	100.0	\$3.9541
Jan.....	.2200	124.2	.3483	129.6	.6180	116.9	5.0050	133.2	4.9550	125.3
Feb.....	.2200	124.2	.3919	145.8	.6706	126.8	5.0938	135.5	5.0000	126.5
Mar.....	.2200	124.2	.4085	152.0	.6738	127.4	5.3375	142.0	5.2625	133.1
Apr.....	.1950	110.1	.4328	161.0	.6910	130.7	5.6150	149.4	5.6150	142.0
May.....	.1550	87.5	.4619	171.8	.7950	150.3	5.4500	145.0	5.4375	137.5
June.....	.1550	87.5	.4463	166.0	.8075	164.1	5.4688	145.5	5.4688	138.3
July.....	.1550	87.5	.4358	162.1	.8540	161.5	5.1150	136.1	5.1150	129.4
Aug.....	.1550	87.5	.4881	181.6	.7763	146.8	5.0625	134.7	5.0938	128.8
Sept.....	.1450	81.9	.5321	198.0	.8813	166.7	5.1563	137.2	5.1563	130.4
Oct.....	.1300	73.4	.5170	192.3	.8445	159.7	4.7400	126.1	4.7750	129.8
Nov.....	.1700	96.0	.4679	174.1	.7825	148.0	3.4375	91.5	3.4375	86.9
Dec.....	.1650	93.2	.4965	184.7	.7845	148.4	3.4200	91.0	3.4200	86.5
Average, 1907.....	.1738	98.1	.4501	167.4	.7688	145.4	4.8062	130.3	4.8835	123.5

TABLE II.—MONTHLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907 AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1880-1889)—Continued.

[Average for 1907 computed from quotations in Table I.]

Month.	Farm products.				Food, etc.					
	Wheat: regular grades, cash.		Beans: medium, choice.		Bread: crackers, Boston.		Bread: crackers, soda.		Bread: loaf (Wash. market).	
	Price per bushel.	Relative price.	Price per bushel.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per lb. before baking.	Relative price.
Average, 1880-1889.	\$0.7510	100.0	\$1.0890	100.0	\$0.0673	100.0	\$0.0718	100.0	\$0.0354	100.0
Jan.	.7290	97.1	1.5800	145.8	.0690	102.7	.0630	90.5	.0326	92.1
Feb.	.7940	105.8	1.5000	138.8	.0690	102.7	.0630	90.5	.0326	92.1
Mar.	.7884	105.0	1.5000	138.8	.0690	102.7	.0630	90.5	.0326	92.1
Apr.	.8106	107.9	1.4025	127.6	.0690	102.7	.0630	90.5	.0326	92.1
May.	.9088	121.1	1.4300	130.8	.0690	102.7	.0630	90.5	.0326	92.1
June.	.9076	120.8	1.8500	170.8	.0690	102.7	.0630	90.5	.0326	92.1
July.	.9050	120.5	1.7000	161.8	.0690	102.7	.0630	90.5	.0326	92.1
Aug.	.9292	123.7	1.6300	158.8	.0690	102.7	.0630	90.5	.0326	92.1
Sept.	1.0.94	154.5	1.8225	168.2	.0690	102.7	.0630	90.5	.0326	92.1
Oct.	1.0425	138.8	2.3000	211.7	.0690	102.7	.0630	90.5	.0326	92.1
Nov.	.9048	120.4	2.2025	203.5	.0690	102.7	.0630	90.5	.0326	92.1
Dec.	.9638	128.3	2.2875	217.0	.0690	102.7	.0630	90.5	.0326	92.1
Average, 1907.	.9073	120.8	1.7771	167.4	.0690	102.7	.0630	90.5	.0326	92.1

Month.	Food, etc.									
	Bread: loaf, homemade (N. Y. market).		Bread: loaf, Vienna (N. Y. market).		Butter: creamery, Elgin (Elgin market).		Butter: creamery, extra (N. Y. market).		Butter: dairy, New York State.	
	Price per pound before baking.	Relative price.	Price per pound before baking.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1880-1889.	\$0.0317	100.0	\$0.0352	100.0	\$0.2170	100.0	\$0.2242	100.0	\$0.2024	100.0
Jan.	.0376	118.6	.0490	139.5	.2093	142.2	.2345	140.3	.2720	134.9
Feb.	.0376	118.6	.0400	125.0	.2275	150.9	.2325	148.3	.2988	147.6
Mar.	.0376	118.6	.0400	125.0	.2075	141.7	.2344	140.2	.2963	146.4
Apr.	.0376	118.6	.0400	125.0	.2000	138.2	.2380	137.4	.2910	143.8
May.	.0376	118.6	.0400	125.0	.2375	109.4	.2325	112.6	.2444	120.8
June.	.0376	118.6	.0400	125.0	.2313	106.6	.2425	108.2	.2331	115.2
July.	.0376	118.6	.0400	125.0	.2450	112.9	.2543	113.4	.2420	119.6
Aug.	.0376	118.6	.0400	125.0	.2490	114.7	.2475	110.4	.2400	118.6
Sept.	.0376	118.6	.0400	125.0	.2813	129.6	.2750	122.7	.2650	130.9
Oct.	.0376	118.6	.0400	125.0	.2888	133.1	.2860	127.6	.2790	137.8
Nov.	.0376	118.6	.0400	125.0	.2625	121.0	.2713	121.0	.2631	130.0
Dec.	.0376	118.6	.0400	125.0	.2820	130.4	.2885	128.7	.2740	135.4
Average, 1907.	.0376	118.6	.0400	125.0	.2761	127.2	.2830	126.2	.2671	132.0

Month.	Cheese: N. Y., full cream.		Coffee: Rio, No. 7.		Eggs: new-laid, fancy, near-by.		Fish: cod, dry, bank, large.		Fish: herring, shore, round.	
	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per dozen.	Relative price.	Price per quintal.	Relative price.	Price per barrel.	Relative price.
	Average, 1880-1889.	\$0.0987	100.0	\$0.1213	100.0	\$0.1963	100.0	\$5.5849	100.0	\$3.7763
Jan.	.1490	149.9	.0713	58.3	.3190	162.0	8.0000	143.2	6.0000	158.9
Feb.	.1469	148.8	.0694	57.2	.2938	149.7	8.0000	143.2	6.0000	158.9
Mar.	.1475	149.4	.0725	59.2	.2098	106.4	8.0000	143.2	6.0000	158.9
Apr.	.1509	152.0	.0700	57.3	.1930	98.3	8.0000	143.2	6.0000	158.9
May.	.1360	137.8	.0675	55.4	.1919	97.8	8.0000	143.2	6.0000	158.9
June.	.1188	120.4	.0650	53.5	.1809	92.2	8.0000	143.2	6.0000	158.9
July.	.1235	125.1	.0631	52.1	.2165	110.3	8.0000	143.2	6.0000	158.9
Aug.	.1219	123.5	.0650	53.5	.2588	131.8	7.3750	132.1	(a)
Sept.	.1366	138.4	.0631	52.1	.2703	140.8	7.3750	132.1	(a)
Oct.	.1575	159.6	.0644	53.1	.3340	170.1	7.3750	132.1	6.5000	172.1
Nov.	.1500	152.0	.0600	49.5	.4288	218.4	7.3750	132.1	6.5000	172.1
Dec.	.1595	158.6	.0588	48.4	.4020	204.8	7.3750	132.1	6.5000	172.1
Average, 1907.	.1414	143.3	.0658	54.1	.2771	141.2	7.7396	138.6	6.1500	162.0

^a No quotation for month.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907 AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

[Average for 1907 computed from quotations in Table I.]

Month.	Food, etc.									
	Fish: mackerel, salt, large 3s.		Fish: salmon, canned.		Flour: buck-wheat.		Flour: rye.		Flour: wheat, spring patents.	
	Price per barrel.	Relative price.	Price per 12 cans.	Relative price.	Price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Price per barrel.	Relative price.	Price per barrel.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$14.1306	100.0	\$1.4731	100.0	\$1.9428	100.0	\$3.3171	100.0	\$4.2972	100.0
Jan.....	17.0000	120.3	1.6750	113.7	2.2500	115.8	3.9750	119.8	4.0850	95.1
Feb.....	16.5000	116.8	1.6750	113.7	2.1750	112.0	3.9250	118.3	4.2500	98.9
Mar.....	16.0000	113.2	1.6750	113.7	2.1000	108.1	3.9000	117.6	4.1500	96.6
Apr.....	12.0000	84.9	1.6750	113.7	2.1500	110.7	3.8500	116.1	4.1700	97.0
May.....	12.0000	84.9	1.6750	113.7	(a)	3.9500	119.1	4.8188	112.1
June.....	12.5000	88.5	1.6500	112.0	(a)	5.0500	152.2	5.0625	117.8
July.....	12.5000	88.5	(a)	(a)	5.0750	153.0	5.1350	119.5
Aug.....	12.5000	88.5	1.6500	112.0	(a)	4.9250	148.5	5.0313	117.1
Sept.....	13.0000	92.0	(a)	(a)	4.8250	145.5	5.3063	123.5
Oct.....	14.0000	99.1	(a)	3.0000	154.4	5.1750	156.0	5.5800	129.9
Nov.....	14.5000	102.6	(a)	3.2000	164.7	5.2000	156.8	5.4438	126.7
Dec.....	14.5000	102.6	(a)	3.1250	160.9	5.3750	162.0	5.4600	127.1
Average, 1907.....	13.9167	98.5	1.6679	113.2	2.5714	132.4	4.6021	138.7	4.8755	113.5

Month.	Flour: wheat, winter straights.		Fruit: apples, evaporated, choice.		Fruit: apples, sun-dried.		Fruit: currants, in barrels.		Fruit: prunes, California.	
	Price per barrel.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$3.8450	100.0	\$0.0847	100.0	\$0.0515	100.0	\$0.0375	100.0	\$0.0774	100.0
Jan.....	3.3050	86.0	.0838	98.9	.0675	131.1	.0725	193.3	.0575	74.3
Feb.....	3.3438	87.0	.0844	99.6	.0650	126.2	.0750	201.6	.0563	72.7
Mar.....	3.3250	86.5	.0825	97.4	.0638	123.9	.0744	198.4	.0556	71.8
Apr.....	3.3350	86.7	.0790	92.6	.0600	116.5	.0731	194.9	.0531	68.6
May.....	3.9750	103.4	.0725	85.6	.0600	116.5	.0681	181.6	.0500	64.6
June.....	4.2750	111.2	.0725	85.6	.0600	116.5	.0688	183.5	.0575	74.3
July.....	4.2900	111.6	.0800	94.5	(a)0700	186.7	.0613	79.2
Aug.....	4.0875	106.3	.0825	97.4	(a)0688	183.5	.0625	80.7
Sept.....	4.2375	110.2	.0900	106.3	(a)0963	176.8	.0663	85.7
Oct.....	4.5950	119.5	.0975	115.1	(a)0688	183.5	.0650	84.0
Nov.....	4.5500	118.3	.0963	113.7	(a)0688	183.5	.0650	84.0
Dec.....	4.5100	117.3	.1000	118.1	.0700	135.9	.0681	181.6	.0619	80.0
Average, 1907.....	3.9877	103.7	.0843	99.5	.0638	123.9	.0703	187.5	.0593	76.6

Month.	Fruit: raisins, California, London layer.		Glucose.		Lard: prime contract.		Meal: corn, fine white.		Meal: corn, fine yellow.	
	Price per box.	Relative price.	Price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$1.5006	100.0	\$1.4182	100.0	\$0.0654	100.0	\$1.0486	100.0	\$1.0169	100.0
Jan.....	1.5000	100.0	2.1100	148.8	.0976	149.2	1.3000	124.0	1.3000	127.8
Feb.....	1.4000	93.3	2.1100	148.8	.1065	153.7	1.3000	124.0	1.3000	127.8
Mar.....	1.4000	93.3	2.1100	148.8	.0943	144.2	1.3000	124.0	1.3000	127.8
Apr.....	1.5500	103.3	2.1100	148.8	.0904	138.2	1.3000	124.0	1.3000	127.8
May.....	1.5750	105.0	2.1100	148.8	.0936	143.1	1.2625	120.4	1.2625	124.2
June.....	1.5750	105.0	2.2850	161.1	.0904	138.2	1.3250	126.4	1.3250	130.3
July.....	1.5750	105.0	2.2850	161.1	.0911	139.3	1.3500	128.7	1.3500	132.8
Aug.....	1.8000	120.0	2.2850	161.1	.0919	140.5	1.3000	124.0	1.3000	127.8
Sept.....	1.8000	120.0	2.3850	168.2	.0923	141.1	1.4000	133.5	1.4000	137.7
Oct.....	1.8000	120.0	2.3800	167.8	.0931	142.4	1.5875	151.4	1.5875	156.1
Nov.....	1.8000	120.0	2.4800	174.9	.0864	132.1	1.5400	146.9	1.5400	151.4
Dec.....	1.7500	116.6	2.4800	174.9	.0825	127.7	1.3250	126.4	1.3250	130.3
Average, 1907.....	1.6271	108.4	2.2608	159.4	.0920	140.7	1.3575	129.5	1.3575	133.5

^a No quotation for month.

^b Average for 1893-1899.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907 AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

[Average for 1907 computed from quotations in Table I.]

Month.	Food, etc.									
	Meat: bacon, short clear sides.		Meat: bacon, short rib sides.		Meat: beef, fresh, native sides.		Meat: beef, salt, extra mess.		Meat: beef, salt, hams, western.	
	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per barrel.	Relative price.	Price per barrel.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899...	\$0.0675	100.0	\$0.0656	100.0	\$0.0771	100.0	\$8.0166	100.0	\$18.0912	100.0
Jan.....	.0681	145.3	.0946	144.2	.0815	105.7	8.8750	110.7	24.2500	134.0
Feb.....	.1028	152.3	.0991	151.1	.0896	104.5	9.2500	115.4	24.6250	136.1
Mar.....	.0997	147.7	.0930	144.8	.0890	103.8	9.7500	121.6	25.0000	138.2
Apr.....	.0261	142.4	.0924	140.9	.0853	108.0	9.7500	121.6	25.0000	138.2
May.....	.0678	144.9	.0944	143.9	.0837	111.2	9.7500	121.6	25.0000	138.2
June.....	.0953	141.2	.0928	141.5	.0919	119.2	9.7500	121.6	25.0000	138.2
July.....	.0939	139.1	.0914	139.3	.0950	123.2	9.7500	121.6	25.0000	138.2
Aug.....	.0944	139.9	.0919	139.6	.0963	124.9	9.7500	121.6	26.2500	145.1
Sept.....	.0953	141.2	.0916	139.6	.0928	120.4	10.0000	124.7	28.5000	157.5
Oct.....	.0956	141.6	.0918	139.9	.0940	121.9	10.2500	127.9	28.5000	159.2
Nov.....	.0931	137.9	.0888	135.4	.0923	121.3	10.2500	127.9	29.0000	160.3
Dec.....	.0850	125.9	.0811	123.6	.0870	112.8	10.6250	132.5	26.4000	145.9
Average, 1907.....	.0954	141.3	.0919	140.1	.0884	114.7	9.8173	122.5	26.0519	144.0

Month.	Meat: hams, smoked.		Meat: mutton, dressed.		Meat: pork, salt, mess, old to new.		Milk: fresh.		Molasses: New Orleans, open kettle.	
	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per barrel.	Relative price.	Price per quart.	Relative price.	Price per gallon.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899...	\$0.0984	100.0	\$0.0754	100.0	\$11.6332	100.0	\$0.0255	100.0	\$0.3151	100.0
Jan.....	.1313	133.4	.0860	114.1	18.0000	154.7	.0375	147.1	.4250	134.9
Feb.....	.1363	138.5	.0850	112.7	18.7500	161.2	.0350	137.3	.4250	134.9
Mar.....	.1344	136.6	.0906	120.2	18.1875	156.3	.0325	127.5	.3750	119.0
Apr.....	.1338	136.0	.0995	132.0	17.7750	152.8	.0325	127.5	.3750	119.0
May.....	.1372	139.4	.1038	137.7	18.0000	154.7	.0287	112.5	.3750	119.0
June.....	.1353	137.5	.0969	128.5	18.0625	155.3	.0250	98.0	.4250	134.9
July.....	.1348	137.0	.0810	107.4	18.2500	156.9	.0263	103.1	.4250	134.9
Aug.....	.1350	137.2	.0838	111.1	18.1250	155.8	.0309	121.2	.4250	134.9
Sept.....	.1313	133.4	.0825	109.4	17.7500	152.6	.0338	132.5	.4250	134.9
Oct.....	.1295	131.6	.0830	110.1	17.1500	147.4	.0400	156.9	.4250	134.9
Nov.....	.1222	124.2	.0825	109.4	16.0313	137.8	.0400	156.9	.4250	134.9
Dec.....	.1068	108.5	.0785	104.1	15.1250	130.0	.0400	156.9	.3800	120.6
Average, 1907.....	.1303	132.4	.0875	116.0	17.5684	151.0	.0335	131.4	.4088	129.7

Month.	Rice: domestic, choice.		Salt: American.		Soda: bicarbonate of, American.		Spices: nutmegs.		Spices: pepper, Singapore.	
	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per barrel.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899...	\$0.0561	100.0	\$0.7044	100.0	\$0.0299	100.0	\$0.4322	100.0	\$0.0749	100.0
Jan.....	.0463	82.5	.8000	113.6	.0130	62.2	.1550	35.9	.1063	141.9
Feb.....	.0463	82.5	.8000	113.6	.0130	62.2	.1475	34.1	.1063	141.9
Mar.....	.0463	82.5	.8000	113.6	.0130	62.2	.1475	34.1	.1063	141.9
Apr.....	.0463	82.5	.8500	120.7	.0130	62.2	.1513	35.0	.1063	141.9
May.....	.0463	82.5	.8500	120.7	.0130	62.2	.1475	34.1	.1013	135.2
June.....	.0525	93.6	.8500	120.7	.0130	62.2	.1475	34.1	.0988	131.9
July.....	.0525	93.6	.7900	107.9	.0130	62.2	.1325	30.7	.0944	126.0
Aug.....	.0613	109.3	.7180	101.9	.0130	62.2	.1375	31.8	.0981	131.0
Sept.....	.0613	109.3	.7900	103.6	.0130	62.2	.1338	31.0	.0981	131.0
Oct.....	.0613	109.3	.7450	105.8	.0130	62.2	.1288	29.8	.0963	128.6
Nov.....	.0600	107.0	.7960	113.0	.0130	62.2	.1263	29.2	.0919	122.7
Dec.....	.0600	107.0	.8200	116.4	.0130	62.2	.1213	28.1	.0888	118.6
Average, 1907.....	.0534	95.2	.7931	112.6	.0130	62.2	.1307	32.3	.0994	132.7

TABLE III.—MONTHLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907 AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

[Average for 1907 computed from quotations in Table I.]

Month.	Food, etc.									
	Starch: pure corn.		Sugar: 89° fair refining.		Sugar: 96° centrifugal.		Sugar: granulated.		Tallow.	
	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$0.0545	100.0	\$0.03398	100.0	\$0.03869	100.0	\$0.04727	100.0	\$0.0435	100.0
Jan.	.0600	109.5	.03016	88.8	.03516	90.9	.04598	97.3	.0641	147.4
Feb.	.0600	109.5	.02910	85.6	.03410	88.1	.04538	96.0	.0667	153.3
Mar.	.0600	109.5	.03025	89.0	.03525	91.1	.04590	96.3	.0675	155.2
Apr.	.0600	109.5	.03210	94.5	.03710	95.9	.04613	97.6	.0629	144.6
May.	.0600	109.5	.03355	98.7	.03855	99.6	.04750	100.5	.0628	144.4
June.	.0600	109.5	.03280	96.8	.03789	97.9	.04850	102.6	.0638	146.7
July.	.0600	109.5	.03361	98.9	.03861	99.8	.04763	100.8	.0625	143.7
Aug.	.0600	109.5	.03388	99.7	.03916	101.2	.04650	98.4	.0634	145.7
Sept.	.0600	109.5	.03443	101.3	.03943	101.9	.04650	98.4	.0625	142.7
Oct.	.0600	109.5	.03420	100.6	.03920	101.3	.04650	98.4	.0600	137.9
Nov.	.0600	109.5	.03256	95.8	.03756	97.1	.04613	97.6	.0572	131.5
Dec.	.0600	109.5	.03294	96.9	.03794	98.1	.04550	96.3	.0548	126.0
Average, 1907.	.0600	109.5	.03251	95.7	.03754	97.0	.04651	98.4	.0621	142.8

Month.	Tea: Formosa, fine.		Vegetables, fresh: onions.		Vegetables, fresh: potatoes, white, choice to fancy.		Vinegar: cider, Monarch.	
	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per barrel.	Relative price.	Price per bushel.	Relative price.	Price per gallon.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$0.2839	100.0	\$3.3965	100.0	\$0.4991	100.0	\$0.1478	100.0
Jan.	.2300	81.0	3.5000	103.0	.3625	78.6	.1700	115.0
Feb.	.2300	81.0	4.5000	132.4	.4275	85.7	.1700	115.0
Mar.	.2300	81.0	5.5000	161.8	.4180	83.8	.1700	115.0
Apr.	.2300	81.0	2.2500	66.2	.4338	86.9	.1700	115.0
May.	.2300	81.0	2.0000	88.2	.6380	127.8	.1700	115.0
June.	.2300	81.0	4.0000	117.7	.5175	102.7	.1700	115.0
July.	.2300	81.0	4.0000	117.7	.3625	72.6	.1700	115.0
Aug.	.2300	81.0	3.1250	91.9	(a)	-----	.1700	115.0
Sept.	.2300	81.0	2.2500	66.2	(a)	-----	.1700	115.0
Oct.	.2300	81.0	3.2500	95.6	.5650	113.2	.1700	115.0
Nov.	.2300	81.0	3.1250	91.9	.5420	108.6	.1900	128.6
Dec.	.2300	81.0	3.5000	103.0	.5200	104.2	.1800	121.8
Average, 1907.	.2300	81.0	3.5000	103.0	.4912	98.4	.1725	116.7

Month.	Cloths and clothing.									
	Bags: 2-bushel, Amoskeag.		Blankets: 11-4, 5 pounds to the pair, all wool.		Blankets: 11-4, 5 pounds to the pair, cotton warp, all wool filling.		Blankets: 11-4, 5 pounds to the pair, cotton warp, cotton and wool filling.		Boots and shoes: men's brogans, split.	
	Price per bag.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pair.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$0.1389	100.0	\$0.840	100.0	\$0.613	100.0	\$0.424	100.0	\$0.9894	100.0
Jan.	.1850	132.2	1.000	119.0	.800	130.5	.600	141.2	1.3000	131.4
Feb.	.1850	132.2	1.000	119.0	.800	130.5	.600	141.5	1.3000	131.4
Mar.	.1850	132.2	1.000	119.0	.800	130.5	.600	141.5	1.2000	131.4
Apr.	.1950	139.4	1.000	119.0	.800	130.5	.600	141.5	1.3000	131.4
May.	.1950	139.4	1.000	119.0	.800	130.5	.600	141.5	1.3000	131.4
June.	.1950	139.4	1.000	119.0	.800	130.5	.600	141.5	1.3000	131.4
July.	.1950	139.4	1.000	119.0	.800	130.5	.600	141.5	1.2750	128.9
Aug.	.1950	139.4	1.000	119.0	.800	130.5	.600	141.5	1.2750	128.9
Sept.	.2100	150.1	1.000	119.0	.800	130.5	.600	141.5	1.2500	126.3
Oct.	.1950	139.4	1.000	119.0	.800	130.5	.600	141.5	1.2500	126.3
Nov.	.1950	139.4	1.000	119.0	.800	130.5	.600	141.5	1.2250	125.8
Dec.	.1950	139.4	1.000	119.0	.800	130.5	.600	141.5	1.2000	121.3
Average, 1907.	.1938	138.5	1.000	119.0	.800	130.5	.600	141.5	1.2729	128.7

a No quotation for month.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907 AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

[Average for 1907 computed from quotations in Table I.]

Month.	Cloths and clothing.									
	Boots and shoes: men's split boots.		Boots and shoes: men's vici calf shoes, Blucher bal., vici calf top, single sole.		Boots and shoes: men's vici kid shoes, Goodyear welt.		Boots and shoes: women's solid grain shoes.		Broadcloths: first quality, black, 34-inch, XXX wool.	
	Price per 12 pairs.	Relative price.	Price per pair.	Relative price.	Price per pair.	Relative price.	Price per pair.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$16.350	100.0	\$2.376	100.0	\$2.3000	100.0	\$0.8175	100.0	\$1.7320	100.0
Jan.....	26.500	162.1	2.800	119.0	2.5000	108.7	1.0250	125.4	2.0200	116.6
Feb.....	26.500	162.1	2.800	119.0	2.5000	108.7	1.0250	125.4	2.0200	116.6
Mar.....	26.500	162.1	2.800	119.0	2.5000	108.7	1.0250	125.4	2.0200	116.6
Apr.....	26.500	162.1	2.800	119.0	2.5000	108.7	1.0250	125.4	2.0200	116.6
May.....	26.500	162.1	2.800	119.0	2.5000	108.7	1.0250	125.4	2.0200	116.6
June.....	26.500	162.1	2.800	119.0	2.5000	108.7	1.0000	122.3	2.0200	116.6
July.....	26.500	162.1	2.800	119.0	2.5000	108.7	1.0000	122.3	2.0200	116.6
Aug.....	26.000	159.0	2.800	119.0	2.5000	108.7	1.0000	122.3	2.0200	116.6
Sept.....	26.000	159.0	2.800	119.0	2.5000	108.7	1.0000	122.3	2.0200	116.6
Oct.....	25.500	156.0	2.800	119.0	2.5000	108.7	.9750	119.3	2.0200	116.6
Nov.....	25.000	152.9	2.800	119.0	2.5000	108.7	.9750	119.3	2.0200	116.6
Dec.....	25.000	152.9	2.800	119.0	2.5000	108.7	.9750	119.3	2.0200	116.6
Average, 1907.....	26.167	160.0	2.800	119.0	2.5000	108.7	1.0063	123.1	2.0200	116.6

Month.	Calico: American standard prints, 64 x 64.		Carpets: Brussels, 5-frame, Bigelow.		Carpets: ingrain, 2-ply, Lowell.		Carpets: Wilton, 5-frame, Bigelow.		Cotton flannels: 2½ yards to the pound.	
	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0533	100.0	\$1.0008	100.0	\$0.4752	100.0	\$1.8432	100.0	\$0.0706	100.0
Jan.....	.0523	105.1	1.2480	124.7	.5760	121.2	2.2800	123.7	.0938	132.9
Feb.....	.0523	105.1	1.2480	124.7	.5760	121.2	2.2800	123.7	.0938	132.9
Mar.....	.0570	114.6	1.2480	124.7	.5760	121.2	2.2800	123.7	.0938	132.9
Apr.....	.0570	114.6	1.2480	124.7	.5760	121.2	2.2800	123.7	.0938	132.9
May.....	.0570	114.6	1.2480	124.7	.5760	121.2	2.2800	123.7	.1000	141.6
June.....	.0570	114.6	1.2480	124.7	.5760	121.2	2.2800	123.7	.1000	141.6
July.....	.0618	124.2	1.2480	124.7	.5760	121.2	2.2800	123.7	.1025	145.2
Aug.....	.0618	124.2	1.2480	124.7	.5760	121.2	2.2800	123.7	.1025	145.2
Sept.....	.0665	133.7	1.2480	124.7	.5760	121.2	2.2800	123.7	.1025	145.2
Oct.....	.0665	133.7	1.2480	124.7	.5760	121.2	2.2800	123.7	.1025	145.2
Nov.....	.0665	133.7	1.2480	124.7	.5760	121.2	2.2800	123.7	.1000	141.6
Dec.....	.0665	133.7	1.2480	124.7	.5760	121.2	2.2800	123.7	.1000	141.6
Average, 1907.....	.0602	121.0	1.2480	124.7	.5760	121.2	2.2800	123.7	.0988	139.9

Month.	Cotton flannels: 3½ yards to the pound.		Cotton thread: 6-cord, 200-yard spools, J. & P. Coats.		Cotton yarns: carded, white, mule-spun, northern, cones, 10/1.		Cotton yarns: carded, white, mule-spun, northern, cones, 22/1.		Denims: Amoskeag.	
	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per spool.(c)	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0575	100.0	\$0.031008	100.0	\$0.1608	100.0	\$0.1969	100.0	\$0.1044	100.0
Jan.....	.0775	134.8	.037240	120.1	.2200	136.8	.2500	127.0	.1275	122.1
Feb.....	.0775	134.8	.037240	120.1	.2200	136.8	.2550	129.5	.1275	122.1
Mar.....	.0775	134.8	.037240	120.1	.2150	133.7	.2550	129.5	.1300	124.5
Apr.....	.0775	134.8	.037240	120.1	.2200	136.8	.2500	127.0	.1300	124.5
May.....	.0800	139.1	.037240	120.1	.2200	136.8	.2500	127.0	.1300	124.5
June.....	.0800	139.1	.045080	145.4	.2300	143.0	.2650	134.6	.1400	134.1
July.....	.0825	143.5	.045080	145.4	.2350	146.1	.2750	139.7	.1450	138.9
Aug.....	.0825	143.5	.045080	145.4	.2350	146.1	.2750	139.7	.1475	141.3
Sept.....	.0825	143.5	.045080	145.4	.2300	143.0	.2700	137.1	.1475	141.3
Oct.....	.0825	143.5	.045080	145.4	.2200	136.8	.2600	132.0	.1475	141.3
Nov.....	.0800	139.1	.045080	145.4	.2000	124.4	.2400	121.9	.1425	136.5
Dec.....	.0800	139.1	.045080	145.4	.2000	124.4	.2400	121.9	.1425	136.5
Average, 1907.....	.0800	139.1	.041813	134.8	.2204	137.1	.2571	130.6	.1381	132.3

a Men's calf bal. shoes, Goodyear welt, dongola top.

b For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328; average price for 1906, \$2.775.

c Calico, Coheco prints.

d For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328; average price for 1906, \$0.0495.

e Freight paid.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907 AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

[Average for 1907 computed from quotations in Table I.]

Month.	Cloths and clothing.									
	Drillings: brown, Peppereil.		Drillings: 30-inch, Stark A.		Flannels: white, 4-4, Ballard Vale No. 3.		Ginghams: Amoskeag.		Ginghams: Lancaster.	
	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0572	100.0	\$0.0521	100.0	\$0.3768	100.0	\$0.0533	100.0	\$0.0573	100.0
Jan.....	.0825	144.2	.0729	139.9	.4613	122.4	.0600	112.6	.0650	113.4
Feb.....	.0825	144.2	.0768	147.4	.4613	122.4	.0600	112.6	.0675	117.8
Mar.....	.0825	144.2	.0764	146.6	.4613	122.4	.0600	112.6	.0675	117.8
Apr.....	.0825	144.2	.0760	145.9	.4613	122.4	.0600	112.6	.0675	117.8
May.....	.0825	144.2	.0824	158.2	.4613	122.4	.0600	112.6	.0675	117.8
June.....	.0825	144.2	.0787	151.1	.4613	122.4	.0600	112.6	.0675	117.8
July.....	.0825	144.2	.0804	154.3	.4613	122.4	.0700	131.3	.0675	117.8
Aug.....	.0825	144.2	.0742	142.4	.4613	122.4	.0750	140.7	.0675	117.8
Sept.....	.0825	144.2	.0812	155.9	.4687	124.4	.0750	140.7	.0725	126.5
Oct.....	.0825	144.2	.0782	150.1	.4687	124.4	.0700	131.3	.0725	126.5
Nov.....	.0825	144.2	.0791	151.8	.4687	124.4	.0700	131.3	.0725	126.5
Dec.....	.0825	144.2	.0822	157.8	.4687	124.4	.0700	131.3	.0725	126.5
Average, 1907.....	.0825	144.2	.0782	150.1	.4638	123.1	.0558	123.5	.0690	120.4

Month.	Horse blankets: 6 pounds each, all wool.		Hosiery: men's cotton half hose, seamless, fast black, 20 to 22 ounce.		Hosiery: men's cotton, half hose, seamless, 84 needles.		Hosiery: women's combed Egyptian cotton hose, high spliced heel.		Hosiery: women's cotton hose, seamless, fast black, 26 to 28 ounce.	
	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per 12 pairs. a	Relative price. a	Price per 12 pairs.	Relative price.	Price per 12 pairs.	Relative price.	Price per 12 pairs.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.573	100.0	\$0.9555	100.0	\$0.7845	100.0	^b \$1.850	100.0	\$0.9310	100.0
Jan.....	.750	130.9	¢.6615	¢85.3	.7500	95.6	2.025	109.5	¢.7995	¢81.6
Feb.....	.750	130.9	¢.6615	¢85.3	.7500	95.6	2.025	109.5	¢.7995	¢81.6
Mar.....	.750	130.9	¢.6615	¢85.3	.7500	95.6	2.025	109.5	¢.7995	¢81.6
Apr.....	.750	130.9	¢.6860	¢88.5	.7500	95.6	2.025	109.5	¢.7840	¢84.2
May.....	.750	130.9	¢.6860	¢88.5	.7500	95.6	2.025	109.5	¢.7840	¢84.2
June.....	.750	130.9	¢.6860	¢88.5	.7500	95.6	2.025	109.5	¢.7840	¢84.2
July.....	.750	130.9	¢.6860	¢88.5	.7500	95.6	2.025	109.5	¢.7840	¢84.2
Aug.....	.750	130.9	¢.6860	¢88.5	.7500	95.6	2.025	109.5	¢.7840	¢84.2
Sept.....	.750	130.9	¢.7350	¢94.8	.7500	95.6	2.025	109.5	¢.8330	¢89.5
Oct.....	.750	130.9	¢.7350	¢94.8	.7500	95.6	2.025	109.5	¢.8330	¢89.5
Nov.....	.750	130.9	¢.7350	¢94.8	.7500	95.6	2.025	109.5	¢.8330	¢89.5
Dec.....	.750	130.9	¢.7350	¢94.8	.7500	95.6	2.025	109.5	¢.8330	¢89.5
Average, 1907.....	.750	130.9	¢.7350	¢94.8	.7500	95.6	2.025	109.5	¢.8330	¢89.5

^a The price for 1890-1903 is for two-thread goods. Prices for 1904 to 1907 are for single-thread goods. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328; price of single-thread goods, \$0.6370 in April, 1906, and \$0.6615 in September, 1906.

^b Average for 1893-1899.

^c September, 1906, price.

^d April, 1907, price.

^e September, 1907, price.

^f September, 1907, price, which represents the bulk of sales during the year.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907 AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

[Average for 1907 computed from quotations in Table I.]

Month.	Cloths and clothing.									
	Leather: harness, oak, packer's hides, heavy, No. 1.		Leather: sole, hemlock.		Leather: sole, oak.		Leather: wax calf, 30 to 40 lbs. to the dozen, B grade.		Linen shoe thread: 10s, Barbour.	
	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per foot.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.2590	100.0	\$0.1939	100.0	\$0.3363	100.0	\$0.6545	100.0	\$0.8748	100.1
Jan.....	.3800	^b 131.1	.2625	135.4	.4050	120.4	.7250	110.8	.8930	102.1
Feb.....	.3800	^b 131.1	.2625	135.4	.3850	114.5	.7250	110.8	.8930	102.1
Mar.....	.3800	^b 131.1	.2625	135.4	.3750	111.5	.7750	118.4	.8930	102.1
Apr.....	.3800	^b 131.1	.2650	136.7	.3750	111.5	.7750	118.4	.8930	102.1
May.....	.3800	^b 131.1	.2650	136.7	.3750	111.5	.7750	118.4	.8930	102.1
June.....	.3700	^b 127.7	.2650	136.7	.3750	111.5	.7750	118.4	.8930	102.1
July.....	.3700	^b 127.7	.2650	136.7	.3650	108.5	.7750	118.4	.8930	102.1
Aug.....	.3700	^b 127.7	.2650	136.7	.3800	113.0	.7750	118.4	.8930	102.1
Sept.....	.3700	^b 127.7	.2650	136.7	.3800	113.0	.7750	118.4	.8930	102.1
Oct.....	.3700	^b 127.7	.2650	136.7	.3950	117.5	.7750	118.4	.8930	102.1
Nov.....	.3700	^b 127.7	.2650	136.7	.3900	116.0	.7750	118.4	.8930	102.1
Dec.....	.3650	^b 125.9	.2650	136.7	.3850	114.5	.7750	118.4	.8930	102.1
Average, 1907.....	.3738	^b 129.0	.2644	136.4	.3821	113.6	.7667	117.1	.8930	102.1

Month.	Linen thread: 3-cord, 200-yard spools, Barbour.		Overcoatings: chinchilla, B-rough, all wool.		Overcoatings: chinchilla, cotton warp, C. C. grade.		Overcoatings: covert cloth, light weight, staple.		Overcoatings: Kersey, standard, 27 to 28 ounce.	
	Price per dozen spools.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.8522	100.0	\$2.1419	100.0	\$0.4883	100.0	\$2.3286	100.0	\$1.2472	100.0
Jan.....	.8835	103.7	2.5575	119.4	.4900	100.3	2.2568	96.9	1.9250	154.3
Feb.....	.8835	103.7	2.5575	119.4	.4950	101.4	2.2568	96.9	1.9750	158.4
Mar.....	.8835	103.7	2.5575	119.4	.4950	101.4	2.2568	96.9	1.9750	158.4
Apr.....	.8835	103.7	2.5575	119.4	.4950	101.4	2.2568	96.9	1.9750	158.4
May.....	.9300	109.1	2.5575	119.4	.5000	102.4	2.2568	96.9	1.9750	158.4
June.....	.9300	109.1	2.5575	119.4	.4900	100.3	2.2568	96.9	1.9750	158.4
July.....	.9300	109.1	2.5575	119.4	.5050	103.4	2.2568	96.9	1.9750	158.4
Aug.....	.9300	109.1	2.5575	119.4	.4900	100.3	2.2568	96.9	1.9750	158.4
Sept.....	.9300	109.1	2.5575	119.4	.4900	100.3	2.2568	96.9	1.9750	158.4
Oct.....	.9300	109.1	2.5575	119.4	.5000	102.4	2.2568	96.9	1.9750	158.4
Nov.....	.9300	109.1	2.5575	119.4	.4800	98.3	2.2568	96.9	1.9750	158.4
Dec.....	.9300	109.1	2.5575	119.4	.4600	94.2	2.2568	96.9	1.9750	158.4
Average, 1907.....	.9145	107.3	2.5575	119.4	.4908	100.5	2.2568	96.9	1.9708	158.0

^a Leather: harness, oak, country middles, 14 pounds and up (except overweights, 20 pounds and up).
^b For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328; average price for 1906, \$0.3713.
^c Average for 1897-1899.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907 AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

[Average for 1907 computed from quotations in Table I.]

Month.	Cloths and clothing.									
	Print cloths: 28-inch, 64x64.		Shawls: standard, all wool (low grade), 72 x 144 inch, 40 to 42 ounce.		Sheetings: bleached, 9-4, Atlantic.		Sheetings: bleached, 10-4, Pepperell.		Sheetings: bleached, 10-4, Wamsutta S. T.	
	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per shawl.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.028380	100.0	\$4.5787	100.0	\$0.1836	100.0	\$0.1884	100.0	\$0.2949	100.0
Jan.....	.040000	140.9	2.0400	107.0	.2096	121.6	.2600	138.0	.2900	98.3
Feb.....	.041875	147.6	2.0400	107.0	.2310	126.0	.2600	138.0	.2900	98.3
Mar.....	.045000	158.6	2.0400	107.0	.2187	120.8	.2800	148.6	.2900	98.3
Apr.....	.045000	158.6	2.0400	107.0	.2190	120.7	.2800	148.6	.3100	105.1
May.....	.045781	161.3	2.0400	107.0	.2174	120.1	.2800	148.6	.3100	105.1
June.....	.048500	170.9	2.0400	107.0	.2331	126.1	.3000	159.2	.3100	105.1
July.....	.050313	177.3	2.0400	107.0	.2174	120.1	.3000	159.2	.3100	105.1
Aug.....	.052500	185.0	2.0400	107.0	.2127	123.4	.3000	159.2	.3100	105.1
Sept.....	.052500	185.0	2.0400	107.0	.2126	123.3	.3000	159.2	.3100	105.1
Oct.....	.052500	185.0	2.0400	107.0	.2495	144.7	.3000	159.2	.3100	105.1
Nov.....	.050500	177.9	2.0400	107.0	.2789	161.8	.3000	159.2	.3100	105.1
Dec.....	.044963	155.3	2.0400	107.0	.2779	161.2	.3000	159.2	.3100	105.1
Average, 1907.....	.047512	167.4	2.0400	107.0	.2315	126.3	.2883	153.0	.3050	103.4

Month.	Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Atlantic A.		Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Indian Head.		Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Mass. Mills, Flying Horse brand.		Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Pepperell II.		Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Fruit of the Loom.	
	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0553	100.0	\$0.0626	100.0	\$0.0525	100.0	\$0.0551	100.0	\$0.0728	100.0
Jan.....	.0751	135.8	.0825	131.8	.0750	122.7	.0700	127.0	.0950	130.5
Feb.....	.0749	135.4	.0825	131.8	.0775	126.8	.0700	127.0	.1000	137.4
Mar.....	.0756	136.7	.0825	131.8	.0775	126.8	.0725	131.6	.1000	137.4
Apr.....	.0753	136.2	.0825	131.8	.0775	126.8	.0725	131.6	.1100	153.1
May.....	.0750	135.6	.0825	131.8	.0775	126.8	.0725	131.6	.1100	153.1
June.....	.0787	142.3	.0825	131.8	.0775	126.8	.0750	136.1	.1150	158.0
July.....	.0760	137.4	.0825	131.8	.0800	130.9	.0750	136.1	.1150	158.0
Aug.....	.0772	139.6	.0850	135.8	.0800	130.9	.0775	140.7	.1150	158.0
Sept.....	.0774	140.0	.0850	135.8	.0800	130.9	.0775	140.7	.1200	164.8
Oct.....	.0780	141.0	.0850	135.8	.0775	126.8	.0775	140.7	.1200	164.8
Nov.....	.0805	145.6	.0850	135.8	.0775	126.8	.0775	140.7	.1200	164.8
Dec.....	.0784	141.8	.0850	135.8	.0750	122.7	.0775	140.7	.1200	164.8
Average, 1907.....	.0768	138.9	.0835	133.4	.0777	127.1	.0746	135.4	.1117	153.4

Month.	Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Hope.		Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Lonsdale.		Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Wamsutta XX.		Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Williamsville, A1.		Silk: raw, Italian, classical.	
	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0630	100.0	\$0.0727	100.0	\$0.0948	100.0	\$0.0876	100.0	\$4.2558	100.0
Jan.....	.0831	131.9	.0925	127.2	.1075	113.4	.1050	119.9	5.3460	125.6
Feb.....	.0855	135.7	.0975	134.1	.1075	113.4	.1075	122.7	5.2223	122.7
Mar.....	.0855	135.7	.0975	134.1	.1075	113.4	.1150	131.3	5.3708	129.2
Apr.....	.0855	135.7	.0975	134.1	.1075	113.4	.1150	131.3	5.6678	133.2
May.....	.0855	135.7	.0975	134.1	.1075	113.4	.1150	131.3	5.9153	139.0
June.....	.0855	135.7	.0975	134.1	.1075	113.4	.1175	134.1	5.8163	136.7
July.....	.0974	154.6	.1100	151.3	.1125	118.7	.1200	137.0	5.7668	135.5
Aug.....	.0974	154.6	.1100	151.3	.1125	118.7	.1200	137.0	5.5935	131.4
Sept.....	.0974	154.6	.1100	151.3	.1125	118.7	.1200	137.0	5.8163	136.7
Oct.....	.0974	154.6	.1100	151.3	.1125	118.7	.1200	137.0	5.8163	136.7
Nov.....	.0974	154.6	.1100	151.3	.1125	118.7	.1200	137.0	5.6183	132.0
Dec.....	.0879	139.5	1.0000	137.6	.1125	118.7	.1200	137.0	5.0243	118.1
Average, 1907.....	.0905	143.7	.1025	141.0	.1100	116.0	.1163	132.8	5.5812	131.1

a Shawls: Standard, all wool, 72 x 144 inch, 42 ounce, made of high-grade wool.

b Sheetings: Bleached, 10-4, Atlantic.

c For method of computing relative price see pages 327 and 328; average price for 1906, \$2.45.

d For method of computing relative price see pages 327 and 328; average price for 1906, \$0.2095.

e Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Stark A. A.

f For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328; average price for 1906, \$0.0767.

g Nominal.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907 AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

[Average for 1907 computed from quotations in Table I.]

Month.	Metals and implements.									
	Nails: wire, 8-penny, fence and common.		Pig iron: Bessemer.		Pig iron: foundry No. 1.		Pig iron: foundry No. 2.		Pig iron: gray forge, southern, coke.	
	Price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Price per ton.	Relative price.	Price per ton.	Relative price.	Price per ton.	Relative price.	Price per ton.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$2.1618	100.0	\$13.7783	100.0	\$14.8042	100.0	\$13.0533	100.0	\$11.0892	100.0
Jan.....	2.1000	97.1	23.3500	169.5	27.5000	185.8	25.6000	196.1	23.2500	209.7
Feb.....	2.1000	97.1	23.2500	168.7	27.3700	184.9	25.6000	196.1	23.2500	209.7
Mar.....	2.1000	97.1	22.9500	166.6	26.8700	181.5	24.8500	190.4	22.6000	203.8
Apr.....	2.1000	97.1	23.5500	170.9	26.5000	179.4	25.1000	192.3	23.2500	209.7
May.....	2.1000	97.1	24.0500	174.5	26.6000	179.7	25.3500	194.2	22.0000	198.4
June.....	2.1000	97.1	24.5000	177.8	25.7500	173.9	26.6500	204.2	22.0000	198.4
July.....	2.1000	97.1	23.8000	172.7	23.6200	159.5	25.9000	198.4	22.0000	198.4
Aug.....	2.1000	97.1	22.9500	166.6	22.5000	152.0	23.9000	183.1	21.0000	189.4
Sept.....	2.1500	99.5	22.8500	165.8	21.1900	143.1	22.9000	175.4	19.2500	173.6
Oct.....	2.1500	99.5	22.9000	166.2	20.4000	137.8	21.2750	163.0	19.0000	171.3
Nov.....	2.1500	99.5	20.3500	147.7	19.4400	131.3	20.1500	154.4	17.7500	160.1
Dec.....	2.1500	99.5	19.6000	142.3	18.9400	127.9	19.1500	146.7	16.5000	148.8
Average, 1907.....	2.1167	97.9	22.8417	165.8	23.8950	161.4	23.8688	182.9	20.9875	189.3

Month.	Planes: Bailey No. 5.		Quicksilver.		Saws: cross-cut, Disston.		Saws: hand, Disston No. 7.		Shovels: Ames No. 2.	
	Price per plane.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per saw.	Relative price.	Price per dozen.	Relative price.	Price per dozen.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$1.3220	100.0	\$0.5593	100.0	\$1.6038	100.0	\$12.7800	100.0	\$7.8658	100.0
Jan.....	1.5300	115.7	.5400	96.5	1.6038	100.0	12.9500	101.3	7.8400	99.7
Feb.....	1.5300	115.7	.5400	96.5	1.6038	100.0	12.9500	101.3	7.8400	99.7
Mar.....	1.5300	115.7	.5400	96.5	1.6038	100.0	12.9500	101.3	7.8400	99.7
Apr.....	1.5300	115.7	.5300	94.8	1.6038	100.0	12.9500	101.3	7.8400	99.7
May.....	1.5300	115.7	.5300	94.8	1.6038	100.0	12.9500	101.3	7.8400	99.7
June.....	1.5300	115.7	.5300	94.8	1.6038	100.0	12.9500	101.3	7.8400	99.7
July.....	1.5300	115.7	.5150	92.1	1.6038	100.0	12.9500	101.3	7.8400	99.7
Aug.....	1.5300	115.7	.5150	92.1	1.6038	100.0	12.9500	101.3	7.8400	99.7
Sept.....	1.5300	115.7	.5150	92.1	1.6038	100.0	12.9500	101.3	7.8400	99.7
Oct.....	1.5300	115.7	.5400	96.5	1.6038	100.0	12.9500	101.3	7.8400	99.7
Nov.....	1.5300	115.7	.6100	109.1	1.6038	100.0	12.9500	101.3	7.8400	99.7
Dec.....	1.5300	115.7	.6100	109.1	1.6038	100.0	12.9500	101.3	7.8400	99.7
Average, 1907.....	1.5300	115.7	.5429	97.1	1.6038	100.0	12.9500	101.3	7.8400	99.7

Month.	Silver: bar, fine.		Spelter: western.		Steel billets.		Steel rails.		Steel sheets: black, No. 27.	
	Price per ounce.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per ton.	Relative price.	Price per ton.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.74899	100.0	\$0.0452	100.0	\$21.5262	100.0	\$26.0654	100.0	\$0.0224	100.0
Jan.....	.69333	92.6	.0668	147.8	29.4000	136.6	28.0000	107.4	.0250	111.6
Feb.....	.69437	92.7	.0713	157.7	29.5000	137.0	28.0000	107.4	.0250	111.6
Mar.....	.68110	90.9	.0695	153.8	29.0000	134.7	28.0000	107.4	.0250	111.6
Apr.....	.66062	88.2	.0688	152.2	30.2500	140.5	28.0000	107.4	.0250	111.6
May.....	.66648	89.0	.0663	146.7	30.3000	140.8	28.0000	107.4	.0250	111.6
June.....	.67820	90.5	.0650	143.8	29.6200	137.6	28.0000	107.4	.0250	111.6
July.....	.68759	91.8	.0638	141.2	30.0000	139.4	28.0000	107.4	.0250	111.6
Aug.....	.69415	92.7	.0585	129.4	29.4000	136.6	28.0000	107.4	.0250	111.6
Sept.....	.68430	91.4	.0553	122.3	29.3700	136.4	28.0000	107.4	.0250	111.6
Oct.....	.63111	84.3	.0540	119.5	28.2000	131.0	28.0000	107.4	.0250	111.6
Nov.....	.59403	79.3	.0550	121.7	28.0000	130.1	28.0000	107.4	.0250	111.6
Dec.....	.55215	73.7	.0463	102.4	28.0000	130.1	28.0000	107.4	.0250	111.6
Average, 1907.....	.65979	88.1	.0617	136.5	29.2533	135.9	28.0000	107.4	.0250	111.6

* Average for the period July, 1894, to December, 1899.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907 AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

[Average for 1907 computed from quotations in Table I.]

Month.	Cloths and clothing.									
	Women's dress goods: cashmere, all wool, 10-11 twill, 35-inch, Atlantic J.		Women's dress goods: cashmere, cotton warp, 9-twill, 4-4, Atlantic F.		Women's dress goods: cashmere, cotton warp, 36-inch, Hamilton.		Women's dress goods: Danish cloth, cotton warp and worsted filling, 22-inch.		Women's dress goods: Franklin sackings, 6-4.	
	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per yard.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.2905	100.0	\$0.1520	100.0	\$0.0883	100.0	\$0.0680	100.0	\$0.5151	100.0
Jan.....	.3920	134.9	.2205	145.1	.1960	227.8	.1250	182.4	.6650	129.1
Feb.....	.3920	134.9	.2205	145.1	.1960	227.8	.1250	182.4	.6650	129.1
Mar.....	.3920	134.9	.2205	145.1	.1960	227.8	.1250	182.4	.6650	129.1
Apr.....	.3920	134.9	.2205	145.1	.1960	227.8	.1250	182.4	.6650	129.1
May.....	.3920	134.9	.2205	145.1	.1960	227.8	.1250	182.4	.6650	129.1
June.....	.3920	134.9	.2254	148.3	.1960	227.8	.1250	182.4	.6650	129.1
July.....	.3920	134.9	.2254	148.3	.1960	227.8	.1250	182.4	.6650	129.1
Aug.....	.3920	134.9	.2254	148.3	.1960	227.8	.1250	182.4	.6650	129.1
Sept.....	.3920	134.9	.2254	148.3	.1960	227.8	.1250	182.4	.6650	129.1
Oct.....	.3920	134.9	.2254	148.3	.1960	227.8	.1250	182.4	.6175	119.9
Nov.....	.3920	134.9	.2254	148.3	.1960	227.8	.1250	182.4	.6175	119.9
Dec.....	.3920	134.9	.2254	148.3	.1960	227.8	.1250	182.4	.6175	119.9
Average, 1907.....	.3920	134.9	.2234	147.0	.1960	227.8	.1250	182.4	.6531	126.8

Month.	Women's dress goods: poplar cloth, cotton warp and worsted filling, 36-inch.		Wool: Ohio, fine fleece (X and XX grade), scoured.		Wool: Ohio, medium fleece (1 and 2 grade), scoured.		Worsted yarns: 2-40s, Australian fine.		Worsted yarns: 2-40s, XXXX, white, in skeins.	
	Price per yard.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.
	Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0758	100.0	\$0.5526	100.0	\$0.4564	100.0	\$1.0183	100.0	\$1.0071
Jan.....	.1900	109.6	.7021	127.1	.5270	115.5	1.3000	127.7	1.3000	129.1
Feb.....	.1900	109.6	.7021	127.1	.5270	115.5	1.3000	127.7	1.3000	129.1
Mar.....	.1900	109.6	.7021	127.1	.5135	112.5	1.3000	127.7	1.3000	129.1
Apr.....	.1900	109.6	.7021	127.1	.5135	112.5	1.3000	127.7	1.3000	129.1
May.....	.1900	109.6	.7021	127.1	.5135	112.5	1.3000	127.7	1.3000	129.1
June.....	.1900	109.6	.7234	130.9	.5135	112.5	1.3000	127.7	1.2800	127.1
July.....	.1900	109.6	.7234	130.9	.5135	112.5	1.3000	127.7	1.2800	127.1
Aug.....	.1900	109.6	.7447	134.8	.5135	112.5	1.3000	127.7	1.2800	127.1
Sept.....	.1900	109.6	.7447	134.8	.5135	112.5	1.3000	127.7	1.2800	127.1
Oct.....	.1900	109.6	.7234	130.9	.5135	112.5	1.3000	127.7	1.3000	129.1
Nov.....	.1900	109.6	.7234	130.9	.5135	112.5	1.2800	125.7	1.3000	129.1
Dec.....	.2000	115.4	.7234	130.9	.5135	112.5	1.2800	125.7	1.3000	129.1
Average, 1907.....	.1908	110.1	.7181	129.9	.5158	113.0	1.2967	127.3	1.2933	128.4

a Women's dress goods: cashmere, cotton warp, 27-inch, Hamilton.

b Women's dress goods: alpaca, cotton warp, 22-inch, Hamilton.

c For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328; average price for 1906, \$0.1911.

d For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328; average price for 1906, \$0.1217.

e Women's dress goods: cashmere, cotton warp, 22-inch, Hamilton.

f For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328; average price for 1906, \$0.1900.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907 AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

[Average for 1907 computed from quotations in Table I.]

Month.	Fuel and lighting.									
	Candles: adamantine, 6s, 14-ounce.		Coal: anthracite, broken.		Coal: anthracite, chestnut.		Coal: anthracite, egg.		Coal: anthracite, stove.	
	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per ton.	Relative price.	Price per ton.	Relative price.	Price per ton.	Relative price.	Price per ton.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0782	100.0	\$3.3669	100.0	\$3.5953	100.0	\$3.5936	100.0	\$3.7949	100.0
Jan.....	.0738	94.4	4.2042	124.9	4.9507	137.7	4.9512	137.8	4.9502	130.4
Feb.....	.0738	94.4	4.2020	124.8	4.9500	137.7	4.9500	137.7	4.9501	130.4
Mar.....	.0738	94.4	4.2011	124.8	4.9509	137.7	4.9500	137.7	4.9521	130.5
Apr.....	.0738	94.4	4.2007	124.8	4.4504	123.8	4.4500	123.8	4.4503	117.3
May.....	.0738	94.4	4.2015	124.8	4.5334	126.1	4.5265	126.0	4.5283	119.3
June.....	.0738	94.4	4.2049	124.9	4.6478	129.3	4.6434	129.2	4.6455	122.4
July.....	.0738	94.4	4.2066	124.9	4.7442	132.0	4.7399	131.9	4.7434	125.0
Aug.....	.0738	94.4	4.2034	124.8	4.8417	134.7	4.8444	134.8	4.8433	127.6
Sept.....	.0738	94.4	4.2069	124.9	4.9403	137.4	4.9500	137.7	4.9438	130.3
Oct.....	.0750	95.9	4.2075	125.0	4.9483	137.6	4.9510	137.8	4.9503	130.4
Nov.....	.0750	95.9	4.2048	124.9	4.9416	137.4	4.9470	137.7	4.9500	130.4
Dec.....	.0750	95.9	4.2047	124.9	4.9450	137.5	4.9500	137.7	4.9503	130.4
Average, 1907.....	.0741	94.8	4.2040	124.9	4.8204	134.1	4.8211	134.2	4.8215	127.1

Month.	Coal: bituminous, Georges Creek (at mine).		Coal: bituminous, Georges Creek (l. o. b. N. Y. Harbor).		Coal: bituminous, Pittsburg (Youghlenny).		Coke: Connells-ville, furnace.		Matches: parlor, domestic.	
	Price per ton.	Relative price.	Price per ton.	Relative price.	Price per bushel.	Relative price.	Price per ton.	Relative price.	Price per gross of boxes (200s).	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.8887	100.0	\$2.7429	100.0	\$0.0643	100.0	\$1.6983	100.0	\$1.7563	100.0
Jan.....	1.5000	168.8	3.2000	116.7	.0800	124.4	3.5500	209.0	1.5000	85.4
Feb.....	1.5000	168.8	3.2000	116.7	.0800	124.4	3.5750	210.5	1.5000	85.4
Mar.....	1.5000	168.8	3.2000	116.7	.0800	124.4	3.2500	191.4	1.5000	85.4
Apr.....	1.5000	168.8	3.2000	116.7	.0800	124.4	2.8000	164.9	1.5000	85.4
May.....	1.5000	168.8	3.2000	116.7	.0800	124.4	2.8000	164.9	1.5000	85.4
June.....	1.5000	168.8	3.2000	116.7	.0800	124.4	2.3250	136.9	1.5000	85.4
July.....	1.5000	168.8	3.2000	116.7	.0800	124.4	2.5000	147.2	1.5000	85.4
Aug.....	1.5000	168.8	3.2000	116.7	.0800	124.4	2.6250	154.6	1.5000	85.4
Sept.....	1.4500	163.2	3.1500	114.8	.0825	128.3	2.7750	163.4	1.5000	85.4
Oct.....	1.7500	196.9	3.4500	125.8	.0850	132.2	2.9500	173.7	1.5000	85.4
Nov.....	1.7500	196.9	3.4500	125.8	.0900	140.0	2.7500	161.9	1.5000	85.4
Dec.....	1.5000	168.8	3.2000	116.7	.0900	140.0	2.0000	117.8	1.5000	85.4
Average, 1907.....	1.5375	173.0	3.2375	118.0	.0824	128.1	2.8250	166.3	1.5000	85.4

Month.	Fuel and lighting.						Metals and implements.			
	Petroleum: crude.		Petroleum: refined, for export.		Petroleum: refined, 150° fire test, w. w.		Augers: extra, 1/2-inch.		Axes: M. C. O., Yankee.	
	Price per barrel.	Relative price.	Price per gallon.	Relative price.	Price per gallon.	Relative price.	Price per auger.	Relative price.	Price per ax.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.9102	100.0	\$0.0649	100.0	\$0.0850	100.0	\$0.1608	100.0	\$0.4693	100.0
Jan.....	1.5800	173.6	.0750	115.6	.1300	146.1	.3600	223.9	.6800	144.9
Feb.....	1.5800	173.6	.0775	119.4	.1350	151.7	.3500	223.9	.6800	144.9
Mar.....	1.6300	179.1	.0775	119.4	.1350	151.7	.3600	223.9	.6800	144.9
Apr.....	1.7800	195.6	.0820	126.3	.1350	151.7	.3600	223.9	.6800	144.9
May.....	1.7800	195.6	.0820	126.3	.1350	151.7	.3600	223.9	.6800	144.9
June.....	1.7800	195.6	.0820	126.3	.1350	151.7	.3600	223.9	.6800	144.9
July.....	1.7800	195.6	.0845	130.2	.1350	151.7	.3600	223.9	.6800	144.9
Aug.....	1.7800	195.6	.0845	130.2	.1350	151.7	.3600	223.9	.6800	144.9
Sept.....	1.7800	195.6	.0845	130.2	.1350	151.7	.3600	223.9	.6800	144.9
Oct.....	1.7800	195.6	.0845	130.2	.1350	151.7	.3600	223.9	.6800	144.9
Nov.....	1.7800	195.6	.0875	134.8	.1350	151.7	.3600	223.9	.6800	144.9
Dec.....	1.7800	195.6	.0875	134.8	.1350	151.7	.3600	223.9	.6800	144.9
Average, 1907.....	1.7342	190.5	.0824	127.0	.1346	151.2	.3600	223.9	.6800	144.9

TABLE II.—MONTHLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907 AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

[Average for 1907 computed from quotations in Table I.]

Month.	House furnishing goods.									
	Furniture: bedroom sets, ash.		Furniture: chairs, bedroom, maple.		Furniture: chairs, kitchen.		Furniture: tables, kitchen.		Glassware: tipples, 4-inch.	
	Price per set.	Relative price.	Price per dozen.	Relative price.	Price per dozen.	Relative price.	Price per dozen.	Relative price.	Price per dozen.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$10.555	100.0	\$6.195	100.0	\$3.8255	100.0	\$14.425	100.0	\$0.2120	100.0
Jan.	14.500	137.4	10.000	161.4	2.5000	142.8	15.000	134.7	.3400	159.9
Feb.	14.500	137.4	10.000	161.4	2.5000	142.8	15.000	134.7	.3400	159.9
Mar.	14.500	137.4	10.000	161.4	2.5000	142.8	15.000	134.7	.3400	159.9
Apr.	14.500	137.4	10.000	161.4	2.5000	142.8	15.000	134.7	.3400	159.9
May	14.500	137.4	10.000	161.4	2.5000	142.8	15.000	134.7	.3400	159.9
June	14.500	137.4	10.000	161.4	2.5000	142.8	15.000	134.7	.3400	159.9
July	14.500	137.4	10.000	161.4	2.5000	142.8	15.000	134.7	.3400	159.9
Aug.	14.500	137.4	10.000	161.4	2.5000	142.8	15.000	134.7	.3400	159.9
Sept.	14.500	137.4	10.000	161.4	2.5000	142.8	15.000	134.7	.3400	159.9
Oct.	14.500	137.4	10.000	161.4	2.5000	142.8	15.000	134.7	.3400	159.9
Nov.	14.500	137.4	10.000	161.4	2.5000	142.8	15.000	134.7	.3400	159.9
Dec.	14.500	137.4	10.000	161.4	2.5000	142.8	15.000	134.7	.3400	159.9
Average, 1907.	14.500	137.4	10.000	161.4	2.7017	132.4	15.000	134.7	.3400	159.9

Month.	Glassware: pitchers, 4-gallon, common.		Glassware: tumblers, 1-pint, common.		Table cutlery: carvers, stag handles.		Table cutlery: knives and forks, morseho handles.		Wooden ware: pails, oak-grained.	
	Price per dozen.	Relative price.	Price per dozen.	Relative price.	Price per pair.	Relative price.	Price per gross.	Relative price.	Price per bushel.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$1.175	100.0	\$0.1775	100.0	\$0.80	100.0	\$6.0000	100.0	\$1.2000	100.0
Jan.	1.050	89.4	.1500	84.5	.75	93.8	4.3000	104.0	1.7000	141.9
Feb.	1.050	89.4	.1500	84.5	.75	93.8	4.3000	104.0	1.7000	141.9
Mar.	1.050	89.4	.1500	84.5	.75	93.8	4.3000	104.0	1.7000	141.9
Apr.	1.050	89.4	.1500	84.5	.75	93.8	4.3000	104.0	1.7000	141.9
May	1.050	89.4	.1500	84.5	.75	93.8	4.3000	104.0	1.7000	141.9
June	1.050	89.4	.1500	84.5	.75	93.8	4.3000	104.0	1.7000	141.9
July	1.050	89.4	.1500	84.5	.85	106.2	4.0000	108.9	1.5000	125.0
Aug.	1.050	89.4	.1500	84.5	.85	106.2	4.0000	108.9	1.5000	125.0
Sept.	1.050	89.4	.1500	84.5	.85	106.2	4.0000	108.9	1.5000	125.0
Oct.	1.050	89.4	.1500	84.5	.85	106.2	4.0000	108.9	1.5000	125.0
Nov.	1.050	89.4	.1500	84.5	.85	106.2	4.3000	104.0	1.7000	141.9
Dec.	1.050	89.4	.1500	84.5	.85	106.2	4.3000	104.0	1.7000	141.9
Average, 1907.	1.050	89.4	.1500	84.5	.80	100.0	4.4023	107.0	1.4706	121.7

Month.	House furnishing goods.				Miscellaneous.					
	Wooden ware: tubs, oak-grained.		Cotton-seed meal.		Cotton-seed oil: summer yellow, primes.		Jute: raw, M-double triangle, shipment.		Malt: western made.	
	Price per nest of 3.	Relative price.	Price per ton of 2,000 lbs.	Relative price.	Price per gallon.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per bushel.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$1.3471	100.0	\$21.9625	100.0	\$0.3044	100.0	\$0.0350	100.0	\$0.7029	100.0
Jan.	1.4500	107.6	20.6000	134.8	.4050	133.0	.0625	177.1	.7000	100.0
Feb.	1.4500	107.6	20.6000	130.2	.4350	142.9	.0513	149.6	.7000	100.0
Mar.	1.6000	118.8	28.3500	129.1	.4850	159.3	.0575	163.2	.6500	92.6
Apr.	1.6000	118.8	27.6000	125.7	.4650	152.8	.0588	167.1	.6500	92.6
May	1.6000	118.8	26.6000	121.1	.4875	160.2	.0563	161.6	1.0000	141.9
June	1.6000	118.8	27.6000	125.7	.5650	185.6	.0500	140.7	1.0000	141.9
July	1.6500	122.5	28.8500	131.4	.5800	190.5	.0500	140.7	1.0000	141.9
Aug.	1.6500	122.5	28.3500	129.1	.5700	187.3	.0413	116.7	1.0000	141.9
Sept.	1.6500	122.5	29.1000	132.5	.5650	185.6	.0400	112.8	1.1000	154.8
Oct.	1.6500	122.5	30.1000	137.1	.5200	170.8	.0413	116.7	1.2500	177.1
Nov.	1.6500	122.5	30.1000	137.1	.3800	124.8	.0413	116.7	1.2000	172.1
Dec.	1.6500	122.5	29.6000	134.8	.3850	126.5	.0328	92.8	1.7000	241.9
Average, 1907.	1.6000	118.8	28.7042	130.7	.4809	159.0	.0486	124.4		147.2

* Jute: raw, spot quotations.

† For method of computing relative price, see pages 327-8.

‡ Average price 9

TABLE III.—MONTHLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907 AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Concluded.

[Average for 1907 computed from quotations in Table I.]

Month.	Miscellaneous.									
	Paper: news.		Paper: wrapping, manila.		Proof spirits.		Rope: manila, $\frac{1}{8}$ -inch.		Rubber: Para Island.	
	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per gallon.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0299	100.0	\$0.0553	100.0	\$1.1499	100.0	\$0.0934	100.0	\$0.8097	100.0
Jan.....	.0238	79.6	.0500	90.4	1.2900	112.2	.1275	136.5	1.1800	147.4
Feb.....	.0213	71.2	.0500	90.4	1.2900	112.2	.1325	141.9	1.1850	148.0
Mar.....	.0213	71.2	.0500	90.4	1.2900	112.2	.1325	141.9	1.1850	148.0
Apr.....	.0255	85.3	.0500	90.4	1.2900	112.2	.1325	141.9	1.1500	143.6
May.....	.0255	85.3	.0500	90.4	1.2925	112.4	.1325	141.9	1.1400	142.4
June.....	.0255	85.3	.0500	90.4	1.3100	113.9	.1325	141.9	1.0900	136.1
July.....	.0255	85.3	.0500	90.4	1.3100	113.9	.1325	141.9	1.0450	130.5
Aug.....	.0255	85.3	.0500	90.4	1.3100	113.9	.1325	141.9	1.0650	133.0
Sept.....	.0255	85.3	.0500	90.4	1.3300	115.7	.1263	135.2	1.0300	128.6
Oct.....	.0265	88.6	.0525	94.9	1.3450	117.0	.1263	135.2	.9950	124.3
Nov.....	.0265	88.6	.0525	94.9	1.3500	117.4	.1200	128.5	.9150	114.3
Dec.....	.0265	88.6	.0525	94.9	1.3500	117.4	.1175	125.8	.7800	97.4
Average, 1907.....	.0249	83.3	.0506	91.5	1.3133	114.2	.1290	138.1	1.0633	132.8

Month.	Soap: castile, mottled, pure.		Starch: laundry.		Tobacco: plug.		Tobacco: smoking, granulated, Seal of N. C.	
	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0569	100.0	\$0.0348	100.0	\$0.3962	100.0	\$0.5990	100.0
Jan.....	.0650	114.2	.0375	107.8	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Feb.....	.0650	114.2	.0400	114.9	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Mar.....	.0650	114.2	.0400	114.9	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Apr.....	.0650	114.2	.0400	114.9	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
May.....	.0650	114.2	.0400	114.9	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
June.....	.0600	105.4	.0400	114.9	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
July.....	.0700	123.0	.0400	114.9	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Aug.....	.0700	123.0	.0400	114.9	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Sept.....	.0700	123.0	.0400	114.9	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Oct.....	.0700	123.0	.0425	122.1	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Nov.....	.0700	123.0	.0425	122.1	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Dec.....	.0700	123.0	.0425	122.1	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Average, 1907.....	.0671	117.9	.0404	116.1	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9

* $\frac{1}{8}$ -inch.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907 AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

[Average for 1907 computed from quotations in Table I.]

Month.	Lumber and building materials.									
	Oak: white, plain.		Oak: white, quartered.		Oxide of zinc.		Pine: white, boards, No. 2 barn (N. Y. market).		Pine: white, boards, uppers (N. Y. market).	
	Price per M feet.	Relative price.	Price per M feet.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.	Price per M feet.	Relative price.	Price per M feet.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$37.4292	100.0	\$53.6771	100.0	\$0.0400	100.0	\$17.1104	100.0	\$46.5542	100.0
Jan.....	51.0000	136.3	80.0000	149.0	.0538	134.5	36.7500	192.2	94.5000	194.9
Feb.....	53.0000	141.6	80.0000	149.0	.0538	134.5	36.7500	192.2	94.5000	194.9
Mar.....	55.0000	146.9	80.0000	149.0	.0538	134.5	36.7500	192.2	96.5000	199.0
Apr.....	55.0000	146.9	80.0000	149.0	.0538	134.5	36.7500	192.2	96.5000	199.0
May.....	61.5000	164.3	80.0000	149.0	.0538	134.5	37.7500	197.4	97.5000	201.1
June.....	57.5000	153.6	80.0000	149.0	.0538	134.5	37.7500	197.4	97.5000	201.1
July.....	57.5000	153.6	80.0000	149.0	.0538	134.5	37.7500	197.4	97.5000	201.1
Aug.....	56.0000	149.6	80.0000	149.0	.0538	134.5	37.7500	197.4	97.5000	201.1
Sept.....	54.0000	144.3	80.0000	149.0	.0538	134.5	37.7500	197.4	97.5000	201.1
Oct.....	54.0000	144.3	80.0000	149.0	.0538	134.5	37.7500	197.4	98.5000	203.1
Nov.....	54.0000	144.3	80.0000	149.0	.0538	134.5	37.7500	197.4	98.5000	203.1
Dec.....	54.0000	144.3	80.0000	149.0	.0538	134.5	37.7500	197.4	98.5000	203.1
Average, 1907.....	55.2083	147.5	80.0000	149.0	.0538	134.5	37.4167	195.7	97.0833	200.2

Month.	Pine: yellow.		Plate glass: polished, glazing, area 3 to 5 sq. ft.		Plate glass: polished, glazing, area 5 to 10 sq. ft.		Poplar.		Putty.	
	Price per M feet.	Relative price.	Price per sq. foot.	Relative price.	Price per sq. foot.	Relative price.	Price per M feet.	Relative price.	Price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$18.4646	100.0	\$0.3630	100.0	\$0.5190	100.0	\$31.3667	100.0	\$0.0158	100.0
Jan.....	30.5000	165.2	.2300	77.2	.3400	80.1	53.5000	170.6	.0120	75.9
Feb.....	30.5000	165.2	.2300	77.2	.3400	80.1	53.5000	170.6	.0120	75.9
Mar.....	30.5000	165.2	.2300	77.2	.3400	80.1	58.0000	184.9	.0120	75.9
Apr.....	30.5000	165.2	.2300	77.2	.3400	80.1	58.0000	184.9	.0120	75.9
May.....	30.5000	165.2	.2300	77.2	.3400	80.1	61.5000	196.1	.0120	75.9
June.....	30.5000	165.2	.2300	77.2	.3400	80.1	57.5000	183.3	.0120	75.9
July.....	30.5000	165.2	.2300	77.2	.3400	80.1	57.5000	183.3	.0120	75.9
Aug.....	30.5000	165.2	.2300	77.2	.3400	80.1	59.5000	189.7	.0120	75.9
Sept.....	30.5000	165.2	.2300	77.2	.3400	80.1	59.5000	189.7	.0120	75.9
Oct.....	30.5000	165.2	.2300	77.2	.3400	80.1	59.5000	189.7	.0120	75.9
Nov.....	30.5000	165.2	.2300	77.2	.3400	80.1	59.5000	189.7	.0120	75.9
Dec.....	30.5000	165.2	.2300	77.2	.3400	80.1	59.5000	189.7	.0120	75.9
Average, 1907.....	30.5000	165.2	.2300	77.2	.3400	80.1	58.0833	185.2	.0120	75.9

Month.	Resin: good, strained.		Shingles: cy-press.		Shingles: red cedar, random width, 16-inch.		Spruce.		Tar.	
	Price per barrel.	Relative price.	Price per M.	Relative price.	Price per M.	Relative price.	Price per M feet.	Relative price.	Price per barrel.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$1.4399	100.0	\$2.6213	100.0	\$3.7424	100.0	\$14.3489	100.0	\$1.2048	100.0
Jan.....	4.2500	295.2	4.8500	136.5	2.5000	117.6	25.0000	174.2	2.3500	195.1
Feb.....	4.4500	309.0	4.8500	136.5	2.7500	119.5	25.0000	174.2	2.3000	190.9
Mar.....	4.4250	307.3	4.3500	154.2	2.7500	119.5	25.0000	174.2	2.3000	190.9
Apr.....	4.3500	316.0	4.3500	154.2	2.9000	120.6	25.0000	174.2	2.8000	232.4
May.....	4.8000	333.4	4.3500	154.2	3.0000	121.3	25.0000	174.2	2.3000	190.9
June.....	4.8000	333.4	4.3500	154.2	2.6000	118.4	25.0000	174.2	2.4000	199.2
July.....	4.4250	307.3	4.3500	154.2	3.0000	121.3	25.0000	174.2	2.5000	207.5
Aug.....	4.5000	312.5	4.3500	154.2	3.1000	122.0	25.0000	174.2	2.5000	207.5
Sept.....	4.3500	302.1	4.3500	154.2	3.0000	121.3	25.0000	174.2	2.3000	190.9
Oct.....	4.2250	293.4	4.3500	154.2	2.7500	119.5	21.0000	146.4	2.3000	190.9
Nov.....	4.2000	291.7	4.1000	145.3	2.0000	114.2	21.0000	146.4	2.3000	190.9
Dec.....	3.5500	246.5	4.1000	145.3	2.0000	114.2	21.0000	146.4	1.6000	132.8
Average, 1907.....	4.3771	304.0	4.2250	149.8	2.6358	119.5	24.0000	167.3	2.3292	193.3

a Pine: white, boards, No. 2 barn, 1 inch by 10 inches wide, rough (Buffalo market).
 b Pine: white, boards, uppers, 1 inch, 8 inches and up wide, rough (Buffalo market).
 c For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328; average price for 1906, \$33.25.
 d For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328; average price for 1906, \$88.25.
 e Plate glass: polished, unsilvered, area 3 to 5 square feet.
 f Plate glass: polished, unsilvered, area 5 to 10 square feet.
 g For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328; average price for 1906, \$0.2267.
 h For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328; average price for 1906, \$0.3300.
 i Shingles: white pine, 18-inch, XXXX.
 j For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328; average price for 1906, \$2.2125.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907 AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Concluded.

[Average for 1907 computed from quotations in Table I.]

Month.	Miscellaneous.									
	Paper: news.		Paper: wrap- ping, manila.		Proof spirits.		Rope: manila, 1/8-inch.		Rubber: Para Island.	
	Price per pound.	Rela- tive price.	Price per pound.	Rela- tive price.	Price per gallon.	Rela- tive price.	Price per pound.	Rela- tive price.	Price per pound.	Rela- tive price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0299	100.0	\$0.0553	100.0	\$1.1499	100.0	\$0.0934	100.0	\$0.8907	100.0
Jan.....	.0238	79.6	.0500	90.4	1.2900	112.2	.1275	136.5	1.1800	147.4
Feb.....	.0213	71.2	.0500	90.4	1.2900	112.2	.1325	141.9	1.1850	148.0
Mar.....	.0213	71.2	.0500	90.4	1.2900	112.2	.1325	141.9	1.1850	148.0
Apr.....	.0255	85.3	.0500	90.4	1.2900	112.2	.1325	141.9	1.1500	143.6
May.....	.0255	85.3	.0500	90.4	1.2925	112.4	.1325	141.9	1.1400	142.4
June.....	.0255	85.3	.0500	90.4	1.3100	113.9	.1325	141.9	1.0900	136.1
July.....	.0255	85.3	.0500	90.4	1.3100	113.9	.1325	141.9	1.0450	130.5
Aug.....	.0255	85.3	.0500	90.4	1.3100	113.9	.1325	141.9	1.0650	135.0
Sept.....	.0255	85.3	.0500	90.4	1.3300	115.7	.1263	135.2	1.0300	128.6
Oct.....	.0265	88.6	.0525	94.9	1.3450	117.0	.1263	135.2	.9950	124.3
Nov.....	.0265	88.6	.0525	94.9	1.3500	117.4	.1200	128.5	.9150	114.3
Dec.....	.0265	88.6	.0525	94.9	1.3500	117.4	.1175	125.8	.7800	97.4
Average, 1907.....	.0249	83.3	.0506	91.5	1.3133	114.2	.1290	138.1	1.0633	132.8

Month.	Soap: castile, mottled, pure.		Starch: laundry.		Tobacco: plug.		Tobacco: smoking, granulated, Seal of N. C.	
	Price per pound.	Rela- tive price.	Price per pound.	Rela- tive price.	Price per pound.	Rela- tive price.	Price per pound.	Rela- tive price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0569	100.0	\$0.0348	100.0	\$0.3962	100.0	\$0.5090	100.0
Jan.....	.0650	114.2	.0375	107.8	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Feb.....	.0650	114.2	.0400	114.9	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Mar.....	.0650	114.2	.0400	114.9	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Apr.....	.0650	114.2	.0400	114.9	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
May.....	.0650	114.2	.0400	114.9	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
June.....	.0600	105.4	.0400	114.9	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
July.....	.0700	123.0	.0400	114.9	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Aug.....	.0700	123.0	.0400	114.9	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Sept.....	.0700	123.0	.0400	114.9	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Oct.....	.0700	123.0	.0425	122.1	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Nov.....	.0700	123.0	.0425	122.1	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Dec.....	.0700	123.0	.0425	122.1	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9
Average, 1907.....	.0671	117.9	.0404	116.1	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9

* 1/8-inch.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907.

[For explanation and discussion of this table, see pages 128 to 137. Average price for 1890-1899=100.0. For a more detailed description of the articles, see Table I. Relative price for 1907 computed from average price for the year shown in Table I.]

Month.	Farm products.										
	Cotton: up-land, mid-ling.	Flax-seed: No. 1.	Grain.						Hay: timothy, No. 1.	Hides: green, salted, packers, heavy native steers.	Hops: New York State, choice.
			Bar-ley: by sam-ple.	Corn: No. 2, cash.	Oats: cash.	Rye: No. 2, cash.	Wheat: regular grades, cash.	Aver- age.			
Jan.....	133.9	103.3	119.7	108.4	129.6	116.9	97.1	114.3	148.6	173.6	124.2
Feb.....	142.0	107.3	130.4	114.2	145.8	128.8	105.8	124.6	153.8	172.9	124.2
Mar.....	143.8	108.2	153.2	116.0	152.0	127.4	105.0	130.7	153.4	163.4	124.2
Apr.....	143.4	104.7	155.9	123.0	161.0	130.7	107.9	135.7	157.2	153.8	110.1
May.....	154.9	105.6	171.8	139.4	171.8	150.3	127.7	152.2	169.0	153.4	87.5
June.....	168.1	118.4	164.3	140.2	166.0	164.1	128.8	152.7	191.7	158.5	87.5
July.....	169.5	112.5	145.9	142.2	162.1	161.5	128.5	148.0	178.4	157.1	87.5
Aug.....	171.8	103.1	154.6	148.6	181.6	146.8	123.7	151.1	182.2	150.6	87.5
Sept.....	163.5	106.4	201.3	162.0	198.0	166.7	134.5	172.5	163.6	150.6	81.9
Oct.....	148.5	107.8	227.5	162.5	192.3	159.7	138.8	176.2	159.6	156.9	73.4
Nov.....	142.0	101.5	191.2	153.9	174.1	148.0	124.4	158.3	148.8	143.6	96.0
Dec.....	151.9	94.1	213.9	155.8	184.7	148.4	128.3	166.2	149.6	126.5	93.2
1907.....	153.0	106.1	169.0	138.8	167.4	145.4	120.8	148.3	162.4	155.3	98.1

Month.	Live stock.										Average, farm products.
	Cattle.			Hogs.			Sheep.			Average.	
	Steers, choice to extra.	Steers, good to choice.	Aver- age.	Heavy.	Light.	Aver- age.	Native.	West- ern.	Aver- age.		
Jan.....	124.8	120.4	122.6	149.4	148.8	149.1	133.2	125.3	129.3	133.7	129.0
Feb.....	124.4	124.9	124.7	159.4	158.1	158.8	135.5	126.5	131.0	138.1	134.6
Mar.....	121.3	121.0	121.2	130.6	151.7	151.2	142.0	133.1	137.6	136.6	135.4
Apr.....	120.3	123.3	121.8	150.1	150.8	150.5	149.4	142.0	145.7	139.3	136.5
May.....	115.9	119.4	117.7	143.4	146.0	144.7	145.0	137.5	141.3	134.5	139.9
June.....	126.8	131.1	129.0	137.8	140.2	139.0	145.5	138.3	141.9	136.6	144.2
July.....	131.9	133.6	132.8	133.4	140.3	136.9	136.1	129.4	132.8	134.1	140.5
Aug.....	131.5	130.5	131.0	135.6	144.1	139.9	134.7	128.8	131.8	134.2	141.0
Sept.....	126.9	124.5	125.7	135.8	144.9	140.4	137.2	130.4	133.8	133.3	145.5
Oct.....	126.4	123.2	124.8	141.3	145.9	143.6	126.1	120.8	123.5	130.6	144.4
Nov.....	117.7	114.1	115.9	113.5	114.5	114.0	91.5	86.9	89.2	106.4	128.9
Dec.....	109.7	108.6	109.2	105.4	105.3	105.4	91.0	86.5	88.8	101.1	128.3
1907.....	123.0	122.8	122.9	137.8	140.6	139.2	130.3	123.5	126.9	129.7	137.1

Month.	Food, etc.								
	Beans: medium, choice.	Bread.						Average.	
		Crackers.			Loaf.				
	Boston.	Soda.	Average.	Washing- ton mar- ket.	Home- made (N. Y. mar- ket).	Vienna (N. Y. market).	Average.		
Jan.....	92.8	133.7	90.5	112.1	100.6	118.6	113.6	110.9	111.4
Feb.....	89.8	133.7	90.5	112.1	100.6	118.6	113.6	110.9	111.4
Mar.....	89.8	133.7	90.5	112.1	100.6	118.6	113.6	110.9	111.4
Apr.....	87.6	133.7	90.5	112.1	100.6	118.6	113.6	110.9	111.4
May.....	86.8	133.7	90.5	112.1	100.6	118.6	113.6	110.9	111.4
June.....	110.8	133.7	90.5	112.1	100.6	118.6	113.6	110.9	111.4
July.....	101.8	133.7	90.5	112.1	100.6	118.6	113.6	110.9	111.4
Aug.....	98.8	133.7	90.5	112.1	100.6	118.6	113.6	110.9	111.4
Sept.....	108.5	133.7	90.5	112.1	100.6	118.6	113.6	110.9	111.4
Oct.....	137.7	133.7	90.5	112.1	100.6	118.6	113.6	110.9	111.4
Nov.....	135.5	133.7	90.5	112.1	100.6	118.6	113.6	110.9	111.4
Dec.....	137.0	133.7	90.5	112.1	100.6	118.6	113.6	110.9	111.4
1907.....	106.4	133.7	90.5	112.1	100.6	118.6	113.6	110.9	111.4

TABLE III.—MONTHLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—
Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0. Relative price for 1907 computed from average price for the year shown in Table I.]

Month.	Food, etc.											
	Butter.				Cheese: N. Y., full cream.	Coffee: Rio No. 7.	Eggs: new- laid, fancy, near- by.	Fish.				
	Cream- ery, El- gin (Elgin mar- ket).	Cream- ery, extra (N. Y. mar- ket).	Dairy, New York State.	Aver- age.				Cod, dry, bank, large.	Her- ring, shom, round.	Mack- erel, salt, large No. 3a.	Salmon, canned.	Aver- age.
Jan....	141.2	140.3	134.9	138.8	146.9	54.3	161.0	143.2	158.9	129.3	113.7	134.0
Feb....	150.9	148.3	147.6	148.9	148.8	52.9	149.7	143.2	158.9	116.8	113.7	133.2
Mar....	141.7	140.2	146.4	142.8	149.4	55.2	106.4	143.2	158.9	113.2	113.7	132.3
Apr....	138.2	137.4	143.8	139.8	152.0	53.3	98.3	143.2	158.9	84.9	113.7	125.2
May....	109.4	112.6	120.8	114.3	137.8	51.4	97.8	143.2	158.9	84.9	113.7	125.2
June....	106.6	108.2	115.2	110.0	120.4	49.5	95.2	143.2	158.9	88.5	112.0	125.7
July....	112.9	113.4	119.6	115.3	125.1	48.1	110.3	143.2	158.9	88.5	112.0	125.7
Aug....	114.7	110.4	118.6	114.6	123.5	49.5	131.8	132.1	158.9	88.5	112.0	122.9
Sept....	126.6	122.7	130.9	127.7	138.4	48.1	140.8	132.1	158.9	92.0	112.0	123.8
Oct....	133.1	127.6	137.8	132.8	159.6	49.0	170.1	132.1	172.1	99.1	112.0	128.8
Nov....	121.0	121.0	130.0	124.0	152.0	45.7	218.4	132.1	172.1	102.6	112.0	129.7
Dec....	130.4	128.7	135.4	131.5	158.6	44.8	204.8	132.1	172.1	102.6	112.0	129.7
1907....	127.2	126.2	132.0	128.5	143.3	50.1	141.2	138.6	162.9	98.5	113.2	128.3

Month.	Flour.					Fruit.			
	Buck- wheat.	Rye.	Wheat.			Average.	Apples.		
			Spring patents.	Winter straights.	Average.		Evapo- rated, choice.	Sun- dried.	Average.
Jan....	115.8	119.8	95.1	86.0	90.6	104.2	98.9	131.1	115.0
Feb....	112.0	118.3	98.9	87.0	95.0	104.1	99.6	126.2	112.9
Mar....	108.1	117.6	96.6	86.5	91.6	102.2	97.4	123.9	110.7
Apr....	110.7	116.1	97.0	86.7	91.9	102.6	82.6	116.5	99.6
May....	* 110.7	119.1	112.1	103.4	107.8	111.3	85.6	116.5	101.1
June....	* 110.7	152.2	117.8	111.2	114.5	123.0	85.6	116.5	101.1
July....	* 110.7	153.0	119.5	111.6	115.6	123.7	94.5	* 116.5	105.5
Aug....	* 110.7	148.5	117.1	106.3	111.7	120.7	97.4	* 116.5	107.0
Sept....	* 110.7	145.5	123.5	110.2	116.9	122.5	106.3	* 116.5	111.4
Oct....	154.4	156.0	129.9	119.5	124.7	140.0	115.1	* 116.5	115.8
Nov....	164.7	156.8	126.7	118.3	122.5	141.6	113.7	* 116.5	113.1
Dec....	160.9	162.0	127.1	117.3	122.2	141.8	118.1	135.9	127.0
1907....	132.4	138.7	113.5	103.7	108.6	122.1	99.5	123.9	111.7

Month.	Fruit.				Glucose. (b)	Lard: prime contract.	Meal: corn.		
	Currents, in barrels.	Prunes, California, in boxes.	Raisins, California, London layer.	Average.			Fine white.	Fine yellow.	Average.
Jan....	193.3	74.3	100.0	119.5	148.8	149.2	124.0	127.8	125.9
Feb....	201.6	72.7	93.3	118.7	148.8	153.7	124.0	127.8	125.9
Mar....	198.4	71.8	93.3	117.0	148.8	144.2	124.0	127.8	125.9
Apr....	194.9	68.6	103.3	113.2	148.8	128.2	124.0	127.8	125.9
May....	181.6	64.6	105.0	110.7	148.8	143.1	129.4	124.2	122.3
June....	183.5	74.3	105.0	113.0	161.1	138.2	126.4	130.3	128.4
July....	186.7	79.2	105.0	116.4	161.1	139.3	128.7	132.8	130.8
Aug....	183.5	80.7	120.0	119.6	161.1	140.5	124.0	127.8	125.9
Sept....	176.5	85.7	120.0	121.0	168.2	141.1	133.5	137.7	135.3
Oct....	183.5	84.0	120.0	123.8	167.8	142.4	131.4	156.1	153.3
Nov....	183.5	84.0	120.0	123.5	174.9	132.1	146.9	151.4	149.2
Dec....	181.6	80.0	116.6	126.4	174.9	127.7	126.4	130.3	128.4
1907....	187.5	76.6	108.4	119.2	159.4	149.7	129.5	133.5	131.5

* Nominal price; see explanation on page 329.

b Average for 1893-1899=100.0

TABLE III.—MONTHLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0. Relative price for 1907 computed from average price for the year shown in Table I.]

Month.	Food, etc.										
	Meat.										
	Beef.				Pork.				Mutton, dressed.	Average.	
Fresh, native sides.	Salt, extra mess.	Salt, hams, western.	Average.	Bacon, short clear sides.	Bacon, short rib sides.	Hams, smoked.	Salt, mess, odd to new.	Average.			
Jan....	105.7	110.7	134.0	116.8	145.3	144.2	133.4	154.7	144.4	114.1	130.3
Feb....	104.5	115.4	136.1	118.7	152.3	151.1	138.5	161.2	150.8	112.7	134.0
Mar....	103.8	121.6	138.2	121.2	147.7	144.8	136.6	156.3	146.4	120.2	133.7
Apr....	108.0	121.6	138.2	122.6	142.4	148.9	136.0	152.8	145.0	132.0	134.0
May....	111.2	121.6	138.2	123.7	144.9	143.9	139.4	154.7	145.7	137.7	136.5
June....	119.2	121.6	138.2	126.3	141.2	141.5	137.5	153.3	143.9	128.5	135.4
July....	123.2	121.6	138.2	127.7	139.1	139.3	137.0	156.9	143.1	107.4	132.8
Aug....	124.9	121.6	145.1	130.5	139.9	140.1	137.2	155.8	143.3	111.1	134.5
Sept....	120.4	124.7	157.5	134.2	141.2	136.6	138.4	152.6	141.7	109.4	134.9
Oct....	121.9	127.9	159.2	136.3	141.6	139.9	131.6	147.4	140.1	110.1	135.0
Nov....	121.3	127.9	160.3	136.5	137.9	135.4	124.2	137.8	133.8	109.4	131.8
Dec....	112.8	132.5	145.9	130.4	125.9	123.6	108.5	130.0	122.0	104.1	122.9
1907....	114.7	122.5	144.0	127.1	141.3	140.1	132.4	151.0	141.2	116.0	132.8

Month.	Milk: fresh.	Molasses: New Orleans, open kettle.	Rice: domestic, choice.	Salt: American.	Soda: bicarbonate of American.	Spices.			Starch: pure corn.
						Nutmegs.	Pepper, Singapore.	Average.	
Jan....	147.1	134.9	82.5	113.6	62.2	35.9	141.9	88.9	100.5
Feb....	137.3	134.9	82.5	113.6	62.2	34.1	141.9	88.0	109.5
Mar....	127.5	119.0	82.5	113.6	62.2	34.1	141.9	88.0	102.5
Apr....	127.5	119.0	82.5	120.7	62.2	35.0	141.9	88.5	109.5
May....	112.5	119.0	82.5	120.7	62.2	34.1	135.2	84.7	109.5
June....	98.0	134.9	93.6	120.7	62.2	34.1	131.9	83.0	109.5
July....	103.1	134.9	93.6	107.9	62.2	30.7	126.0	78.4	109.5
Aug....	121.2	134.9	109.3	101.9	62.2	31.8	131.0	81.4	109.5
Sept....	132.5	134.9	109.3	103.6	62.2	31.0	131.0	81.0	109.5
Oct....	136.9	134.9	109.3	105.8	62.2	29.8	128.6	79.2	109.5
Nov....	156.9	134.9	107.0	113.0	62.2	29.2	122.7	76.0	109.5
Dec....	156.9	120.6	107.0	116.4	62.2	28.1	118.6	74.4	109.5
1907....	131.4	129.7	95.2	112.6	62.2	32.3	132.7	82.5	106.5

Month.	Sugar.				Tallow.	Tea: Formosa, fine.	Vegetables, fresh.			Vinegar: cider, Monarch.	Average, food, etc.
	89° fair refining.	96° centrifugal.	Granulated.	Average.			Onions.	Potatoes, white, choice to fancy.	Average.		
Jan....	88.8	90.0	97.3	92.3	147.4	81.0	103.0	78.6	90.8	115.0	117.0
Feb....	85.6	88.1	96.0	89.9	153.3	81.0	132.4	85.7	109.1	115.0	118.2
Mar....	89.0	91.1	96.3	92.1	155.2	81.0	161.8	83.8	122.8	115.0	116.7
Apr....	94.5	95.9	97.6	96.0	144.6	81.0	66.2	86.9	76.6	115.0	113.9
May....	98.7	99.6	100.5	99.6	144.4	81.0	88.2	127.8	108.0	115.0	113.8
June....	96.8	97.9	102.6	99.1	146.7	81.0	117.7	103.7	110.7	115.0	115.2
July....	98.9	99.8	100.8	99.8	143.7	81.0	117.7	72.6	95.2	115.0	114.9
Aug....	99.7	101.2	98.4	99.8	145.7	81.0	91.9	72.6	82.3	115.0	115.3
Sept....	101.3	101.9	98.4	100.5	143.7	81.0	66.2	72.6	69.4	115.0	117.4
Oct....	100.6	101.3	98.4	100.1	127.9	81.0	95.6	113.2	104.4	115.0	123.5
Nov....	95.8	97.1	97.6	96.8	121.5	81.0	91.9	108.6	100.3	128.6	122.8
Dec....	96.9	98.1	96.3	97.1	126.0	81.0	103.0	104.2	103.6	121.8	120.8
1907....	95.7	97.0	98.4	97.0	142.8	81.0	103.0	98.4	100.7	116.7	117.8

* Nominal price; see explanation on page 329.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0. Relative price for 1907 computed from average price for the year shown in Table I.]

Month.	Cloths and clothing.										
	Bags: 2 bu., Amos- keag.	Blankets.				Boots and shoes.					Average.
		11-4, all wool.	11-4, cotton warp, all wool filling.	11-4, cotton warp, cotton and wool filling.	Average.	Men's bro- gans, split.	Men's split boots.	Men's vici calf shoes, Blucher bal., vici calf top, single sole.	Men's vici kid shoes, Good- year welt.	Wom- en's solid grain shoes.	
Jan....	132.2	119.0	130.5	141.5	130.3	131.4	162.1	109.0	108.7	125.4	127.3
Feb....	132.2	119.0	130.5	141.5	130.3	131.4	162.1	109.0	108.7	125.4	127.3
Mar....	132.2	119.0	130.5	141.5	130.3	131.4	162.1	109.0	108.7	125.4	127.3
Apr....	139.4	119.0	130.5	141.5	130.3	131.4	162.1	109.0	108.7	125.4	127.3
May....	139.4	119.0	130.5	141.5	130.3	131.4	162.1	109.0	108.7	125.4	127.3
June....	139.4	119.0	130.5	141.5	130.3	131.4	162.1	109.0	108.7	122.3	126.7
July....	139.4	119.0	130.5	141.5	130.3	128.9	162.1	109.0	108.7	122.3	126.2
Aug....	139.4	119.0	130.5	141.5	130.3	128.9	159.0	109.0	108.7	122.3	125.6
Sept....	150.1	119.0	130.5	141.5	130.3	126.3	159.0	109.0	108.7	122.3	125.1
Oct....	139.4	119.0	130.5	141.5	130.3	126.3	159.0	109.0	108.7	122.3	125.1
Nov....	139.4	119.0	130.5	141.5	130.3	123.8	156.0	109.0	108.7	119.3	123.4
Dec....	139.4	119.0	130.5	141.5	130.3	121.3	152.9	109.0	108.7	119.3	122.2
1907....	138.5	119.0	130.5	141.5	130.3	128.7	160.0	109.0	108.7	123.1	125.9

Month.	Broad- cloth: first qual- ity, black, 54-inch, XXX wool.	Calleo: standard Ameri- can prints, 64 x 64.	Carpets.				Cotton flannels.		
			Brussels, 5-frame, Bigelow.	Ingrain, 2-ply, Lowell.	Wilton, 5-frame, Bigelow.	Average.	2½ yards to the pound.	3½ yards to the pound.	Average.
Jan....	116.6	105.1	124.7	121.2	123.7	123.2	132.9	134.8	133.9
Feb....	116.6	105.1	124.7	121.2	123.7	123.2	132.9	134.8	133.9
Mar....	116.6	114.6	124.7	121.2	123.7	123.2	132.9	134.8	133.9
Apr....	116.6	114.6	124.7	121.2	123.7	123.2	132.9	134.8	133.9
May....	116.6	114.6	124.7	121.2	123.7	123.2	141.6	139.1	140.4
June....	116.6	114.6	124.7	121.2	123.7	123.2	141.6	139.1	140.4
July....	116.6	124.2	124.7	121.2	123.7	123.2	145.2	143.5	144.4
Aug....	116.6	124.2	124.7	121.2	123.7	123.2	145.2	143.5	144.4
Sept....	116.6	133.7	124.7	121.2	123.7	123.2	145.2	143.5	144.4
Oct....	116.6	133.7	124.7	121.2	123.7	123.2	145.2	143.5	144.4
Nov....	116.6	133.7	124.7	121.2	123.7	123.2	141.6	139.1	140.4
Dec....	116.6	133.7	124.7	121.2	123.7	123.2	141.6	139.1	140.4
1907....	116.6	121.0	124.7	121.2	123.7	123.2	139.9	139.1	139.5

Month.	Cotton thread: 6-cord, 200-yard spools, J. & P. Coats.	Cotton yarns.			Denims: Amos- keag.	Drillings.			Flannels: white, 4-4, Bal- lard Vale No. 3.
		Carded, white, mule- spun, northern, cones, 10/1.	Carded, white, mule- spun, northern, cones, 22/1.	Average.		Brown, Pep- perell.	30-inch, Stark A.	Average.	
Jan....	120.1	136.8	127.0	131.9	122.1	144.2	139.9	142.1	122.4
Feb....	120.1	136.8	129.5	133.2	122.1	144.2	147.4	145.8	122.4
Mar....	120.1	133.7	129.5	131.6	124.5	144.2	146.6	145.4	122.4
Apr....	120.1	136.8	127.0	131.9	124.5	144.2	145.9	145.1	122.4
May....	120.1	136.8	127.0	131.9	124.5	144.2	158.2	151.2	122.4
June....	145.4	143.0	134.6	138.8	134.1	144.2	151.1	147.7	122.4
July....	145.4	146.1	139.7	142.9	138.9	144.2	154.3	149.3	122.4
Aug....	145.4	146.1	139.7	142.9	141.3	144.2	142.4	143.3	122.4
Sept....	145.4	143.0	137.1	140.1	141.3	144.2	155.9	150.1	124.4
Oct....	145.4	136.8	132.0	134.4	141.3	144.2	150.1	147.2	124.4
Nov....	145.4	124.4	121.9	123.2	136.5	144.2	151.8	148.0	124.4
Dec....	145.4	124.4	121.9	123.2	136.5	144.2	157.8	151.0	124.4
1907....	134.8	137.1	130.6	133.0	132.3	144.2	150.1	147.2	123.1

TABLE III.—MONTHLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0. Relative price for 1907 computed from average price for the year shown in Table I.]

Month.	Cloths and clothing.								
	Ginghams.			Horse-blankets: 6 pounds each, all wool.	Hosiery.				
	Amoskeag.	Lancaster.	Average.		Men's cotton half hose, seamless, fast black, 20 to 22 oz.	Men's cotton half hose, seamless, 84 needles.	Women's combed Egyptian cotton hose, high spliced heel. (a)	Women's cotton hose, seamless, fast black, 26 to 28 oz.	Average.
Jan....	112.6	113.4	113.0	130.9	85.3	95.6	109.5	81.6	93.0
Feb....	112.6	117.8	115.2	130.9	85.3	95.6	109.5	81.6	93.0
Mar....	112.6	117.8	115.2	130.9	85.3	95.6	109.5	81.6	93.0
Apr....	112.6	117.8	115.2	130.9	88.5	95.6	109.5	84.2	94.5
May....	112.6	117.8	115.2	130.9	88.5	95.6	109.5	84.2	94.5
June....	112.6	117.8	115.2	130.9	88.5	95.6	109.5	84.2	94.5
July....	131.3	117.8	124.6	130.9	88.5	95.6	109.5	84.2	94.5
Aug....	140.7	117.8	129.3	130.9	88.5	95.6	109.5	84.2	94.5
Sept....	140.7	126.5	133.6	130.9	94.8	95.6	109.5	89.5	97.4
Oct....	131.3	126.5	128.9	130.9	94.8	95.6	109.5	89.5	97.4
Nov....	131.3	126.5	128.9	130.9	94.8	95.6	109.5	89.5	97.4
Dec....	131.3	126.5	128.9	130.9	94.8	95.6	109.5	89.5	97.4
1907....	123.5	120.4	122.0	130.9	94.8	95.6	109.5	89.5	97.4

Month.	Leather.					Linen thread.		
	Harness, oak.	Sole, hemlock.	Sole, oak.	Wax calf, 30 to 40 lbs. to the dozen, B grade.	Average.	Shoe, 10s, Barbour.	3-cord, 200-yard spools, Barbour.	Average.
Jan....	131.1	135.4	120.4	110.8	124.4	102.1	103.7	102.9
Feb....	131.1	135.4	114.5	110.8	123.0	102.1	103.7	102.9
Mar....	131.1	135.4	111.5	118.4	124.1	102.1	103.7	102.9
Apr....	131.1	136.7	111.5	118.4	124.4	102.1	103.7	102.9
May....	131.1	136.7	111.5	118.4	124.4	102.1	109.1	105.6
June....	127.7	136.7	111.5	118.4	123.6	102.1	109.1	105.6
July....	127.7	136.7	108.5	118.4	122.8	102.1	109.1	105.6
Aug....	127.7	136.7	113.0	118.4	124.0	102.1	109.1	105.6
Sept....	127.7	136.7	113.0	118.4	124.0	102.1	109.1	105.6
Oct....	127.7	136.7	117.5	118.4	125.1	102.1	109.1	105.6
Nov....	127.7	136.7	116.0	118.4	124.7	102.1	109.1	105.6
Dec....	125.9	136.7	114.5	118.4	123.9	102.1	109.1	105.6
1907....	129.0	136.4	113.6	117.1	124.0	102.1	107.3	104.7

Month.	Overcoatings.					Print cloths: 28-inch, 64 x 64.	Shawls: standard, all wool (low grade), 72 x 144 inch, 40 to 42 ounce.
	Chinchilla, B-rough, all wool.	Chinchilla, cotton warp, C.C.-grade.	Covert cloth, light weight, staple.	Kersey, standard 27 to 28 oz. (f)	Average.		
Jan....	119.4	100.3	96.9	154.3	117.7	140.0	107.0
Feb....	119.4	101.4	96.9	158.4	119.0	147.6	107.0
Mar....	119.4	101.4	96.9	158.4	119.0	158.6	107.0
Apr....	119.4	101.4	96.9	158.4	119.0	158.6	107.0
May....	119.4	102.4	96.9	158.4	119.3	161.3	107.0
June....	119.4	100.3	96.9	158.4	118.8	170.9	107.0
July....	119.4	103.4	96.9	158.4	119.5	177.3	107.0
Aug....	119.4	100.3	96.9	158.4	118.8	185.0	107.0
Sept....	119.4	100.3	96.9	158.4	118.8	185.0	107.0
Oct....	119.4	102.4	96.9	158.4	119.3	185.0	107.0
Nov....	119.4	98.3	96.9	158.4	118.3	177.9	107.0
Dec....	119.4	94.2	96.9	158.4	117.2	155.3	107.0
1907....	119.4	100.5	96.9	158.0	118.7	167.4	107.0

a Average for 1893-1899=100.0.

b September, 1906, price.

c April, 1907, price.

d September, 1907, price.

e September, 1907, price, which represents the bulk of sales during the year.

f Average for 1897-1899=100.0.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0. Relative price for 1907 computed from average price for the year shown in Table I.]

Month.	Cloths and clothing.								Average.
	Ginghams.			Horse-blankets: 6 pounds each, all wool.	Hosiery.				
	Amoskeag.	Lancaster.	Average.		Men's cotton half hose, seamless, fast black, 20 to 22 oz.	Men's cotton half hose, seamless, 84 needles.	Women's combed Egyptian cotton hose, high spliced heel.(e)	Women's cotton hose, seamless, fast black, 26 to 28 oz.	
Jan....	112.6	113.4	113.0	130.9	b 85.3	95.6	109.5	b 81.6	93.0
Feb....	112.6	117.8	115.2	130.9	b 85.3	95.6	109.5	b 81.6	93.0
Mar....	112.6	117.8	115.2	130.9	b 85.3	95.6	109.5	b 81.6	93.0
Apr....	112.6	117.8	115.2	130.9	88.5	95.6	109.5	84.2	94.5
May....	112.6	117.8	115.2	130.9	c 88.5	95.6	109.5	c 84.2	94.5
June....	112.6	117.8	115.2	130.9	c 88.5	95.6	109.5	c 84.2	94.5
July....	131.3	117.8	124.6	130.9	c 88.5	95.6	109.5	c 84.2	94.5
Aug....	140.7	117.8	129.3	130.9	c 88.5	95.6	109.5	c 84.2	94.5
Sept....	140.7	126.5	135.6	130.9	d 94.8	95.6	109.5	d 89.5	97.4
Oct....	131.3	126.5	128.9	130.9	d 94.8	95.6	109.5	d 89.5	97.4
Nov....	131.3	126.5	128.9	130.9	d 94.8	95.6	109.5	d 89.5	97.4
Dec....	131.3	126.5	128.9	130.9	d 94.8	95.6	109.5	d 89.5	97.4
1907....	123.5	120.4	122.0	130.9	e 94.8	95.6	109.5	e 89.5	97.4

Month.	Leather.					Linen thread.		
	Harness, oak.	Sole, hemlock.	Sole, oak.	Wax calf, 30 to 40 lbs. to the dozen, B grade.	Average.	Shoe, 10s, Barbour.	3-cord, 200-yard spools, Barbour.	Average.
Jan....	131.1	135.4	120.4	110.8	124.4	102.1	103.7	102.9
Feb....	131.1	135.4	114.5	110.8	123.0	102.1	103.7	102.9
Mar....	131.1	135.4	111.5	118.4	124.1	102.1	103.7	102.9
Apr....	131.1	136.7	111.5	118.4	124.4	102.1	103.7	102.9
May....	131.1	136.7	111.5	118.4	124.4	102.1	103.7	102.9
June....	127.7	136.7	111.5	118.4	123.6	102.1	103.7	102.9
July....	127.7	136.7	108.5	118.4	122.8	102.1	103.7	102.9
Aug....	127.7	136.7	113.0	118.4	124.0	102.1	103.7	102.9
Sept....	127.7	136.7	113.0	118.4	124.0	102.1	103.7	102.9
Oct....	127.7	136.7	117.5	118.4	125.1	102.1	103.7	102.9
Nov....	127.7	136.7	116.0	118.4	124.7	102.1	103.7	102.9
Dec....	125.9	136.7	114.5	118.4	125.9	102.1	103.7	102.9
1907....	129.0	136.4	113.6	117.1	124.0	102.1	107.3	104.7

Month.	Overcoatings.					Print cloths: 28-inch, 64 x 64.	Shawls: standard, all wool (low grade), 72 x 144 inch, 40 to 42 ounce.
	Chinchilla, B-rough, all wool.	Chinchilla, cotton warp, C.C. grade.	Covert cloth, light weight, staple.	Kersey, standard 27 to 28 oz.(f)	Average.		
Jan....	119.4	100.3	96.9	154.3	117.7	140.9	107.0
Feb....	119.4	101.4	96.9	158.4	119.0	147.6	107.0
Mar....	119.4	101.4	96.9	158.4	119.0	158.6	107.0
Apr....	119.4	101.4	96.9	158.4	119.0	158.6	107.0
May....	119.4	102.4	96.9	158.4	119.3	161.3	107.0
June....	119.4	100.3	96.9	158.4	118.8	170.9	107.0
July....	119.4	103.4	96.9	158.4	119.5	177.3	107.0
Aug....	119.4	100.3	96.9	158.4	118.8	185.0	107.0
Sept....	119.4	100.3	96.9	158.4	118.8	185.0	107.0
Oct....	119.4	102.4	96.9	158.4	119.3	185.0	107.0
Nov....	119.4	98.3	96.9	158.4	118.3	177.9	107.0
Dec....	119.4	94.2	96.9	158.4	117.2	155.3	107.0
1907....	119.4	100.5	96.9	158.0	118.7	167.4	107.0

a Average for 1893-1899=100.0.

b September, 1906, price.

c April, 1907, price.

d September, 1907, price.

e September, 1907, price, which represents the bulk of sales during the year.

f Average for 1897-1899=100.0.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0. Relative price for 1907 computed from average price for the year shown in Table I.]

Month.	Cloths and clothing.										Average.
	Sheetings.										
	Bleached.				Brown.						
	9-4, Atlantic.	10-4, Peppereil.	10-4, Wamsutta S. T.	Average.	4-4, Atlantic A.	4-4, Indian Head.	4-4, Mass. Mills, Flying Horse brand.	4-4, Peppereil R.	Average.	Average.	
Jan.	121.6	138.0	98.3	119.3	135.8	131.8	122.7	127.0	129.3	125.0	
Feb.	134.0	138.0	98.3	123.4	135.4	131.8	126.8	127.0	130.3	127.3	
Mar.	126.8	148.6	98.3	124.6	136.7	131.8	126.8	131.6	131.7	128.7	
Apr.	127.0	148.6	105.1	126.9	136.2	131.8	126.8	131.6	131.6	129.6	
May	126.1	148.6	105.1	126.6	135.6	131.8	126.8	131.6	131.5	129.4	
June	135.2	159.2	105.1	133.2	142.3	131.8	126.8	136.1	134.3	133.8	
July	126.1	159.2	105.1	130.1	137.4	131.8	130.9	136.1	134.1	132.4	
Aug.	123.4	159.2	105.1	129.2	139.6	135.8	130.9	140.7	136.8	133.5	
Sept.	123.3	159.2	105.1	129.2	140.0	135.8	130.9	140.7	136.9	135.6	
Oct.	144.7	159.2	105.1	136.3	141.0	135.8	126.8	140.7	136.1	136.2	
Nov.	161.8	159.2	105.1	142.0	145.6	135.8	126.8	140.7	137.2	139.3	
Dec.	161.2	159.2	105.1	141.8	141.8	135.8	122.7	140.7	135.3	138.1	
1907.	134.3	153.0	103.4	130.2	138.9	133.4	127.1	135.4	133.7	132.2	

Month.	Shirtings: bleached.					Silk: raw.			Average.
	4-4, Fruit of the Loom.	4-4, Hope.	4-4, Lonsdale.	4-4, Wamsutta <0>XX*	4-4, Williams-ville, A. I.	Average.	Italian, classical.	Japan, flatures.	
Jan.	130.5	131.9	127.2	113.4	119.9	124.6	125.6	127.3	126.5
Feb.	137.4	135.7	134.1	113.4	113.4	122.7	128.7	124.9	123.8
Mar.	137.4	135.7	134.1	113.4	113.4	131.3	130.4	126.2	128.0
Apr.	151.1	135.7	134.1	113.4	113.4	131.3	135.1	133.2	134.8
May	151.1	135.7	134.1	113.4	113.4	131.3	133.1	139.0	139.2
June	158.0	135.7	134.1	113.4	113.4	134.1	135.1	136.7	131.5
July	158.0	154.6	151.3	118.7	137.0	143.9	135.5	125.5	130.5
Aug.	158.0	154.6	151.3	118.7	137.0	143.9	131.4	118.3	124.9
Sept.	164.8	154.6	151.3	118.7	137.0	145.3	136.7	132.2	134.5
Oct.	164.8	154.6	151.3	118.7	137.0	145.3	136.7	121.3	129.0
Nov.	164.8	154.6	151.3	118.7	137.0	145.3	132.0	118.9	125.5
Dec.	164.8	139.5	137.6	118.7	137.0	139.5	118.1	105.6	111.9
1907.	133.4	143.7	141.0	116.0	132.8	137.4	131.1	125.9	128.5

Month.	Suitings.							Average.	Tie-ings: Amoskeag A. C. A.
	Clay worsted diagonal, 12-ounce, Washington Mills. ^a	Clay worsted diagonal, 16-ounce, Washington Mills. ^a	Indigo blue, all wool, 54-inch, 14-ounce, Middlesex.	Indigo blue, all wool, 16-ounce.	Serge, Washington Mills 6700. ^b	Trouserings, fancy worsted. ^b	Average.		
Jan.	142.1	140.8	129.3	126.2	140.5	118.1	132.8	117.5	
Feb.	142.1	140.8	129.3	126.2	140.5	118.1	132.8	120.2	
Mar.	142.1	140.8	129.3	126.2	140.5	118.1	132.8	122.5	
Apr.	142.1	140.8	129.3	126.2	140.5	123.7	133.8	122.5	
May	142.1	138.6	129.3	126.2	140.5	123.7	133.4	127.2	
June	142.1	138.6	129.3	126.2	134.5	123.7	132.4	127.2	
July	142.1	138.6	129.3	126.2	134.5	123.7	132.4	132.0	
Aug.	142.1	138.6	129.3	126.2	140.5	123.7	133.4	136.7	
Sept.	142.1	138.6	129.3	126.2	140.5	123.7	133.4	136.7	
Oct.	142.1	138.6	129.3	126.2	140.5	123.7	133.4	136.7	
Nov.	142.1	138.6	129.3	126.2	140.5	123.7	133.4	136.7	
Dec.	142.1	138.6	129.3	126.2	140.5	123.7	133.4	136.7	
1907.	142.1	139.3	129.3	126.2	139.5	122.3	133.1	129.4	

^a Average for 1895-1899=100.0.^b Average for 1892-1899=100.0.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0. Relative price for 1907 computed from average price for the year shown in Table I.]

Month.	Cloths and clothing.									
	Underwear.			Women's dress goods.						
	Shirts and drawers, white, all wool, etc.	Shirts and drawers, white, merino, wool and cotton.	Average.	Cashmere, all wool, 30-11 twill, 38-inch, Atlantic J.	Cashmere, cotton warp, 9-4 twill, 4-4, Atlantic F.	Cashmere, cotton warp, 36-inch, Hamilton.	Danish cloth, cotton warp and filling, 22-inch.	Franklin sackings, 6-4.	Poplar cloth, cotton warp and filling, 36-inch.	Average.
Jan....	115.8	106.0	110.9	134.9	145.1	127.8	124.9	129.1	109.6	128.6
Feb....	115.8	106.0	110.9	134.9	145.1	127.8	124.9	129.1	109.6	128.6
Mar....	115.8	106.0	110.9	134.9	145.1	127.8	124.9	129.1	109.6	128.6
Apr....	115.8	106.0	110.9	134.9	145.1	127.8	124.9	129.1	109.6	128.6
May....	115.8	106.0	110.9	134.9	145.1	127.8	124.9	129.1	109.6	128.6
June....	115.8	106.0	110.9	134.9	148.3	127.8	124.9	129.1	109.6	129.1
July....	115.8	106.0	110.9	134.9	148.3	127.8	124.9	129.1	109.6	129.1
Aug....	115.8	106.0	110.9	134.9	148.3	127.8	124.9	129.1	109.6	129.1
Sept....	115.8	106.0	110.9	134.9	148.3	127.8	124.9	129.1	109.6	129.1
Oct....	115.8	106.0	110.9	134.9	148.3	127.8	124.9	119.9	109.6	127.6
Nov....	115.8	106.0	110.9	134.9	148.3	127.8	124.9	119.9	109.6	127.6
Dec....	115.8	106.0	110.9	134.9	148.3	127.8	124.9	119.9	115.4	128.5
1907....	115.8	106.0	110.9	134.9	147.0	127.8	124.9	126.8	110.1	128.6

Month.	Wool.			Worsted yarns.			Average, cloths and clothing.
	Ohio, fine fleece (X and XX grade), scoured.	Ohio, medium fleece (1 and 2 grade), scoured.	Average.	2-40s, Australian fine.	2-40s, XXXX, white, in skeins.	Average.	
Jan....	127.1	115.5	121.3	127.7	129.1	128.4	123.2
Feb....	127.1	115.5	121.3	127.7	129.1	128.4	123.9
Mar....	127.1	112.5	119.8	127.7	129.1	128.4	124.6
Apr....	127.1	112.5	119.8	127.7	129.1	128.4	125.3
May....	127.1	112.5	119.8	127.7	129.1	128.4	125.9
June....	130.9	112.5	121.7	127.7	127.1	127.4	126.9
July....	130.9	112.5	121.7	127.7	127.1	127.4	128.0
Aug....	134.8	112.5	123.7	127.7	127.1	127.4	128.3
Sept....	134.8	112.5	123.7	127.7	127.1	127.4	129.2
Oct....	130.9	112.5	121.7	127.7	129.1	128.4	128.8
Nov....	130.9	112.5	121.7	125.7	129.1	127.4	128.2
Dec....	130.9	112.5	121.7	125.7	129.1	127.4	127.1
1907....	129.9	113.0	121.5	127.3	128.4	127.9	126.7

Month.	Fuel and lighting.										
	Candles: ad-man-tine, 6s, 14-ounce.	Coal.					Georges Creek (at mine).	Bituminous.			Average.
		Broken.	Chestnut.	Egg.	Stove.	Average.		Georges Creek (f. o. b. New York Harbor).	Pittsburg (Youghlogheny).	Average.	
Jan....	94.4	124.9	137.7	137.8	130.4	132.7	168.8	116.7	124.4	136.6	134.4
Feb....	94.4	124.8	137.7	137.7	130.4	132.7	168.8	116.7	124.4	136.6	134.4
Mar....	94.4	124.8	137.7	137.7	130.5	132.7	168.8	116.7	124.4	136.6	134.4
Apr....	94.4	124.8	137.8	137.8	117.3	122.4	168.8	116.7	124.4	136.6	128.5
May....	94.4	124.8	136.1	126.0	119.3	124.1	168.8	116.7	124.4	136.6	129.4
June....	94.4	124.9	139.3	129.2	122.4	126.5	168.8	116.7	124.4	136.6	130.8
July....	94.4	124.9	132.0	131.9	125.0	128.5	168.8	116.7	124.4	136.6	132.0
Aug....	94.4	124.8	134.7	134.8	127.6	130.5	168.8	116.7	124.4	136.6	133.1
Sept....	94.4	124.9	137.4	137.7	130.3	132.6	163.2	114.8	128.3	135.4	133.8
Oct....	95.9	125.0	137.6	137.8	130.4	132.7	196.9	125.8	132.2	151.6	140.8
Nov....	95.9	124.9	137.4	137.7	130.4	132.6	196.9	125.8	140.0	154.2	141.9
Dec....	95.9	124.9	137.5	137.7	130.4	132.6	168.8	116.7	140.0	141.8	136.6
1907....	94.8	124.9	134.1	134.2	127.1	130.1	173.0	118.0	128.1	139.7	134.2

TABLE III.—MONTHLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0. Relative price for 1907 computed from average price for the year shown in Table I.]

Month.	Fuel and lighting.								Average, fuel and lighting.
	Coke: Connells-ville, furnace.	Matches: parlor, domestic.	Petroleum.					Average.	
			Crude.	Refined.					
				For export.	150° fire test, w. w.	Average.			
Jan....	209.0	85.4	173.6	115.6	146.1	139.9	145.1	135.8	
Feb....	210.5	85.4	173.6	119.4	151.7	135.6	148.2	136.6	
Mar....	191.4	85.4	179.1	119.4	151.7	135.6	150.1	135.5	
Apr....	164.9	85.4	195.6	126.3	151.7	139.0	157.9	132.1	
May....	164.9	85.4	195.6	126.3	151.7	139.0	157.9	132.6	
June....	136.9	85.4	195.6	126.3	151.7	139.0	157.9	131.2	
July....	147.2	85.4	195.6	130.2	151.7	141.0	159.2	132.9	
Aug....	154.6	85.4	195.6	130.2	151.7	141.0	159.2	134.1	
Sept....	163.4	85.4	195.6	130.2	151.7	141.0	159.2	135.2	
Oct....	173.7	85.4	195.6	130.2	151.7	141.0	159.2	139.9	
Nov....	161.9	85.4	195.6	134.8	151.7	143.3	160.7	139.9	
Dec....	117.8	85.4	195.6	134.8	151.7	143.3	160.7	133.6	
1907....	166.3	85.4	190.5	127.0	131.2	130.1	156.2	135.0	

Month.	Metals and implements.											
	Bar iron.			Barb wire: galvanized.	Builders' hardware.				Copper.			
	Best refined, from store (Philadelphia market).	Com-mon to best re-fined (Pitts-burg market).	Average.		Butts: loose joint, cast, 3 x 3 in.	Door-knobs: steel, bronze plated.	Locks: com-mon mortise.	Average.	In-got, lake.	Sheet, hot-rolled (base sizes).	Wire, bare.	Average.
Jan....	126.8	137.3	132.1	102.9	126.6	265.2	244.8	212.2	193.5	174.8	174.2	180.8
Feb....	131.7	135.1	133.4	102.9	126.6	265.2	244.8	212.2	203.6	180.8	187.8	190.7
Mar....	131.7	135.1	133.4	102.9	126.6	265.2	244.8	212.2	206.6	192.9	187.8	193.8
Apr....	131.7	135.1	133.4	102.9	126.6	265.2	244.8	212.2	206.6	192.9	187.8	193.8
May....	131.7	135.1	133.4	102.9	126.6	265.2	244.8	212.2	206.6	192.9	187.8	193.8
June....	131.7	133.6	132.7	104.1	126.6	265.2	244.8	212.2	199.6	192.9	187.8	193.4
July....	131.7	129.8	130.8	104.1	126.6	265.2	244.8	212.2	193.5	192.9	187.8	191.4
Aug....	131.7	129.8	130.8	104.1	126.6	265.2	244.8	212.2	192.1	198.8	167.3	166.1
Sept....	131.7	127.6	129.7	106.1	126.6	265.2	244.8	212.2	146.9	168.8	167.3	161.0
Oct....	125.6	127.6	126.6	106.1	126.6	265.2	244.8	212.2	122.6	130.6	111.0	118.1
Nov....	119.5	127.6	123.6	106.1	126.6	265.2	244.8	212.2	117.5	120.6	109.3	115.8
Dec....	119.5	120.0	119.8	106.1	126.6	265.2	244.8	212.2	113.5	120.6	112.7	115.6
1907....	128.7	131.3	130.0	104.3	126.6	265.2	244.8	212.2	172.2	168.3	164.1	168.2

Month.	Lead: pig.	Lead pipe.	Nails.				Pig iron.				
			Cut, 8-penny, fence and common.	Wire, 8-penny, fence and common.	Average.	Besse-mer.	Foundry No. 1.	Foundry No. 2.	Gray forge, south-ern, coke.	Average.	
Jan....	165.4	149.4	117.6	97.1	107.4	169.5	185.8	196.1	209.7	196.3	
Feb....	166.1	149.4	117.6	97.1	107.4	168.7	184.9	196.1	206.7	189.9	
Mar....	167.5	149.4	117.6	97.1	107.4	166.6	181.5	190.4	203.8	185.6	
Apr....	163.5	149.4	117.6	97.1	107.4	170.9	179.4	192.3	209.7	188.1	
May....	160.1	149.4	117.6	97.1	107.4	174.5	179.7	194.2	198.4	186.7	
June....	151.7	142.0	117.6	97.1	107.4	177.8	173.9	204.2	198.4	188.6	
July....	137.8	142.0	117.6	97.1	107.4	172.7	159.5	198.4	198.4	182.3	
Aug....	135.2	134.5	120.4	97.1	108.8	166.6	152.0	183.1	180.4	172.8	
Sept....	136.5	134.5	123.1	99.5	111.3	165.8	143.1	175.4	173.6	164.5	
Oct....	122.8	127.9	120.4	99.5	110.0	166.2	137.8	163.0	171.3	159.6	
Nov....	120.7	127.0	116.3	99.5	107.9	147.7	131.3	154.4	160.1	148.4	
Dec....	111.5	113.8	116.3	99.5	107.9	142.3	127.9	146.7	148.8	141.4	
1907....	144.9	139.2	118.3	97.9	108.1	165.8	161.4	182.9	189.3	174.0	

TABLE III.—MONTHLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0. Relative price for 1907 computed from average price for the year shown in Table I.]

Month.	Metals and implements.							
	quick-silver.	Silver: bar, fine.	Spelter: western.	Steel billets.	Steel rails.	Steel sheets: black, No. 27. (a)	Tin: pig.	Tin plates: domestic, Bessemer, coke, 14x20 in. (b)
Jan....	96.5	92.6	147.8	136.6	107.4	111.6	227.9	119.8
Feb....	96.5	92.7	157.7	137.0	107.4	111.6	231.5	119.8
Mar....	96.5	90.9	153.8	134.7	107.4	111.6	228.2	119.8
Apr....	94.8	88.2	152.2	140.5	107.4	111.6	217.9	119.8
May....	94.8	89.0	146.7	140.8	107.4	111.6	234.5	119.8
June....	94.8	90.5	143.8	137.6	107.4	111.6	226.0	119.8
July....	92.1	91.8	141.2	139.4	107.4	111.6	233.6	119.8
Aug....	92.1	92.7	129.4	136.6	107.4	111.6	211.3	119.8
Sept....	92.1	91.4	122.3	136.4	107.4	111.6	202.2	119.8
Oct....	96.5	84.3	119.5	131.0	107.4	111.6	189.0	119.8
Nov....	109.1	79.3	121.7	130.1	107.4	111.6	166.7	119.8
Dec....	109.1	73.7	102.4	130.1	107.4	111.6	163.9	119.8
1907....	97.1	88.1	136.5	135.9	107.4	111.6	211.1	119.8

Month.	Tools.								
	Augers: extra, 1/2-inch.	Axes: M. C. O., Yankee.	Chisels: extra, socket firmer, 1-inch.	Files: 8-inch, mill bastard.	Hammers: Maydole No. 1 1/2.	Planes: Bailey No. 5.	Saws.		
							Crosscut, Disston.	Hand, Disston No. 7.	Average.
Jan....	223.9	144.9	237.6	118.4	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7
Feb....	223.9	144.9	237.6	118.4	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7
Mar....	223.9	144.9	237.6	118.4	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7
Apr....	223.9	144.9	237.6	117.3	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7
May....	223.9	144.9	237.6	117.3	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7
June....	223.9	144.9	237.6	117.3	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7
July....	223.9	144.9	237.6	117.3	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7
Aug....	223.9	144.9	237.6	117.3	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7
Sept....	223.9	144.9	237.6	116.1	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7
Oct....	223.9	144.9	237.6	116.1	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7
Nov....	223.9	144.9	237.6	114.9	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7
Dec....	223.9	144.9	198.0	114.9	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7
1907....	223.9	144.9	234.3	117.0	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7

Month.	Tools.				Wood screws: 1-inch, No. 10, flat head.	Zinc: sheet.	Average, metals and implements.
	Shovels: Ames No. 2.	Trowels: M. C. O., brick, 10 1/2-inch.	Vises: solid box, 50-pound.	Average.			
Jan....	99.7	100.0	147.4	115.7	80.7	142.9	147.9
Feb....	99.7	100.0	147.4	115.7	80.7	145.5	149.1
Mar....	99.7	100.0	147.4	115.7	80.7	147.2	148.3
Apr....	99.7	100.0	147.4	115.7	80.7	148.9	148.6
May....	99.7	100.0	147.4	115.7	80.7	148.9	148.3
June....	99.7	100.0	147.4	115.7	80.7	148.9	148.1
July....	99.7	100.0	147.4	115.7	80.7	148.9	146.9
Aug....	99.7	100.0	147.4	115.7	80.7	144.5	142.7
Sept....	99.7	100.0	147.4	115.7	80.7	134.2	140.8
Oct....	99.7	100.0	147.4	115.7	80.7	129.9	135.4
Nov....	99.7	100.0	147.4	115.7	80.7	129.9	133.3
Dec....	99.7	100.0	147.4	115.7	80.7	121.3	129.3
1907....	99.7	100.0	147.4	115.7	80.7	140.9	143.4

a Average for the period, July, 1894, to December, 1899=100.0.

b Average for 1896-1899=100.0.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—
Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0. Relative price for 1907 computed from average price for the year shown in Table I.]

Month.	Lumber and building materials.							
	Brick: common domestic.	Carbonate of lead: American, in oil.	Cement.			Doors: pine.	Lime: common.	Linseed oil: raw.
			Portland, domestic. ^a	Rosendale.	Average.			
Jan....	112.4	127.4	82.7	107.1	94.9	168.0	122.4	90.4
Feb....	114.6	118.9	82.7	107.1	94.9	168.0	122.4	90.4
Mar....	114.6	118.9	82.7	107.1	94.9	168.0	122.4	90.4
Apr....	94.4	123.2	82.7	107.1	94.9	168.0	122.4	90.4
May....	105.6	123.2	82.7	107.1	94.9	168.0	107.4	90.4
June....	134.8	123.2	82.7	107.1	94.9	168.0	107.4	97.0
July....	116.9	123.2	82.7	107.1	94.9	168.0	107.4	99.2
Aug....	116.9	123.2	85.2	107.1	96.2	168.0	107.4	94.8
Sept....	110.1	123.2	85.2	107.1	96.2	168.0	107.4	94.8
Oct....	105.6	114.7	85.2	107.1	96.2	173.3	107.4	103.6
Nov....	103.4	114.7	77.6	107.1	92.4	173.3	107.4	108.0
Dec....	98.9	114.7	77.6	107.1	92.4	151.1	125.4	99.2
1907....	110.7	120.8	82.4	107.1	94.8	167.5	113.9	95.7

Month.	Lumber.									
	Hemlock.	Maple: hard.	Oak: white.			Pine.				
			Plain.	Quartered.	Average.	White boards.			Yellow.	Average.
No. 2 barn.	Uppers.	Average.	Yellow.	Average.						
Jan.....	186.0	117.0	136.3	140.0	142.7	192.2	194.9	193.6	165.2	184.1
Feb.....	186.0	117.0	141.6	140.0	145.3	192.2	194.9	193.6	165.2	184.1
Mar.....	186.0	122.6	146.9	149.0	148.0	192.2	199.0	195.6	165.2	185.5
Apr.....	186.0	122.6	146.9	149.0	148.0	192.2	199.0	195.6	165.2	185.5
May.....	186.0	122.6	164.3	149.0	156.7	197.4	201.1	199.3	165.2	187.9
June.....	186.0	122.6	153.6	149.0	151.3	197.4	201.1	199.3	165.2	187.9
July.....	186.0	122.6	153.6	149.0	151.3	197.4	201.1	199.3	165.2	187.9
Aug.....	186.0	122.6	149.6	149.0	149.3	197.4	201.1	199.3	165.2	187.9
Sept.....	186.0	122.6	144.3	149.0	146.7	197.4	201.1	199.3	165.2	187.9
Oct.....	186.0	122.6	144.3	149.0	146.7	197.4	203.1	200.3	165.2	188.6
Nov.....	186.0	122.6	144.3	149.0	146.7	197.4	203.1	200.3	165.2	188.6
Dec.....	186.0	122.6	144.3	149.0	146.7	197.4	203.1	200.3	165.2	188.6
1907.....	186.0	121.7	147.5	149.0	148.3	195.7	200.2	198.0	165.2	187.0

Month.	Lumber.			Oxide of zinc.	Plate glass: polished, glazing.			Putty.	Resin: good, strained.
	Poplar.	Spruce.	Average.		Area, 3 to 5 square feet.	Area, 5 to 10 square feet.	Average.		
Jan....	170.6	174.2	165.0	134.5	77.2	80.1	78.7	75.9	295.2
Feb....	170.6	174.2	165.6	134.5	77.2	80.1	78.7	75.9	299.0
Mar....	184.9	174.2	168.9	134.5	77.2	80.1	78.7	75.9	307.3
Apr....	184.9	174.2	168.9	134.5	77.2	80.1	78.7	75.9	316.0
May....	196.1	174.2	172.9	134.5	77.2	80.1	78.7	75.9	333.4
June....	183.3	174.2	170.3	134.5	77.2	80.1	78.7	75.9	333.4
July....	183.3	174.2	170.3	134.5	77.2	80.1	78.7	75.9	307.3
Aug....	189.7	174.2	170.5	134.5	77.2	80.1	78.7	75.9	312.5
Sept....	189.7	174.2	169.9	134.5	77.2	80.1	78.7	75.9	302.1
Oct....	189.7	146.4	167.1	134.5	77.2	80.1	78.7	75.9	293.4
Nov....	189.7	146.4	167.1	134.5	77.2	80.1	78.7	75.9	291.7
Dec....	189.7	146.4	167.1	134.5	77.2	80.1	78.7	75.9	246.5
1907....	185.2	167.3	168.6	134.5	77.2	80.1	78.7	75.9	304.0

^a Average for 1895-1899=100.0.

TABLE III.—MONTHLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—Continued.

Average price for 1890-1899—100.0. Relative prices for 1907 computed from average price for the year shown in Table I.]

Month.	Lumber and building materials.								Average, lumber and building materials.
	Shingles.			Tar.	Turpentine: spirits of.	Window glass: American, single.			
	Cypress.	Red cedar.	Average.			Firsts, 6 x 8 to 10 x 15 inch.	Thirds, 6 x 8 to 10 x 15 inch.	Average.	
Jan....	136.5	177.6	157.1	195.1	212.4	133.9	126.2	130.1	145.9
Feb....	136.5	195.4	166.0	190.9	221.4	133.9	126.2	130.1	147.3
Mar....	154.2	195.4	174.8	190.9	225.8	133.9	126.2	130.1	149.1
Apr....	154.2	206.0	180.1	232.4	218.4	133.9	126.2	130.1	150.5
May....	154.2	213.2	183.7	190.9	201.9	133.9	126.2	130.1	150.4
June....	154.2	184.7	169.5	199.2	191.4	133.9	126.2	130.1	149.8
July....	154.2	213.2	183.7	207.5	182.5	133.9	126.2	130.1	149.2
Aug....	154.2	220.3	187.3	207.5	176.5	126.4	119.2	122.8	149.0
Sept....	154.2	213.2	183.7	190.9	174.2	126.4	119.2	122.8	147.2
Oct....	154.2	195.4	174.8	190.9	164.5	126.4	119.2	122.8	144.9
Nov....	145.3	142.1	143.7	190.9	161.5	126.4	119.2	122.8	142.2
Dec....	145.3	142.1	143.7	132.8	146.6	126.4	119.2	122.8	137.2
1907....	149.8	191.5	170.7	193.3	189.8	130.8	123.2	127.0	146.9

Month.	Drugs and chemicals.									
	Alcohol: grain.	Alcohol: wood, refined, 95 per cent.	Alum: lump.	Brimstone: crude, seconds.	Glycerin: refined.	Muriatic acid: 20°.	Opium: natural, in cases.	Quinine: American.	Sulphuric acid: 66°.	Average, drugs and chemicals.
Jan....	110.0	41.9	104.8	108.7	84.0	129.8	150.4	77.2	112.4	102.1
Feb....	110.0	41.9	104.8	106.9	85.8	129.8	150.4	89.4	112.4	103.5
Mar....	110.0	41.9	104.8	106.9	92.9	129.8	146.2	85.4	112.4	103.4
Apr....	110.0	41.9	104.8	106.9	92.9	129.8	169.5	77.2	112.4	105.0
May....	110.0	41.9	104.8	106.9	94.7	129.8	169.5	73.2	112.4	104.8
June....	112.9	41.9	104.8	106.9	96.5	129.8	161.0	73.2	112.4	104.4
July....	112.9	41.9	104.8	106.9	98.3	129.8	201.3	65.0	112.4	108.1
Aug....	112.9	41.9	104.8	106.9	101.9	129.8	296.6	65.0	112.4	119.1
Sept....	112.9	41.9	104.8	106.9	101.9	129.8	296.6	65.0	112.4	119.1
Oct....	115.6	41.9	104.8	94.2	110.8	129.8	275.4	65.0	112.4	116.7
Nov....	116.5	41.9	104.8	94.2	112.6	129.8	264.8	65.0	112.4	115.8
Dec....	117.4	40.9	104.8	94.2	114.4	129.8	233.0	65.0	112.4	112.4
1907....	112.6	41.8	104.8	103.9	98.9	129.8	209.6	72.2	112.4	109.6

Month.	House furnishing goods.								
	Earthenware.				Furniture.				
	Plates, cream-colored.	Plates, white granite.	Teacups and saucers, white granite.	Average.	Bedroom sets, ash.	Chairs, bedroom, maple.	Chairs, kitchen.	Tables, kitchen.	Average.
Jan....	106.6	102.4	98.8	102.6	137.4	161.4	143.8	124.7	141.8
Feb....	106.6	102.4	98.8	102.6	137.4	161.4	143.8	124.7	141.8
Mar....	106.6	102.4	98.8	102.6	137.4	161.4	143.8	124.7	141.8
Apr....	106.6	102.4	98.8	102.6	137.4	161.4	143.8	124.7	141.8
May....	106.6	102.4	98.8	102.6	137.4	161.4	156.8	124.7	145.1
June....	106.6	102.4	98.8	102.6	137.4	161.4	156.8	124.7	145.1
July....	106.6	102.4	98.8	102.6	137.4	161.4	156.8	124.7	145.1
Aug....	106.6	102.4	98.8	102.6	137.4	161.4	156.8	124.7	145.1
Sept....	106.6	102.4	98.8	102.6	137.4	161.4	156.8	124.7	145.1
Oct....	106.6	102.4	98.8	102.6	137.4	161.4	156.8	124.7	145.1
Nov....	106.6	102.4	98.8	102.6	137.4	161.4	156.8	124.7	145.1
Dec....	106.6	102.4	98.8	102.6	137.4	161.4	156.8	124.7	145.1
1907....	106.6	102.4	98.8	102.6	137.4	161.4	151.4	124.7	143.7

TABLE III.—MONTHLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN 1907—
Concluded.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0. Relative price for 1907 computed from average price for the year shown in Table I.]

Month.	House furnishing goods.										Average, house furnish- ing goods.
	Glassware.				Table cutlery.			Wooden ware.			
	Nap- ples, 4-inch.	Pitch- ers, ½-gallon, com- mon.	Tum- blers, ½-pint, com- mon.	Aver- age.	Carv- ers, stag hand- les.	Knives and forks, cocobolo handles.	Aver- age.	Pails, oak- grain- ed.	Tubs, oak- grain- ed.	Aver- age.	
Jan....	125.0	89.4	84.5	99.6	93.8	104.0	98.9	130.9	107.6	119.3	115.0
Feb....	125.0	89.4	84.5	99.6	93.8	104.0	98.9	130.9	107.6	119.3	115.0
Mar....	125.0	89.4	84.5	99.6	93.8	104.0	98.9	150.1	118.8	134.5	117.2
Apr....	125.0	89.4	84.5	99.6	93.8	108.9	101.4	150.1	118.8	134.5	117.5
May....	125.0	89.4	84.5	99.6	93.8	108.9	101.4	150.1	118.8	134.5	117.5
June....	125.0	89.4	84.5	99.6	93.8	108.9	101.4	150.1	118.8	134.5	118.5
July....	125.0	89.4	84.5	99.6	106.3	108.9	107.6	150.1	122.5	136.3	119.6
Aug....	125.0	89.4	84.5	99.6	106.3	108.9	107.6	161.7	122.5	142.1	120.5
Sept....	125.0	89.4	84.5	99.6	106.3	108.9	107.6	161.7	122.5	142.1	120.5
Oct....	125.0	89.4	84.5	99.6	106.3	108.9	107.6	161.7	122.5	142.1	120.5
Nov....	125.0	89.4	84.5	99.6	106.3	104.8	105.6	161.7	122.5	142.1	120.2
Dec....	125.0	89.4	84.5	99.6	106.3	104.8	105.6	161.7	122.5	142.1	120.2
1907....	125.0	89.4	84.5	99.6	100.0	107.0	103.5	151.7	118.8	135.3	118.5

Month.	Miscellaneous.							Proof spirits.
	Cotton- seed meal.	Cotton- seed oil: summer yellow, prime.	Jute: raw.	Malt: western made.	Paper.			
					News.	Wrapping, manila.	Average.	
Jan....	134.8	133.0	237.1	108.1	79.6	90.4	85.0	112.2
Feb....	130.2	142.9	194.6	112.4	71.2	90.4	80.8	112.2
Mar....	129.1	159.3	218.2	135.2	71.2	90.4	80.8	112.2
Apr....	125.7	152.8	223.1	135.2	85.3	90.4	87.9	112.2
May....	121.1	160.2	213.6	150.8	85.3	90.4	87.9	112.4
June....	125.7	155.6	189.7	149.4	85.3	90.4	87.9	113.9
July....	131.4	190.5	189.7	145.8	85.3	90.4	87.9	113.9
Aug....	129.1	187.3	156.7	145.8	85.3	90.4	87.0	113.9
Sept....	132.5	185.6	151.8	162.2	85.3	90.4	87.9	115.7
Oct....	137.1	170.8	156.7	177.1	88.6	94.9	91.8	117.0
Nov....	137.1	124.8	156.7	172.1	88.6	94.9	91.8	117.4
Dec....	134.8	126.5	128.2	172.1	88.6	94.9	91.8	117.4
1907....	130.7	160.0	184.4	147.2	83.3	91.5	87.4	114.2

Month.	Rope: manila.	Rubber: Para Island.	Soap: castle, mottled, pure.	Starch: laundry.	Tobacco.			Average, miscel- laneous.
					Plug.	Smoking, gran., Seal of N. C.	Average.	
Feb....	141.9	148.0	114.2	114.9	118.6	117.9	118.3	123.8
Mar....	141.9	148.0	114.2	114.9	118.6	117.9	118.3	128.5
Apr....	141.9	143.6	114.2	114.9	118.6	117.9	118.3	128.9
May....	141.9	142.4	114.2	114.9	118.6	117.9	118.3	129.5
June....	141.9	136.1	105.4	114.9	118.6	117.9	118.3	128.8
July....	141.9	130.5	123.0	114.9	118.6	117.9	118.3	130.3
Aug....	141.9	133.0	123.0	114.9	118.6	117.9	118.3	127.5
Sept....	135.2	128.6	123.0	114.9	118.6	117.9	118.3	127.8
Oct....	135.2	124.3	123.0	122.1	118.6	117.9	118.3	129.5
Nov....	128.5	114.3	123.0	122.1	118.6	117.9	118.3	124.3
Dec....	125.8	97.4	123.0	122.1	118.6	117.9	118.3	126.6
1907....	138.1	132.8	117.9	116.1	118.6	117.9	118.3	127.1

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899).

[For explanation and discussion of this table, see page 337. For a more detailed description of the articles, see Table I.]

Year.	Farm products.									
	Barley: by sample.		Cattle: steers, choice to extra.		Cattle: steers, good to choice.		Corn: No. 2, cash.		Cotton: upland, middling.	
	Average price per bushel.	Relative price.	Average price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Average price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Average price per bushel.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.4534	100.0	\$5.3203	100.0	\$4.7347	100.0	\$0.3804	100.0	\$0.07762	100.0
1890.....	.5062	111.6	4.8697	91.5	4.1375	87.4	.3950	103.8	.11089	142.9
1891.....	.0098	134.5	5.8851	110.6	5.0976	107.7	.5744	151.0	.08603	110.8
1892.....	.5085	112.2	5.0909	95.7	4.4995	95.0	.4500	118.3	.07086	99.0
1893.....	.4085	103.3	5.5211	103.8	4.8394	102.2	.3964	104.2	.08319	107.2
1894.....	.5134	113.2	5.1301	97.0	4.5245	95.6	.4526	113.7	.07002	90.2
1895.....	.4300	94.8	5.4849	103.1	4.9344	104.2	.3955	104.0	.07298	94.0
1896.....	.2977	65.7	4.5957	86.4	4.2712	90.2	.2580	67.8	.07918	102.0
1897.....	.5226	71.2	5.2255	98.2	4.7736	100.8	.2546	66.9	.07153	92.2
1898.....	.4348	95.9	5.3779	101.1	4.8846	103.2	.3144	82.6	.05972	76.9
1899.....	.4425	97.6	5.9928	112.6	5.3851	113.7	.3333	87.6	.06578	84.7
1900.....	.4815	106.2	5.7827	108.7	5.3938	113.9	.3811	100.2	.09609	123.8
1901.....	.5884	129.8	6.1217	115.1	5.5901	118.1	.4969	130.6	.08627	111.1
1902.....	.6321	139.4	7.4721	140.4	6.5572	138.5	.5968	156.9	.08932	115.1
1903.....	.5494	121.2	5.5678	104.7	5.0615	106.9	.4606	121.1	.11235	144.7
1904.....	.5390	116.9	5.9562	112.0	5.1923	109.7	.5046	132.6	.12100	155.9
1905.....	.4850	107.0	5.9678	112.2	5.2192	110.2	.5010	131.7	.09553	123.1
1906.....	.5116	112.8	6.1298	115.2	5.3572	113.1	.4632	121.8	.11025	142.0
1907.....	.7663	169.0	6.5442	123.0	5.8120	122.8	.5280	138.8	.11879	153.0

Year.	Flaxseed: No. 1.		Hay: timothy, No. 1.		Hides: green, salted, packers, heavy native steers.		Hogs: heavy.		Hogs: light.	
	Average price per bushel.	Relative price.	Average price per ton.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Average price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$1.1132	100.0	\$10.4304	100.0	\$0.0937	100.0	\$4.4123	100.0	\$4.4206	100.0
1890.....	1.3967	125.5	9.9952	95.8	.0933	99.6	3.9534	89.6	5.9260	88.8
1891.....	1.0805	97.1	12.2861	117.8	.0951	101.5	4.4229	100.2	4.3404	98.2
1892.....	1.0179	91.4	11.8375	113.5	.0870	92.8	5.1550	116.8	5.0675	114.6
1893.....	1.0875	97.7	11.2067	107.4	.0749	79.9	6.5486	148.4	6.5752	148.7
1894.....	1.3533	121.6	10.4183	99.9	.0641	68.4	4.9719	112.7	4.9327	111.6
1895.....	1.2449	111.8	11.3844	109.1	.1028	109.7	4.2781	97.0	4.2533	96.2
1896.....	.8119	72.9	10.3269	99.0	.0811	86.6	3.3579	76.1	3.5591	80.5
1897.....	.8696	78.1	8.4423	80.9	.0996	106.3	3.5906	81.4	3.7223	84.2
1898.....	1.1115	99.8	8.3317	79.9	.1151	122.8	3.8053	86.2	3.7587	85.0
1899.....	1.1578	104.0	10.0745	96.6	.1235	131.8	4.0394	91.5	4.0709	92.1
1900.....	1.6223	145.7	11.5673	110.9	.1194	127.4	5.0815	115.2	5.1135	115.7
1901.....	1.6227	145.8	12.8255	123.0	.1237	132.0	5.9580	135.0	5.9177	133.9
1902.....	1.5027	135.0	12.6154	120.9	.1338	142.8	6.9704	158.0	6.7353	152.4
1903.....	1.0471	94.1	12.4279	119.2	.1169	124.8	6.0572	137.3	6.0541	137.0
1904.....	1.1088	99.6	11.7308	112.5	.1166	124.4	5.1550	116.8	5.1481	116.5
1905.....	1.1979	107.6	11.2596	107.9	.1430	152.6	5.2913	119.9	5.3213	120.4
1906.....	1.1027	99.1	12.9615	124.3	.1543	164.7	6.2351	141.3	6.3274	143.1
1907.....	1.1808	106.1	16.9387	162.4	.1455	155.3	6.0800	137.8	6.2163	140.6

LETIN OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR.

—A) THE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF
 (ITI) 00 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR
 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Farm products.									
	Wheat: N. Y. State, choice.		Oats: cash.		Rye, No. 2, cash.		Sheep: native.		Sheep: western.	
	Average price per bushel.	Relative price.	Average price per bushel.	Relative price.	Average price per bushel.	Relative price.	Average price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Average price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.
1890-1899..	\$0	100.0	\$0.2688	100.0	\$0.5288	100.0	\$3.7580	100.0	\$3.9541	100.0
1890		148.0	.3106	115.6	.5447	103.0	4.5284	120.5	4.6544	118.0
1891		149.1	.3573	144.1	.8334	157.6	4.5106	120.0	4.5719	115.6
1892		141.4	.3042	113.2	.6754	127.7	4.7798	127.2	4.8695	123.2
1893		128.2	.2827	103.2	.4899	92.6	3.8781	103.2	4.1255	104.3
1894			.3110	115.7	.4660	88.1	2.6957	71.7	2.9898	75.4
1895			.2573	88.3	.4825	91.2	2.9465	78.5	3.0943	78.3
1896			.1801	67.0	.3517	66.5	2.9322	78.0	3.1411	79.4
1897			.1825	67.9	.3962	74.9	3.4971	93.1	3.7652	93.3
1898			.2470	91.9	.4958	93.8	3.9250	104.4	4.1625	103.3
1899			.2432	91.2	.5521	104.4	3.8837	103.3	4.1615	103.2
1900			.2271	84.5	.5177	97.9	4.1236	109.7	4.5297	114.3
1901			.3179	118.3	.5328	100.8	3.3519	89.2	3.7442	94.7
1902			.3360	147.3	.5418	102.5	3.7817	100.6	4.1784	103.7
1903			.3541	131.7	.5156	97.5	3.7101	98.7	3.8769	98.9
1904			.3649	135.8	.7096	133.4	4.1457	110.3	4.2608	107.8
1905			.2969	111.2	.7113	134.5	5.0529	134.5	5.0798	125.5
1906			.3282	122.1	.6197	115.5	4.9481	131.7	5.2793	133.5
1907		98.1	.4501	167.4	.7688	145.4	4.8962	130.3	4.8835	123.5

Year.	Farm products.				Food, etc.					
	Wheat: cash.		Beans: medium, choice.		Bread: crack-ers, butter.		Bread: crack-ers, soda.		Bread: loaf (Wash. market).	
	Average price per bushel.	Relative price.	Average price per bushel.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound. a	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.7510	100.0	\$1.6699	100.0	\$0.0673	100.0	\$0.0718	100.0	\$0.0354	100.0
1890	.8933	118.9	2.0292	121.5	.0700	104.0	.0800	111.4	.0356	100.6
1891	.9618	128.1	2.2531	134.9	.0700	104.0	.0800	111.4	.0356	100.6
1892	.7876	104.9	1.8698	112.0	.0988	102.2	.0783	106.3	.0356	100.6
1893	.6770	90.1	1.9906	119.2	.0650	96.6	.0750	104.5	.0356	100.6
1894	.5587	74.4	1.8499	110.6	.0650	96.6	.0725	101.0	.0356	100.6
1895	.6000	79.9	1.7896	107.2	.0654	97.2	.0675	94.0	.0333	94.1
1896	.6413	85.4	1.1740	70.3	.0650	96.6	.0658	91.6	.0363	102.5
1897	.7949	105.8	1.0448	62.6	.0592	88.0	.0592	82.5	.0356	100.6
1898	.8849	117.8	1.2479	74.7	.0733	108.9	.0758	105.6	.0356	100.6
1899	.7109	94.7	1.4531	87.0	.0713	105.9	.0663	92.3	.0356	100.6
1900	.7040	93.7	2.0669	125.6	.0750	111.4	.0675	94.0	.0356	100.6
1901	.7187	95.7	2.1927	131.3	.0800	118.9	.0700	97.5	.0356	100.6
1902	.7414	98.7	1.9198	115.0	.0800	118.9	.0700	97.5	.0356	100.6
1903	.7895	105.1	2.2625	135.5	.0758	112.6	.0646	90.0	.0356	100.6
1904	1.0390	138.3	2.0104	120.4	.0775	115.2	.0658	91.6	.0363	102.5
1905	1.0104	134.5	2.1500	128.8	.0892	132.5	.0883	95.1	.0356	100.6
1906	.7931	105.6	1.9000	113.8	.0900	133.7	.0650	90.5	.0356	100.6
1907	.9073	120.8	1.7771	106.4	.0900	133.7	.0650	90.5	.0356	100.6

a Weight before baking.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Food, etc.									
	Bread: loaf, homemade (N.Y. market).		Bread: loaf, Vienna (N.Y. market).		Butter: creamery, Elgin (Elgin market).		Butter: creamery, extra (N.Y. market).		Butter: dairy, New York State.	
	Average price per pound. ^a	Relative price.	Average price per pound. ^a	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$0.0317	100.0	\$0.0352	100.0	\$0.2170	100.0	\$0.2242	100.0	\$0.2024	100.0
1890.	.0320	100.9	.0356	101.1	.2238	103.1	.2276	101.5	.1954	96.5
1891.	.0320	100.9	.0356	101.1	.2501	115.3	.2586	115.3	.2380	117.6
1892.	.0320	100.9	.0356	101.1	.2528	116.5	.2612	116.5	.2350	116.1
1893.	.0320	100.9	.0356	101.1	.2581	118.9	.2701	120.5	.2521	124.6
1894.	.0320	100.9	.0356	101.1	.2194	101.1	.2288	102.1	.2091	103.3
1895.	.0320	100.9	.0356	101.1	.2064	95.1	.2137	95.3	.1882	93.0
1896.	.0287	90.5	.0319	90.6	.1793	82.6	.1841	82.1	.1665	82.3
1897.	.0320	100.9	.0356	101.1	.1837	84.7	.1895	84.5	.1684	83.2
1898.	.0320	100.9	.0356	101.1	.1886	86.9	.1954	87.2	.1749	86.4
1899.	.0320	100.9	.0356	101.1	.2075	95.0	.2126	94.8	.1965	97.1
1900.	.0320	100.9	.0356	101.1	.2178	100.4	.2245	100.1	.2115	104.5
1901.	.0320	100.9	.0356	101.1	.2114	97.4	.2163	96.5	.2007	99.2
1902.	.0320	100.9	.0356	101.1	.2413	111.2	.2480	110.6	.2318	114.5
1903.	.0320	100.9	.0356	101.1	.2302	106.1	.2348	104.7	.2150	106.2
1904.	.0350	110.4	.0370	105.1	.2178	100.4	.2189	97.6	.1970	97.3
1905.	.0376	118.6	.0400	113.6	.2429	111.9	.2489	111.0	.2339	115.6
1906.	.0376	118.6	.0400	113.6	.2459	113.3	.2489	111.0	.2325	114.9
1907.	.0376	118.6	.0400	113.6	.2761	127.2	.2830	126.2	.2671	132.0

Year.	Cheese: N. Y., full cream.		Coffee: Rio No. 7.		Eggs: new-laid, fancy, near-by.		Fish: cod, dry, bank, large.		Fish: herring, shore, round.	
	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per dozen.	Relative price.	Average price per quintal.	Relative price.	Average price per barrel.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$0.0987	100.0	\$0.1313	100.0	\$0.1963	100.0	\$5.5849	100.0	\$3.7763	100.0
1890.	.0968	97.1	.1793	136.6	.1945	99.1	5.6771	101.7	3.5250	93.3
1891.	.1011	102.4	.1671	127.3	.2160	110.0	6.7292	120.5	4.7068	124.6
1892.	.1058	107.2	.1430	108.9	.2167	110.4	7.0521	126.3	2.9375	77.8
1893.	.1076	109.0	.1723	131.2	.2247	114.5	6.3802	114.2	3.8125	101.0
1894.	.1060	107.4	.1654	126.0	.1835	93.5	5.9583	106.7	3.3958	89.9
1895.	.0929	94.1	.1592	121.2	.2002	102.0	5.5208	98.9	3.1563	83.6
1896.	.0908	92.0	.1233	93.9	.1741	88.7	4.2083	75.4	3.3542	88.8
1897.	.0968	98.1	.0793	60.4	.1718	87.5	4.5208	80.9	3.6354	96.3
1898.	.0822	83.3	.0633	48.2	.1817	92.6	4.6667	83.6	4.2083	111.4
1899.	.1075	108.9	.0694	46.0	.1994	101.6	5.1354	92.0	5.0313	133.2
1900.	.1128	114.3	.0822	62.6	.1977	100.7	5.3021	94.9	5.0833	134.6
1901.	.1011	102.4	.0646	49.2	.2095	106.7	5.9896	107.2	4.9792	131.9
1902.	.1126	114.1	.0586	44.6	.2409	122.7	5.0638	91.2	4.9063	129.9
1903.	.1217	123.3	.0559	42.6	.2418	123.2	5.8466	105.0	5.7292	151.7
1904.	.1019	103.2	.0782	59.6	.2650	135.0	7.2813	130.4	5.4531	144.4
1905.	.1212	122.8	.0832	63.4	.2712	138.2	7.3958	132.4	6.0000	158.9
1906.	.1313	133.0	.0811	61.8	.2615	133.2	7.6042	136.2	6.3438	168.0
1907.	.1414	143.3	.0658	50.1	.2771	141.2	7.7396	138.6	6.1500	162.9

^a Weight before baking.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	* Food, etc.									
	Fish: mackerel, salt, large No. 3s.		Fish: salmon, canned.		Flour: buck-wheat.		Flour: rye.		Flour: wheat, spring patents.	
	Average price per barrel.	Relative price.	Average price per 12 cans.	Relative price.	Average price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Average price per barrel.	Relative price.	Average price per barrel.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$14.1306	100.0	\$1.4731	100.0	\$1.9428	100.0	\$3.3171	100.0	\$4.2972	100.0
1890.....	18.2500	129.2	1.6417	111.4	2.0214	104.0	3.3046	101.4	5.1856	120.7
1891.....	15.3125	108.4	1.5000	101.8	2.4429	125.7	4.9208	148.3	5.3053	123.5
1892.....	13.0000	92.0	1.4833	100.7	1.7891	92.1	4.0167	121.1	4.3466	101.1
1893.....	13.0000	92.0	1.4938	101.4	2.3679	121.9	3.0854	93.0	4.0063	93.2
1894.....	11.0556	78.2	1.4250	96.7	2.4357	125.4	2.7813	83.8	3.5947	83.7
1895.....	15.0250	110.6	1.5042	102.1	1.6750	86.2	3.1333	94.5	3.6434	84.8
1896.....	13.9167	98.5	1.5500	105.2	1.3806	71.1	2.6853	80.9	3.7957	88.3
1897.....	12.2292	86.5	1.3375	90.8	1.4656	75.4	2.8063	84.6	4.5913	106.8
1898.....	13.6667	96.7	1.2667	86.0	1.5500	79.8	3.0813	92.9	4.7293	110.1
1899.....	15.2500	107.9	1.5292	103.8	2.3000	118.4	3.2979	99.4	3.7749	87.8
1900.....	13.8058	98.3	1.7708	120.2	2.1036	108.3	3.4250	103.3	3.8423	89.4
1901.....	10.8182	76.6	1.7125	116.3	2.1063	108.4	3.3208	100.1	3.8104	88.7
1902.....	13.7500	97.3	1.6146	109.6	2.2357	115.1	3.4417	103.8	3.8082	88.6
1903.....	17.4479	123.5	1.6208	110.0	2.3214	119.5	3.1479	94.9	4.3393	100.8
1904.....	14.5000	102.6	1.7250	117.1	2.3333	120.1	4.3479	131.1	5.3784	125.2
1905.....	13.9167	98.5	1.7042	115.7	2.1893	112.7	4.4667	134.7	5.4221	126.2
1906.....	14.7917	104.7	1.6833	114.3	2.2333	115.0	3.8438	115.9	4.2760	99.5
1907.....	13.9167	98.5	1.6679	113.2	2.5714	132.4	4.6021	138.7	4.8755	113.5

Year.	Flour: wheat, winter straights.		Fruit: apples, evaporated, choice.		Fruit: apples, sun-dried.		Fruit: currants, in barrels.		Fruit: prunes, California, in boxes.	
	Average price per barrel.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$3.8450	100.0	\$0.0847	100.0	\$0.0515	100.0	\$0.0375	100.0	\$0.0774	100.0
1890.....	4.0524	121.0	.1136	134.1	.0690	134.0	.0478	127.5	.1068	138.0
1891.....	4.9048	127.6	.1100	129.9	.0825	160.2	.0426	113.6	.1000	129.2
1892.....	4.1216	107.2	.0688	81.2	.0423	82.1	.0297	79.2	.0995	128.6
1893.....	3.2832	85.4	.0927	109.4	.0508	98.6	.0270	72.0	.1039	134.2
1894.....	2.7495	71.5	.1092	128.9	.0631	122.5	.0173	46.1	.0735	95.0
1895.....	3.2311	84.0	.0678	80.0	.0481	93.4	.0254	67.7	.0966	80.0
1896.....	3.6197	94.1	.0533	62.9	.0312	60.6	.0327	87.2	.0581	75.1
1897.....	4.3606	113.4	.0555	65.5	.0267	51.8	.0479	127.7	.0540	70.3
1898.....	4.1452	107.8	.0890	105.1	.0398	77.3	.0580	154.7	.0544	70.5
1899.....	3.3822	88.0	.0869	102.6	.0610	118.4	.0470	125.3	.0565	73.0
1900.....	3.3490	87.1	.0615	72.6	.0443	86.0	.0720	192.0	.0522	67.4
1901.....	3.3085	86.0	.0709	83.7	.0410	79.6	.0831	221.6	.0525	67.8
1902.....	3.4885	90.7	.0921	108.7	.0507	98.4	.0494	131.7	.0551	71.2
1903.....	3.5923	93.4	.0611	72.1	.0432	83.9	.0476	126.9	.0481	62.1
1904.....	4.8264	125.5	.0603	71.2	.0333	64.7	.0488	130.1	.0461	59.6
1905.....	4.5428	118.1	.0699	82.5	.0348	67.6	.0490	130.7	.0459	59.3
1906.....	3.6149	94.0	.0978	115.5	.0532	103.3	.0614	163.7	.0646	83.5
1907.....	3.9577	103.7	.0843	99.5	.0638	123.9	.0703	187.5	.0593	76.6

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Food, etc.									
	Fruit: raisins, California, London layer.		Glucose.		Lard: prime contract.		Meal: corn, fine white.		Meal: corn, fine yellow.	
	Average price per box.	Relative price.	Average price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Average price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$1.5006	100.0	\$1.4182	100.0	\$0.0654	100.0	\$1.0486	100.0	\$1.0169	100.0
1890.....	2.3604	157.30633	96.8	1.0613	101.2	1.0290	100.3
1891.....	1.8021	120.10690	100.9	1.4746	140.6	1.4579	143.4
1892.....	1.4688	97.90771	117.9	1.1921	113.7	1.1608	114.2
1893.....	1.7090	112.3	1.7625	124.3	.1030	157.5	1.1013	105.0	1.0833	106.5
1894.....	1.1542	76.9	1.5802	111.4	.0773	118.2	1.1188	106.7	1.0629	104.5
1895.....	1.4202	95.2	1.5492	109.2	.0653	99.8	1.0721	102.2	1.0613	104.4
1896.....	1.0188	67.9	1.1585	81.7	.0469	71.7	.8129	77.5	.7854	77.2
1897.....	1.3979	93.2	1.2190	86.0	.0441	67.4	.8155	77.8	.7633	75.1
1898.....	1.3917	92.7	1.3021	91.8	.0532	84.4	.8821	84.1	.8463	83.2
1899.....	1.2533	85.5	1.3538	95.6	.0556	85.0	.9554	91.1	.9273	91.2
1900.....	1.5208	101.3	1.4875	104.9	.0690	105.5	1.0115	96.5	.9908	97.4
1901.....	1.4417	96.1	1.6458	116.0	.0885	135.3	1.1979	114.2	1.1875	116.8
1902.....	1.6854	112.3	2.1788	153.6	.1059	161.9	1.5354	146.4	1.5250	150.0
1903.....	1.4458	96.3	1.8396	129.7	.0877	134.1	1.2967	123.7	1.2783	125.7
1904.....	1.4729	98.2	1.7917	126.3	.0731	111.8	1.3396	127.8	1.3333	131.1
1905.....	1.1875	79.1	1.7742	125.1	.0745	113.9	1.3250	126.4	1.3250	130.3
1906.....	1.6000	106.6	2.0367	142.9	.0887	135.6	1.2967	120.8	1.2625	124.2
1907.....	1.6271	108.4	2.2608	159.4	.0920	140.7	1.3575	129.5	1.3575	133.5

Year.	Meat: bacon, short clear sides.		Meat: bacon, short rib sides.		Meat: beef, fresh, native sides.		Meat: beef, salt, extra mess.		Meat: beef, salt hams, western.	
	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per barrel.	Relative price.	Average price per barrel.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0675	100.0	\$0.0656	100.0	\$0.0771	100.0	\$8.0166	100.0	\$18.0912	100.0
1890.....	.0603	89.3	.0586	89.3	.0688	89.2	6.9596	86.8	14.5499	80.4
1891.....	.0699	103.6	.0681	103.8	.0819	106.2	8.3654	104.4	15.5144	85.8
1892.....	.0787	116.6	.0764	116.5	.0762	98.8	6.7906	84.8	14.5577	80.5
1893.....	.1048	155.3	.1010	154.0	.0813	105.4	8.1938	102.2	17.8317	98.6
1894.....	.0731	111.3	.0736	112.2	.0748	97.0	8.0933	101.0	18.3558	101.5
1895.....	.0630	96.3	.0632	96.3	.0792	102.7	8.1274	101.4	17.2443	95.9
1896.....	.0494	73.2	.0479	73.0	.0698	90.5	7.5996	93.7	15.9327	88.1
1897.....	.0541	80.1	.0522	79.6	.0769	99.7	7.6755	95.7	22.6250	125.1
1898.....	.0596	88.3	.0594	90.5	.0781	101.3	9.1563	114.2	21.4880	118.8
1899.....	.0583	86.4	.0558	85.1	.0835	108.3	9.2885	115.9	22.7212	125.6
1900.....	.0752	111.4	.0809	111.6	.0804	104.3	9.7538	121.7	20.6587	114.2
1901.....	.0891	132.0	.0829	132.5	.0787	102.1	9.3204	116.3	20.3774	112.6
1902.....	.1073	159.0	.1046	159.5	.0971	125.9	11.7885	147.1	21.3413	118.0
1903.....	.0699	102.1	.0638	102.0	.0784	101.7	9.0673	113.1	21.2115	117.2
1904.....	.0775	114.8	.0757	115.4	.0818	106.1	8.7689	109.4	22.3341	123.5
1905.....	.0890	131.5	.0783	119.4	.0802	104.0	10.0240	125.0	21.9652	121.6
1906.....	.0942	139.6	.0920	140.2	.0780	101.2	8.8462	110.3	21.5625	119.2
1907.....	.0954	141.3	.0919	140.1	.0884	114.7	9.8173	122.5	26.0519	144.0

* Average for 1893-1899.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Food, etc.									
	Meat: hams, smoked.		Meat: mutton, dressed.		Meat: pork, salt, mess.		Milk: fresh.		Molasses: N.O., open kettle.	
	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per barrel.	Relative price.	Average price per quart.	Relative price.	Average price per gallon.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$0.0984	100.0	\$0.0754	100.0	\$11.6332	100.0	\$0.0255	100.0	\$0.3151	100.0
1890.	.0995	101.1	.0853	123.7	12.1502	104.4	.0263	103.1	.3542	112.4
1891.	.0982	99.8	.0866	114.9	11.3029	97.2	.0267	104.7	.2798	88.5
1892.	.1076	109.3	.0914	121.2	11.5252	99.1	.0268	105.1	.3198	101.2
1893.	.1249	126.9	.0803	106.5	18.3389	157.6	.0279	109.4	.3346	106.2
1894.	.1019	103.6	.0605	80.2	14.1262	121.4	.0263	103.1	.3092	96.1
1895.	.0947	96.2	.0620	82.2	11.8255	101.7	.0253	99.2	.3083	97.8
1896.	.0943	95.8	.0625	82.9	8.9399	76.8	.0234	91.8	.3246	103.0
1897.	.0894	90.9	.0728	96.6	8.9087	76.6	.0235	92.2	.2617	83.1
1898.	.0807	82.0	.0739	96.0	9.8678	84.8	.0239	93.7	.3063	97.8
1899.	.0923	93.8	.0711	94.3	9.2462	80.3	.0253	99.2	.3525	111.9
1900.	.1025	104.2	.0727	96.4	12.5072	107.5	.0274	107.5	.4775	151.5
1901.	.1075	109.2	.0675	89.5	15.6108	134.2	.0262	102.7	.3783	120.1
1902.	.1211	123.1	.0738	97.9	17.9399	154.2	.0288	112.9	.3638	115.5
1903.	.1271	129.2	.0744	98.7	16.6514	143.1	.0288	112.9	.3546	112.5
1904.	.1072	108.9	.0778	103.2	14.0288	120.6	.0275	107.8	.3396	107.8
1905.	.1046	106.3	.0859	113.9	14.4183	123.9	.0289	113.3	.3229	102.5
1906.	.1235	125.5	.0910	120.7	17.5120	150.5	.0301	118.0	.3400	107.9
1907.	.1303	132.4	.0875	116.0	17.5684	151.0	.0335	131.4	.4088	129.7

Year.	Rice: domestic, choice.		Salt: American.		Salt: Ashton's.		Soda: bicarbonate of, American.		Spices: nutmegs.	
	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per barrel.	Relative price.	Average price per 24-lb. bag.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$0.0561	100.0	\$0.7044	100.0	\$2.2033	100.0	\$0.0209	100.0	\$0.4322	100.0
1890.	.0605	107.8	.7821	112.5	2.4646	111.9	.0275	131.6	.6317	146.2
1891.	.0637	113.5	.7865	111.7	2.3813	108.1	.0317	151.7	.6081	140.7
1892.	.0569	101.4	.7575	107.5	2.3750	107.8	.0218	104.3	.5319	123.1
1893.	.0459	81.8	.7019	99.6	2.3250	105.5	.0285	136.4	.4584	106.1
1894.	.0526	93.8	.7192	102.1	2.2375	101.6	.0268	128.2	.3996	92.5
1895.	.0533	95.0	.7019	99.6	2.0500	93.0	.0177	84.7	.3969	91.8
1896.	.0519	92.5	.6226	88.4	2.0500	93.0	.0152	72.7	.3590	83.1
1897.	.0542	96.6	.6613	93.9	2.0500	93.0	.0150	71.8	.3354	77.6
1898.	.0608	108.4	.6648	94.4	2.0500	93.0	.0129	61.7	.3140	72.7
1899.	.0607	108.2	.6365	90.4	2.0500	93.0	.0117	56.0	.2871	68.4
1900.	.0548	97.7	1.0010	142.1	2.0500	93.0	.0123	58.9	.2601	60.2
1901.	.0548	97.7	.8567	121.6	2.1813	99.0	.0107	51.2	.2346	54.3
1902.	.0559	99.6	.6360	90.3	2.2250	101.0	.0108	51.7	.2028	46.9
1903.	.0566	100.9	.6140	87.2	2.2479	102.0	.0129	61.7	.2877	66.6
1904.	.0441	78.6	.7704	109.4	(a)0130	62.2	.2175	50.3
1905.	.0417	74.3	.7552	107.2	(a)0130	62.2	.1722	39.8
1906.	.0474	84.5	.7144	101.4	(a)0130	62.2	.1730	40.0
1907.	.0534	95.2	.7931	112.6	(a)0130	62.2	.1397	32.3

*Quotations discontinued.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Food, etc.									
	Spices: pepper, Singapore.		Starch: pure corn.		Sugar: 89° fair refining.		Sugar: 96° centrifugal.		Sugar: granulated.	
	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0749	100.0	\$0.0548	100.0	\$0.03398	100.0	\$0.03869	100.0	\$0.04727	100.0
1890.....	.1151	153.7	.0546	99.6	.04890	143.9	.05460	141.1	.06168	130.5
1891.....	.0873	116.6	.0600	109.5	.03459	101.8	.03910	101.1	.04714	99.7
1892.....	.0689	92.0	.0600	109.5	.02873	84.5	.03315	85.7	.04354	92.1
1893.....	.0595	79.4	.0600	109.5	.03203	94.3	.03680	95.1	.04836	102.3
1894.....	.0516	68.9	.0567	103.5	.02759	81.2	.03229	83.5	.04111	87.0
1895.....	.0497	66.4	.0554	101.1	.02894	85.2	.03253	84.1	.04155	87.9
1896.....	.0500	66.8	.0513	93.6	.03192	93.9	.03624	93.7	.04532	95.9
1897.....	.0664	88.7	.0500	91.2	.03977	90.6	.03564	92.1	.04497	95.1
1898.....	.0891	119.0	.0500	91.2	.03712	109.2	.04235	109.5	.04974	105.2
1899.....	.1117	149.1	.0500	91.2	.03922	115.4	.04422	114.3	.04924	104.2
1900.....	.1291	172.4	.0500	91.2	.04651	119.2	.04572	118.2	.05332	112.8
1901.....	.1292	172.5	.0470	85.8	.03521	103.6	.04040	104.4	.05048	106.8
1902.....	.1255	167.6	.0440	80.3	.03035	89.3	.03542	91.5	.04455	94.2
1903.....	.1289	172.1	.0597	92.5	.03228	95.0	.03720	96.1	.04641	98.2
1904.....	.1229	164.1	.0525	95.8	.03470	102.1	.03974	102.7	.04772	101.0
1905.....	.1217	162.5	.0552	100.7	.03696	108.8	.04278	110.6	.05256	111.2
1906.....	.1138	151.9	.0577	105.3	.03183	93.7	.03686	95.3	.04515	95.5
1907.....	.0994	132.7	.0600	109.5	.03251	95.7	.03754	97.0	.04651	98.4

Year.	Tallow.		Tea: Formosa, fine.		Vegetables, fresh: onions.		Vegetables, fresh: potatoes, Burbank.		Vinegar: cider, Monarch.	
	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per barrel.	Relative price.	Average price per bushel.	Relative price.	Average price per gallon.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0435	100.0	\$0.2839	100.0	\$3.3995	100.0	\$0.4991	100.0	\$0.1478	100.0
1890.....	.0460	105.7	.2733	96.3	4.3438	127.8	.5956	119.3	.1558	105.4
1891.....	.0483	111.0	.2817	99.2	4.1250	121.3	.7780	154.9	.1800	121.8
1892.....	.0463	106.4	.3008	106.0	3.6042	106.0	.4546	91.1	.1642	111.1
1893.....	.0544	125.1	.2888	101.7	3.1875	93.8	.6714	134.5	.1500	101.5
1894.....	.0480	110.3	.2783	98.0	3.2500	95.6	.6128	122.8	.1500	101.5
1895.....	.0434	99.8	.2700	95.1	3.1146	91.6	.4326	86.7	.1450	98.1
1896.....	.0343	78.9	.2583	91.0	1.9479	57.3	.1965	39.4	.1300	88.0
1897.....	.0332	76.3	.2800	98.6	3.9771	115.5	.3279	65.7	.1300	88.0
1898.....	.0356	81.8	.2959	104.2	3.2708	96.2	.5094	102.1	.1325	89.6
1899.....	.0453	104.1	.3117	109.8	3.2238	94.8	.4172	83.6	.1400	94.7
1900.....	.0485	111.5	.2977	104.9	2.4271	71.4	.3736	74.9	.1350	91.3
1901.....	.0518	119.1	.2850	100.4	3.5900	103.0	.5642	113.0	.1325	89.6
1902.....	.0629	144.6	.3015	106.2	3.6458	107.2	.5958	119.4	.1408	95.3
1903.....	.0510	117.2	.2296	80.9	3.5675	104.9	.3249	105.2	.1300	88.0
1904.....	.0459	105.5	.2758	97.1	3.5568	104.6	.7301	146.3	.1325	89.6
1905.....	.0449	103.2	.2675	94.2	3.2392	95.3	.4026	80.7	.1458	98.6
1906.....	.0329	119.3	.2350	82.8	3.2917	96.8	.5476	109.7	.1700	115.0
1907.....	.0621	142.8	.2300	81.0	3.5000	103.0	.4912	98.4	.1725	116.7

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Cloths and clothing.									
	Drillings: brown, Peppercell.		Drillings: 30-inch, Stark A.		Flannels: white, 4-4, Ballard Vale No. 3.		Ginghams: Amoskeag.		Ginghams: Lancaster.	
	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899...	\$0.0572	100.0	\$0.0521	100.0	\$0.3768	100.0	\$0.0533	100.0	\$0.0573	100.0
1890.....	.0683	119.4	.0640	122.8	.4400	116.8	.0625	117.3	.0992	120.8
1891.....	.0652	114.0	.0600	115.2	.4400	116.8	.0650	122.0	.0700	122.2
1892.....	.0582	101.7	.0535	102.7	.4367	115.9	.0650	122.0	.0700	122.2
1893.....	.0590	103.1	.0563	108.1	.4125	109.5	.0631	118.4	.0638	111.3
1894.....	.0559	97.7	.0502	96.4	.3546	94.1	.0485	91.0	.0594	88.0
1895.....	.0529	92.5	.0489	93.9	.3080	81.7	.0466	87.4	.0496	86.6
1896.....	.0573	100.2	.0522	100.2	.3217	85.4	.0472	88.6	.0500	87.3
1897.....	.0525	91.8	.0463	88.9	.3113	82.6	.0438	82.2	.0494	86.2
1898.....	.0513	89.7	.0437	83.9	.3085	81.7	.0431	80.9	.0488	85.2
1899.....	.0510	89.2	.0457	87.7	.3750	99.5	.0477	89.5	.0515	89.9
1900.....	.0606	105.9	.0542	104.0	.4096	108.7	.0515	96.6	.0550	96.0
1901.....	.0585	102.3	.0532	102.1	.3800	100.8	.0490	91.9	.0531	92.7
1902.....	.0575	100.5	.0530	103.5	.3886	103.8	.0523	98.1	.0575	100.3
1903.....	.0619	108.2	.0581	111.5	.4306	114.3	.0550	103.2	.0575	100.3
1904.....	.0737	127.1	.0658	126.3	.4433	117.6	.0548	102.8	.0586	97.0
1905.....	.0721	126.0	.0633	121.5	.4461	118.4	.0515	96.6	.0517	90.2
1906.....	.0775	135.5	.0740	142.0	.4613	122.4	.0565	106.0	.0592	103.3
1907.....	.0825	144.2	.0782	150.1	.4638	123.1	.0668	123.5	.0690	120.4

Year.	Horse blankets: 6 pounds each, all wool.		Hosiery: men's cotton half hose, 20 to 22 oz. (a)		Hosiery: men's cotton half hose, 34 needles.		Hosiery: women's combed Egyptian cotton.		Hosiery: women's cotton hose, 26 to 28 oz.	
	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per 12prs. (b)	Relative price.	Average price per 12 pairs.	Relative price.	Average price per 12 pairs.	Relative price.	Average price per 12prs. (c)	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899...	\$0.573	100.0	\$0.9555	100.0	\$0.7845	100.0	\$1.850	100.0	\$0.9310	100.0
1890.....	.625	109.1	1.2740	133.3	d .9750	124.3	L 2250	131.6
1891.....	.600	104.7	1.1760	123.1	d .9750	124.3	L 1270	121.1
1892.....	.625	109.1	1.0780	112.8	d .9790	123.6	L 0780	115.8
1893.....	.600	104.7	1.0535	110.3	d .8750	111.5	L 900	102.7	L 0635	113.2
1894.....	.550	96.0	.9800	102.6	d .7250	92.4	L 900	102.7	.9800	105.3
1895.....	.530	92.5	.9065	94.9	d .7000	89.2	L 875	101.4	.8575	92.1
1896.....	.520	90.8	.8330	87.2	d .7000	89.2	L 875	101.4	.7840	84.2
1897.....	.570	99.5	.7840	82.1	d .6500	82.9	L 800	100.0	.7595	81.6
1898.....	.570	99.5	.7350	76.9	d .6500	82.9	L 800	97.3	.7165	76.3
1899.....	.540	94.2	.7350	76.9	d .6250	79.7	L 750	94.6	.7350	78.9
1900.....	.680	118.7	.7840	82.1	d .6500	82.9	L 900	102.7	.7595	81.6
1901.....	.630	109.9	.6900	71.8	d .7250	92.4	L 900	102.7	.6615	71.1
1902.....	.630	109.9	.7350	76.9	d .6667	85.6	L 850	100.0	.7350	78.9
1903.....	.675	117.8	.7840	82.1	d .7063	90.0	L 875	101.4	.8085	86.6
1904.....	.700	122.2	.6370	67.0	d .7325	93.9	L 800	97.3	.7595	81.6
1905.....	.750	130.9	.6370	67.0	d .7000	89.2	L 750	94.6	.7840	84.2
1906.....	.775	135.3	.6615	69.3	d .7000	89.2	L 900	102.7	.7595	81.6
1907.....	.750	130.9	.7350	76.9	d .7500	95.6	L 025	109.5	.8330	89.5

a The price for 1890-1903 is for two-thread goods. Prices, 1904 to 1907, are for single-thread goods. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Price of single-thread goods, \$0.6370 in September, 1903.

b September price.

c Average for 1893-1899.

d January price.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Cloths and clothing.									
	Leather: harness, oak, country middles.		Leather: sole, hemlock.		Leather: sole, oak.		Leather: wax calf, 30 to 40 lbs. to the dozen.		Linen shoe thread: 10s, Barbour.	
	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per sq. foot.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$3.2500	100.0	\$0.1939	100.0	\$0.3363	100.0	\$0.6545	100.0	\$0.8748	100.0
1890.....	.2571	99.3	.1921	99.1	.3771	112.1	.6000	91.7	.8910	101.9
1891.....	.2579	99.6	.1858	95.8	.3679	109.4	.6469	98.8	.8910	101.9
1892.....	.2367	91.4	.1727	89.1	.3421	101.7	.6029	105.9	.8910	101.9
1893.....	.2409	92.7	.1796	92.6	.3483	103.6	.6450	98.5	.8993	102.8
1894.....	.2275	87.8	.1715	88.4	.3279	97.5	.6042	92.3	.9182	105.0
1895.....	.2888	111.5	.2079	108.9	.3421	101.7	.7333	112.0	.8514	97.3
1896.....	.2554	98.6	.1891	97.0	.2925	87.0	.6433	98.3	.8514	97.3
1897.....	.2433	93.9	.2033	104.8	.3079	91.6	.6156	94.1	.8514	97.3
1898.....	.2825	109.1	.2129	109.8	.3213	95.5	.6790	103.3	.8514	97.3
1899.....	.3094	116.0	.2254	116.2	.3338	99.9	.6875	105.6	.8514	97.3
1900.....	.3025	116.8	.2400	128.4	.3698	107.3	.6563	100.2	.8877	101.5
1901.....	.2971	114.7	.2475	127.6	.3525	104.8	.6281	96.0	.8910	101.9
1902.....	α. 3325	114.7	.2367	122.1	.3800	113.0	.6904	100.9	.8910	101.9
1903.....	α. 3313	114.3	.2267	116.9	.3742	111.3	.6900	105.4	.8460	96.7
1904.....	α. 3188	110.0	.2258	116.5	.3450	102.6	.6875	105.0	.8499	97.2
1905.....	α. 3333	115.0	.2290	118.1	.3653	108.9	.6969	106.5	.8499	97.2
1906.....	α. 3213	128.1	.2538	130.9	.3796	112.9	.7167	109.5	.8930	102.1
1907.....	α. 3738	129.0	.2644	136.4	.3821	113.6	.7067	117.1	.8930	102.1

Year.	Linen thread: 3-cord, 200-yard spools, Barbour.		Overcoatings: beaver, Moscow, all wool.		Overcoatings: chinchilla, all wool.		Overcoatings: chinchilla, cotton warp.		Overcoatings: covert cloth, light weight.	
	Average price per 12 spools.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$3.8522	100.0	\$2.0817	100.0	\$2.1419	100.0	\$0.4883	100.0	\$2.3296	100.0
1890.....	.8910	104.6	β 2.4296	116.7	β 2.4296	113.4	.3225	109.1	2.4616	105.7
1891.....	.7945	93.2	β 2.4296	116.7	β 2.4296	113.4	.5258	107.7	2.4616	105.7
1892.....	.8019	94.1	β 2.4296	116.7	β 2.4296	113.4	.5329	109.1	2.4616	105.7
1893.....	.8308	97.5	2.3250	111.7	2.3250	108.5	.5367	109.9	2.4616	105.7
1894.....	.8514	99.9	1.9879	95.5	1.9879	92.8	.4733	96.9	2.4254	104.2
1895.....	.8514	99.9	1.7670	84.9	1.8774	87.7	.4508	92.3	2.3259	99.9
1896.....	.8514	99.9	1.7670	84.9	1.8774	87.7	.4354	89.2	2.0363	87.4
1897.....	.8679	101.8	1.7670	84.9	1.8774	87.7	.4575	93.7	1.9458	83.6
1898.....	.8910	104.6	1.8600	89.4	2.0925	97.7	.4800	98.3	2.2625	97.2
1899.....	.8910	104.6	2.0538	98.7	2.0925	97.7	.4583	93.9	2.4435	104.9
1900.....	.8910	104.6	2.4994	120.1	2.4994	116.7	.4892	100.2	2.3621	101.4
1901.....	.8910	104.6	2.2088	106.1	2.0925	97.7	.4433	90.8	2.2625	97.2
1902.....	.8910	104.6	2.2088	106.1	2.0925	97.7	.4508	92.3	2.2625	97.2
1903.....	.8370	98.2	2.4413	117.3	2.2088	103.1	.4533	92.8	2.1899	94.0
1904.....	.8835	103.7	2.3250	111.7	2.2088	103.1	.4538	93.3	2.1899	94.0
1905.....	.8835	103.7	2.4413	117.3	2.3948	111.8	.4588	94.0	2.2568	96.9
1906.....	.8835	103.7	(e)	2.5256	117.8	.4963	101.6	2.2568	96.9
1907.....	.9145	107.3	(c)	2.5575	119.4	.4908	100.5	2.2568	96.9

* Leather: harness, oak, packers' hides, heavy, No. 1. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price, 1901, \$0.3325.
 β Records destroyed. Price estimated by person who furnished data for later years.
 c Quotations discontinued.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Cloths and clothing.									
	Drillings: brown, Peperell.		Drillings: 30-inch, Stark A.		Flannels: white, 4-4, Ballard Vale No. 3.		Ginghams: Amoskeeg.		Ginghams: Lancaster.	
	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0572	100.0	\$0.0521	100.0	\$0.3768	100.0	\$0.0533	100.0	\$0.0573	100.0
1890.....	.0683	119.4	.0640	122.8	.4400	116.8	.0625	117.3	.0692	120.8
1891.....	.0652	114.0	.0660	115.2	.4490	116.8	.0650	122.0	.0700	122.2
1892.....	.0582	101.7	.0535	102.7	.4367	115.9	.0630	122.0	.0700	122.2
1893.....	.0590	103.1	.0563	108.1	.4125	109.5	.0631	118.4	.0638	111.3
1894.....	.0559	97.7	.0502	96.4	.3546	94.1	.0485	91.0	.0504	88.0
1895.....	.0529	92.5	.0489	93.9	.3089	81.7	.0466	87.4	.0496	86.6
1896.....	.0573	100.2	.0522	100.2	.3217	85.4	.0472	88.6	.0500	87.3
1897.....	.0525	91.8	.0463	88.9	.3113	82.6	.0438	82.2	.0494	86.2
1898.....	.0513	89.7	.0437	83.9	.3085	82.6	.0431	80.9	.0488	85.2
1899.....	.0510	89.2	.0457	87.7	.3750	99.5	.0477	89.5	.0515	89.9
1900.....	.0606	105.9	.0542	104.0	.4096	108.7	.0515	96.6	.0550	96.0
1901.....	.0585	102.3	.0532	102.1	.3890	100.8	.0490	91.9	.0531	92.7
1902.....	.0575	100.5	.0539	103.5	.3886	105.8	.0523	98.1	.0575	100.3
1903.....	.0619	108.2	.0581	111.5	.4296	114.3	.0520	103.2	.0575	100.3
1904.....	.0727	127.1	.0628	120.3	.4433	117.0	.0548	102.8	.0556	97.0
1905.....	.0721	126.0	.0633	121.5	.4461	118.4	.0515	96.6	.0517	90.2
1906.....	.0775	135.5	.0740	142.0	.4613	122.4	.0565	106.0	.0592	103.3
1907.....	.0825	144.2	.0782	150.1	.4638	123.1	.0608	123.5	.0690	120.4

Year.	Horse blankets: 6 pounds each, all wool.		Hosiery: men's cotton half hose, 20 to 22 oz. (a)		Hosiery: men's cotton half hose, 84 inches.		Hosiery: women's combed Egyptian cotton.		Hosiery: women's cotton hose, 26 to 28 oz.	
	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per 12prs. (b)	Relative price.	Average price per 12 pairs.	Relative price.	Average price per 12 pairs.	Relative price.	Average price per 12prs. (c)	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.573	100.0	\$0.9555	100.0	\$0.7845	100.0	c \$1.850	100.0	\$0.9310	100.0
1890.....	.625	109.1	1.2740	133.3	d .9750	124.3	1.2250	131.6
1891.....	.600	104.7	1.1760	123.1	d .9750	124.3	1.1270	121.1
1892.....	.625	109.1	1.0780	112.8	d .9700	123.6	1.0780	115.8
1893.....	.600	104.7	1.0535	110.3	d .8750	111.5	1.0335	113.2
1894.....	.550	96.0	.9809	102.6	d .7250	92.4	1.900	102.7	.9809	105.3
1895.....	.530	92.5	.9665	94.9	d .7000	89.2	1.875	101.4	.8575	92.1
1896.....	.520	90.8	.8330	87.2	d .7090	89.2	1.875	101.4	.7840	84.2
1897.....	.570	99.5	.7840	82.1	d .6500	82.9	1.850	100.0	.7365	81.6
1898.....	.570	99.5	.7350	76.9	d .6500	82.9	1.800	97.3	.7105	78.3
1899.....	.540	94.2	.7350	76.9	d .6250	79.7	1.750	94.6	.7350	78.9
1900.....	.680	118.7	.7840	82.1	d .6500	82.9	1.900	102.7	.7595	81.6
1901.....	.630	109.9	.6860	71.8	d .7250	82.4	2.000	108.1	.6615	71.1
1902.....	.630	109.9	.7350	76.9	d .6667	85.0	1.850	100.0	.7350	78.9
1903.....	.675	117.8	.7840	82.1	d .7063	90.0	1.875	101.4	.8085	86.8
1904.....	.700	122.2	.6370	66.7	d .7325	95.9	1.800	97.3	.7595	81.6
1905.....	.750	130.9	.6370	66.7	d .7000	89.2	1.750	94.6	.7840	84.2
1906.....	.775	135.3	.6615	69.3	d .7000	89.2	1.900	102.7	.7365	81.6
1907.....	.750	130.9	.7350	76.9	d .7500	95.6	2.025	109.5	.8330	89.5

a The price for 1890-1903 is for two-thread goods. Prices, 1904 to 1907, are for single-thread goods. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Price of single-thread goods, \$0.6370 in September, 1903.

b September price.

c Average for 1893-1899.

d January price.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Cloths and clothing.									
	Leather: harness, oak, country middles.		Leather: solb. hemlock.		Leather: solb. oak.		Leather: wax calf, 30 to 40 lbs. to the dozen.		Linen shoe thread: 10s, Barbour.	
	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per sq. foot.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.2520	100.0	\$0.1939	100.0	\$0.3363	100.0	\$0.6545	100.0	\$0.8748	100.0
1890.....	.2571	99.3	.1921	99.1	.3771	112.1	.6000	91.7	.8910	101.9
1891.....	.2579	99.6	.1858	95.8	.3679	109.4	.6469	98.8	.8910	101.9
1892.....	.2367	91.4	.1727	89.1	.3421	101.7	.6029	105.9	.8910	101.9
1893.....	.2469	92.7	.1796	92.6	.3483	103.6	.6450	98.5	.8993	102.8
1894.....	.2275	87.8	.1715	88.4	.3279	97.5	.6042	92.3	.9182	105.0
1895.....	.2988	111.5	.2073	106.9	.3421	101.7	.7333	112.0	.8514	97.3
1896.....	.2554	98.6	.1881	97.0	.2925	87.0	.6433	98.3	.8514	97.3
1897.....	.2433	93.9	.2033	104.8	.3079	91.0	.6156	94.1	.8514	97.3
1898.....	.2825	109.1	.2129	109.8	.3213	95.5	.6760	103.2	.8514	97.3
1899.....	.3094	116.0	.2254	116.2	.3358	99.9	.6875	105.0	.8514	97.3
1900.....	.3025	116.8	.2460	128.4	.3608	107.3	.6563	100.3	.8877	101.5
1901.....	.2971	114.7	.2475	127.6	.3525	104.8	.6281	96.0	.8910	101.9
1902.....	a.3325	a114.7	.2367	122.1	.3800	113.0	.6904	100.9	.8910	101.9
1903.....	a.3313	a114.3	.2267	116.9	.3742	111.3	.6000	105.4	.8460	96.7
1904.....	a.3188	a110.0	.2258	116.5	.3450	102.6	.6875	105.0	.8469	97.2
1905.....	a.3333	a115.0	.2290	118.1	.3663	108.9	.6969	106.5	.8499	97.2
1906.....	a.3713	a128.1	.2538	130.9	.3796	112.9	.7167	109.5	.8930	102.1
1907.....	a.3738	a129.0	.2644	136.4	.3821	113.6	.7667	117.1	.8930	102.1

Year.	Linen thread: 3-cord, 200-yard spools, Barbour.		Overcoatings: beaver, Moscow, all wool.		Overcoatings: chinchilla, all wool.		Overcoatings: chinchilla, cotton warp.		Overcoatings: covert cloth, light weight.	
	Average price per 12 spools.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.8522	100.0	\$2.0817	100.0	\$2.1419	100.0	\$0.4883	100.0	\$2.3256	100.0
1890.....	.8910	104.6	b2.4296	116.7	b2.4296	113.4	.5325	109.1	2.4616	105.7
1891.....	.7945	93.2	b2.4296	116.7	b2.4296	113.4	.5329	107.7	2.4616	105.7
1892.....	.8019	94.1	b2.4296	116.7	b2.4296	113.4	.5329	109.1	2.4616	105.7
1893.....	.8398	97.5	2.3250	111.7	2.3250	108.5	.5367	109.9	2.4616	105.7
1894.....	.8514	99.9	1.9879	95.5	1.9879	92.8	.4733	96.9	2.4254	104.2
1895.....	.8514	99.9	1.7670	84.9	1.8774	87.7	.4508	92.3	2.3250	99.9
1896.....	.8514	99.9	1.7670	84.9	1.8774	87.7	.4354	89.2	2.0363	87.4
1897.....	.8679	101.8	1.7670	84.9	1.8774	87.7	.4575	93.7	1.9458	83.6
1898.....	.8910	104.6	1.8660	89.4	2.0925	97.7	.4800	98.3	2.2625	97.2
1899.....	.8910	104.6	2.0538	98.7	2.0925	97.7	.4583	93.9	2.4435	104.9
1900.....	.8910	104.6	2.4694	120.1	2.4694	116.7	.4892	100.2	2.3621	101.4
1901.....	.8910	104.6	2.2088	106.1	2.0925	97.7	.4433	90.8	2.2625	97.2
1902.....	.8910	104.6	2.2088	106.1	2.0925	97.7	.4508	92.3	2.2625	97.2
1903.....	.8370	98.2	2.4413	117.3	2.2088	103.1	.4533	92.8	2.1869	94.0
1904.....	.8835	103.7	2.3250	111.7	2.2088	103.1	.4558	93.3	2.1869	94.0
1905.....	.8835	103.7	2.4413	117.3	2.3948	111.8	.4588	94.0	2.2568	96.9
1906.....	.8835	103.7	(e)	2.5226	117.8	.4963	101.6	2.2568	96.9
1907.....	.9145	107.3	(e)	2.5575	119.4	.4905	100.5	2.2568	96.9

a Leather: harness, oak, packers' hides, heavy, No. 1. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price, 1901, \$0.3325.
 b Records destroyed. Price estimated by person who furnished data for later years.
 c Quotations discontinued.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Cloths and clothing.									
	Overcoatings: kersey, standard, 27 to 28 oz.		Print cloths: 28-inch, 64x64.		Shawls: standard, all wool, 72x144 in., 42-oz.		Sheetings: bleached, 10-4, Atlantic.		Sheetings: bleached, 10-4, Pepperell.	
	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price each.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$1.2472	100.0	\$0.02838	100.0	\$4.5787	100.0	\$0.1836	100.0	\$0.1884	100.0
1890.....			.03340	117.7	4.9000	107.0	.2241	122.1	.2190	116.2
1891.....			.02938	103.5	4.9000	107.0	.2138	116.4	.2008	106.6
1892.....			.03386	119.3	4.9000	107.0	.1996	108.7	.1900	100.8
1893.....			.03251	114.6	4.9000	107.0	.2032	111.8	.1946	103.3
1894.....			.02748	96.8	4.9000	107.0	.1741	94.8	.1742	92.5
1895.....			.02864	100.9	4.9000	107.0	.1722	93.8	.1785	94.7
1896.....			.02581	90.9	4.0800	89.1	.1700	92.6	.1792	95.1
1897.....	1.1833	94.9	.02485	87.6	4.0970	89.5	.1604	87.4	.1738	92.3
1898.....	1.3000	104.2	.02059	72.6	4.1300	90.2	.1527	83.2	.1721	91.3
1899.....	1.2583	100.9	.02732	96.3	4.0800	89.1	.1641	89.4	.2021	107.3
1900.....	1.5750	126.3	.03083	108.6	4.9000	107.0	.2043	111.3	.2252	121.7
1901.....	1.5000	120.3	.02819	99.3	4.9000	107.0	.1853	100.9	.2117	112.4
1902.....	1.5000	120.3	.03090	108.9	4.9000	107.0	.1917	104.4	.2100	111.5
1903.....	1.5750	126.3	.032156	113.3	4.9000	107.0	.2124	115.7	.2275	120.8
1904.....	1.6500	132.3	.033260	117.3	4.9000	107.0	.2355	128.3	.2425	128.7
1905.....	1.8313	146.8	.031214	110.0	\$2.2400	\$117.5	.2024	110.2	.2267	120.3
1906.....	2.0417	163.7	.030238	127.7	\$2.4500	\$128.5	e.2095	\$121.5	.2475	131.4
1907.....	1.9708	158.0	.047512	167.4	\$2.0400	\$107.0	e.2315	\$134.3	.2883	153.0

Year.	Sheetings: bleached, 10-4, Wamsutta S. T.		Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Atlantic A.		Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Indian Head.		Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Pepperell R.		Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Stark A. A.	
	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.2949	100.0	\$0.0553	100.0	\$0.0626	100.0	\$0.0551	100.0	\$0.0525	100.0
1890.....	.3126	106.0	.0669	121.0	.0725	115.8	.0640	116.2	.0660	125.7
1891.....	.3162	107.2	.0653	118.1	.0727	116.1	.0597	108.3	.0594	113.1
1892.....	.2944	99.8	.0590	106.7	.0648	103.5	.0569	103.3	.0545	103.8
1893.....	.3056	103.6	.0619	111.9	.0679	108.5	.0583	105.8	.0574	109.3
1894.....	.2756	93.5	.0549	99.3	.0598	95.5	.0531	96.4	.0521	99.2
1895.....	.2719	92.2	.0520	94.0	.0585	93.5	.0529	96.0	.0513	97.7
1896.....	.2925	99.2	.0535	96.7	.0622	99.4	.0558	101.3	.0511	97.3
1897.....	.2925	99.2	.0490	88.6	.0588	93.9	.0525	95.3	.0452	86.1
1898.....	.2925	99.2	.0443	80.1	.0540	86.3	.0475	86.2	.0424	80.8
1899.....	.2951	100.1	.0466	84.3	.0544	86.9	.0504	91.5	.0451	85.9
1900.....	.3075	104.3	.0555	100.4	.0623	99.5	.0592	107.4	.0508	96.8
1901.....	.2925	99.2	.0542	98.0	.0631	100.8	.0592	107.4	.0494	94.1
1902.....	.2925	99.2	.0549	99.3	.0625	99.8	.0569	103.3	d.0566	d.92.6
1903.....	.3038	103.0	.0636	115.0	.0681	108.8	.0599	108.7	d.0623	d101.9
1904.....	.2775	94.1	.0718	129.8	.0802	128.1	.0669	121.4	d.0715	d117.0
1905.....	.2700	91.6	.0639	115.6	.0758	121.1	.0644	116.9	d.0725	d118.6
1906.....	.2733	92.7	.0739	133.6	.0802	128.1	.0685	124.3	d.0767	d125.5
1907.....	.3050	103.4	.0768	138.9	.0835	133.4	.0746	135.4	d.0777	d127.1

^a Average for 1897-1899.

^b Shawls: standard, all wool (low grade), 72x144 inch, 40 to 42 ounce. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price, 1904, \$2.04.

^c Sheetings: bleached, 9-4, Atlantic. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price, 1905, \$0.1901.

^d Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Massachusetts Mills, Flying Horse brand. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price, 1901, \$0.0575.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Cloths and clothing.									
	Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Fruit of the Loom.		Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Hope.		Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Lonsdale.		Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, New York Mills.		Shirtings: bleached, 4-4, Wamsutta ^(c) XX.	
	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$0.0728	100.0	\$0.0630	100.0	\$0.0727	100.0	\$0.0876	100.0	\$0.0948	100.0
1890.	.0845	116.1	.0726	115.2	.0845	116.2	.0968	110.5	.1011	106.6
1891.	.0799	109.8	.0703	111.6	.0822	113.1	.0963	110.2	.1009	106.4
1892.	.0808	111.0	.0663	105.2	.0812	111.7	.0931	105.3	.0973	102.6
1893.	.0832	114.3	.0713	113.2	.0832	114.4	.0925	105.6	.0981	103.5
1894.	.0727	99.9	.0620	98.4	.0727	100.0	.0885	101.0	.0950	100.2
1895.	.0790	96.2	.0608	96.5	.0697	95.9	.0851	97.1	.0909	102.2
1896.	.0696	95.6	.0620	98.4	.0685	94.2	.0885	101.0	.0951	100.3
1897.	.0641	88.0	.0574	91.1	.0633	87.1	.0836	95.4	.0935	98.6
1898.	.0584	80.2	.0518	82.2	.0595	81.8	.0784	89.5	.0807	83.1
1899.	.0644	88.5	.0551	87.5	.0626	86.1	.0725	82.8	.0802	94.1
1900.	.0753	103.4	.0671	106.5	.0731	100.6	.0786	89.7	.0965	101.8
1901.	.0750	103.0	.0699	111.0	.0738	101.5	.0760	86.8	.0875	92.3
1902.	.0756	103.8	.0676	107.3	.0741	101.9	.0766	87.4	.0885	93.4
1903.	.0767	105.4	.0675	107.1	.0755	103.9	.0850	97.0	.0974	102.7
1904.	.0802	110.2	.0705	111.9	.0796	109.5	.0830	94.7	.0921	97.2
1905.	.0748	102.7	.0663	105.2	.0739	101.7	.0848	96.8	.0942	99.4
1906.	.0817	112.2	.0728	115.6	.0806	110.9	a .0946	a 108.0	.1033	109.0
1907.	.1117	153.4	.0905	143.7	.1025	141.0	a .1163	a 132.8	.1100	116.0

Year.	Silk: raw, Italian, classical.		Silk: raw, Japan, flatures.		Suintings: clay worsted, diagonal, 12-oz.		Suintings: clay worsted, diagonal, 16-oz.		Suintings: indigo blue, all wool, 14-oz., Middlesex.	
	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$4.2558	100.0	\$4.0187	100.0	\$0.8236	100.0	\$1.0068	100.0	\$1.3250	100.0
1890.	5.2238	122.7	5.2429	130.5	1.5470	116.9
1891.	4.1865	98.4	4.0110	99.8	1.5470	116.9
1892.	4.4826	105.3	4.3266	107.7	1.5470	116.9
1893.	5.0289	118.2	4.5409	113.0	1.5084	114.0
1894.	3.6816	86.5	3.3627	83.7	1.4697	111.1
1895.	4.0373	94.9	3.7855	94.2	.7621	92.5	.9445	93.8	1.1523	87.1
1896.	3.6293	85.3	3.4072	84.8	.7337	89.1	.8819	87.6	1.1375	86.0
1897.	3.6404	85.5	3.4637	86.2	.7595	92.2	.9392	93.3	1.0465	79.1
1898.	3.8768	91.1	3.6376	90.5	.9165	111.3	1.1216	111.4	1.1375	86.0
1899.	4.7706	112.1	4.4085	109.7	.9461	114.9	1.1468	113.9	1.1375	86.0
1900.	4.5128	106.0	4.1690	103.7	1.0819	131.4	1.3463	133.7	1.1375	86.0
1901.	3.8466	90.4	3.5132	87.4	.9113	110.6	1.1175	111.0	1.1849	89.6
1902.	4.1085	96.5	3.8224	95.1	.9131	110.9	1.0931	108.6	1.3119	99.2
1903.	4.5241	106.3	4.1346	102.9	.9488	115.2	1.1288	112.1	1.4400	108.8
1904.	3.8651	90.8	3.6416	90.6	.9244	112.2	1.1036	109.6	1.4438	109.1
1905.	4.1085	96.5	3.9912	99.3	1.0931	132.7	1.3013	129.3	1.5300	115.6
1906.	4.3249	101.6	4.1632	103.6	1.2150	147.5	1.4738	146.4	1.7100	129.3
1907.	5.5812	131.1	5.0602	125.9	1.1700	142.1	1.4025	139.3	1.7100	129.3

^a Williamsville, A1.

^b Average for 1895-1899.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Cloths and clothing.									
	Suits: indigo blue, all wool, 16-oz.		Suits: serge, Washington Mills 6700.		Tickings: Amoskeag A. C. A.		Trouserings: fancy worsted, 22 to 23 oz.		Underwear: white, all wool, etc.	
	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price, 12 garments.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$1.9154	100.0	\$0.7525	100.0	\$0.1061	100.0	\$1.9456	100.0	\$23.31	100.0
1890.....	2.0925	109.21200	113.1	24.75	106.2
1891.....	2.0925	109.21175	110.7	25.65	110.9
1892.....	2.0925	109.2	.9100	120.9	.1150	108.4	2.0734	106.6	25.65	110.9
1893.....	2.0925	109.2	.9100	120.9	.1181	111.3	2.0734	106.6	25.65	110.9
1894.....	1.7670	92.3	.6825	90.7	.1084	102.2	1.9238	98.9	21.60	92.7
1895.....	1.5903	83.0	.6825	90.7	.1006	94.8	1.7100	87.9	21.60	92.7
1896.....	1.7228	89.9	.6143	81.6	.1019	96.0	1.7955	92.3	21.60	92.7
1897.....	1.6740	87.4	.6598	87.7	.0975	91.9	1.7955	92.3	21.60	92.7
1898.....	1.9763	103.2	.7508	99.8	.0894	84.3	2.1197	108.9	21.60	92.7
1899.....	2.0538	107.2	.8106	107.7	.0923	87.0	2.0734	106.6	23.40	100.4
1900.....	2.2669	118.4	.8100	107.6	.1084	102.2	2.2871	117.6	23.40	100.4
1901.....	2.0925	109.2	.8025	106.6	.1013	95.5	1.9879	102.2	23.40	100.4
1902.....	2.0925	109.2	.7913	105.1	.1050	99.0	1.9800	101.8	23.40	100.4
1903.....	2.1576	112.6	.7556	100.4	.1104	104.1	e2.0925	c104.5	23.40	100.4
1904.....	2.1855	114.1	.7744	102.9	.1213	114.3	e2.1244	e106.2	23.40	100.4
1905.....	2.2785	119.0	.9638	128.1	.1083	102.1	e2.2331	e111.6	23.40	100.4
1906.....	2.4180	126.2	1.0444	138.8	.1263	119.0	e2.4131	e120.6	27.00	115.8
1907.....	2.4180	126.2	1.0500	139.5	.1373	129.4	e2.4469	e122.3	27.00	115.8

Year.	Underwear: white, merino, 52% wool, etc.		Women's dress goods: alpaca, cotton warp, 22-inch, Hamilton.		Women's dress goods: cashmere, all wool, Atlantic J.		Women's dress goods: cashmere, cotton warp, Atlantic F.		Women's dress goods: cashmere, cotton warp, 22-inch, Hamilton.	
	Average price, 12 garments.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.
	Average, 1890-1899..	\$15.57	100.0	\$0.0680	100.0	\$0.2905	100.0	\$0.1520	100.0	\$0.0758
1890.....	16.65	108.9	.0735	108.1	.3479	119.8	.1813	119.3	.0833	109.9
1891.....	17.55	112.7	.0735	108.1	.3663	126.1	.1813	119.3	.0833	109.9
1892.....	17.55	112.7	.0723	106.3	.3724	128.2	.1789	117.7	.0821	108.3
1893.....	17.55	112.7	.0711	104.6	.3247	111.8	.1495	98.4	.0809	106.7
1894.....	14.85	95.4	.0586	100.9	.2450	84.3	.1348	88.7	.0760	100.3
1895.....	14.40	92.5	.0637	93.7	.2552	81.0	.1274	83.8	.0735	97.0
1896.....	14.40	92.5	.0637	93.7	.1960	67.5	.1270	83.6	.0711	93.8
1897.....	14.40	92.5	.0637	93.7	.2389	82.2	.1372	90.3	.0686	90.5
1898.....	14.85	95.4	.0637	93.7	.2573	88.6	.1434	94.3	.0686	90.5
1899.....	13.50	86.7	.0657	96.6	.3208	110.4	.1593	104.8	.0706	93.1
1900.....	14.85	95.4	.0711	104.6	.3459	119.1	.1642	108.0	.0760	100.3
1901.....	14.85	95.4	.0711	104.6	.3234	111.3	.1585	104.3	.0760	100.3
1902.....	14.85	95.4	.0705	103.7	.3234	111.3	.1642	108.0	.0754	99.5
1903.....	d 16.20	d 95.4	.0690	101.5	.3320	114.3	.1679	110.5	.0741	97.8
1904.....	d 16.20	d 95.4	.0764	112.4	.3418	117.7	.1740	114.5	.0809	106.7
1905.....	d 16.20	d 95.4	e 1150	e114.9	.3750	128.4	.2017	132.7	f 1867	/ 107.7
1906.....	d 18.00	d106.0	e 1217	e121.6	.3920	134.9	.2156	141.8	f 1900	/ 109.6
1907.....	d 18.00	d106.0	e 1259	e124.9	.3920	134.9	.2234	147.0	f 1908	/ 110.1

a Average for 1892-1899.

b Records destroyed. Price estimated by person who furnished data for later years.

c 21 to 22 ounces. For average price in 1902 and method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328.

d 60 per cent wool, etc. For average price in 1902 and method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328.

e Danish cloth, cotton warp and worsted filling, 22-inch. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price, 1904, \$0.1125.

f Poplar cloth, cotton warp and filling, 36-inch. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price, 1904, \$0.1850.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Cloths and clothing.									
	Women's dress goods: cashmere, cotton warp, 27-inch, Hamilton.		Women's dress goods: Franklin sackings, 6-4.		Wool: Ohio, fine fleece (X and XX grade), scoured.		Wool: Ohio, medium fleece (1 and 2 grade), scoured.		Worsted yarns: 2-40s, Australian fine.	
	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per yard.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0833	100.0	\$0.5151	100.0	\$0.5526	100.0	\$0.4564	100.0	\$1.0183	100.0
1890.....	.0980	111.0	.5938	115.3	.7156	129.5	.6143	134.6	1.2263	120.4
1891.....	.0980	111.0	.6175	119.9	.6857	124.1	.5829	127.5	1.2354	121.3
1892.....	.0968	109.6	.6175	119.9	.6119	110.7	.5276	115.6	1.2175	119.6
1893.....	.0937	106.1	.6059	117.6	.5639	102.0	.4620	101.2	1.1342	111.4
1894.....	.0907	102.7	.4988	96.8	.4448	80.5	.3542	77.6	.9292	91.3
1895.....	.0846	95.8	.4342	84.3	.3768	68.2	.3280	71.9	.7425	72.9
1896.....	.0821	93.0	.4156	80.7	.3940	71.3	.3186	69.8	.7250	71.2
1897.....	.0784	88.8	.4235	82.2	.4955	89.7	.3999	87.6	.8517	83.6
1898.....	.0784	88.8	.4532	88.4	.6150	111.3	.4805	105.3	1.0308	101.2
1899.....	.0821	93.0	.4889	94.9	.6232	112.8	.4966	108.8	1.0608	107.1
1900.....	.0882	99.9	.6096	118.3	.6394	119.3	.5296	116.0	1.2050	118.3
1901.....	.0907	102.7	.5383	104.5	.5453	98.7	.4315	94.5	1.0404	102.2
1902.....	.0801	102.0	.5581	108.3	.5770	104.4	.4436	97.2	1.1229	110.3
1903.....	.0894	101.2	.5808	114.5	.6546	118.5	.4658	102.1	1.1771	115.6
1904.....	.0876	110.5	.5839	113.4	.6862	124.2	.4869	106.7	1.1875	116.6
1905.....	.1072	121.4	.6749	131.0	.7591	137.4	.5348	117.2	1.2525	123.0
1906.....	a. 1911	a124.6	.6808	133.3	.7181	129.9	.5125	112.3	1.2933	127.0
1907.....	a. 1960	a127.8	.6531	126.8	.7181	129.9	.5158	113.0	1.2967	127.3

Year.	Cloths, etc.		Fuel and lighting.							
	Worsted yarns: 2-40s, XXX, white, in skeins.		Candles: adamantine, 6s, 14-ounce.		Coal: anthracite, broken.		Coal: anthracite, chestnut.		Coal: anthracite, egg.	
	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per ton.	Relative price.	Average price per ton.	Relative price.	Average price per ton.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$1.0071	100.0	\$0.0782	100.0	\$3.3669	100.0	\$3.5953	100.0	\$3.5936	100.0
1890.....	1.2500	124.1	.0800	102.3	3.4858	103.5	3.3533	93.3	3.6142	100.6
1891.....	1.2625	125.4	.0800	102.3	3.4433	102.3	3.4758	96.7	3.7508	104.4
1892.....	1.1563	114.8	.0800	102.3	3.6152	107.4	3.9443	109.7	3.9803	110.8
1893.....	1.0833	107.6	.0883	112.9	3.5628	105.8	4.1673	115.9	3.8520	107.2
1894.....	.9188	91.2	.0867	110.9	3.4172	101.5	3.5416	98.5	3.3903	94.3
1895.....	.7563	75.1	.0850	108.7	3.2833	97.5	2.9793	82.9	3.0296	84.3
1896.....	.7500	74.5	.0850	108.7	3.2691	97.1	3.5561	98.9	3.5490	98.8
1897.....	.8188	81.3	.0745	95.3	3.2465	96.4	3.7366	103.9	3.7986	105.7
1898.....	1.0042	99.7	.0613	78.4	3.2108	95.4	3.5525	98.8	3.5693	100.2
1899.....	1.0708	106.3	.0613	78.4	3.1350	93.1	3.6458	101.4	3.3714	93.8
1900.....	1.1938	118.5	.1059	135.4	3.2706	97.1	3.9166	108.9	3.5843	99.7
1901.....	1.0283	102.1	.1100	140.7	3.5598	105.5	4.3270	120.4	4.0565	112.9
1902.....	b 1.1362	b113.1	.1100	140.7	3.7186	110.4	4.4597	124.0	4.3673	121.5
1903.....	b 1.2125	b120.4	.0996	127.4	4.2406	126.2	4.8251	134.2	4.8251	134.3
1904.....	b 1.1717	b116.3	.0900	115.1	4.2473	126.1	4.8250	134.2	4.8227	134.2
1905.....	b 1.2733	b126.4	.0858	109.7	4.2134	125.1	4.8226	134.1	4.8246	134.3
1906.....	b 1.3062	b130.0	.0766	98.0	4.2021	124.8	4.8001	135.2	4.8629	135.3
1907.....	b 1.2933	b128.4	.0741	94.8	4.2040	124.9	4.8204	134.1	4.8211	134.2

^a Cashmere, cotton warp, 36-inch, Hamilton. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price, 1905, \$0.1862.
^b Designated as XXXX.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Fuel and lighting.									
	Coal: anthracite, stove.		Coal: bituminous, Georges Creek (at mine).		Coal: bituminous, Georges Creek (f. o. b. N. Y. Harbor).		Coal: bit. Pittsburg (Youghiogheny).		Coke: Connellsville, furnace.	
	Average price per ton.	Relative price.	Average price per ton.	Relative price.	Average price per ton.	Relative price.	Average price per bushel.	Relative price.	Average price per ton.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$3.7949	100.0	\$0.8887	100.0	\$2.7429	100.0	\$0.0643	100.0	\$1.6983	100.0
1890.	3.7108	97.8	.8025	97.1	2.9875	108.9	.0664	103.3	2.0833	122.7
1891.	3.8542	101.6	.9500	106.9	3.0313	110.5	.0789	122.7	1.8750	110.4
1892.	4.1532	109.4	.9000	101.3	2.9313	106.9	.0749	116.5	1.8083	106.5
1893.	4.1931	110.5	.9208	103.6	2.9509	107.6	.0758	117.9	1.4792	87.1
1894.	3.6903	94.9	.8208	92.4	2.7375	99.8	.0634	98.6	1.0583	62.3
1895.	3.1264	82.4	.7750	87.2	2.8125	102.5	.0600	93.3	1.3250	78.0
1896.	3.7942	100.0	.9000	101.3	2.6625	97.1	.0573	89.1	1.8750	110.4
1897.	4.0146	105.8	.8333	93.8	2.4417	89.0	.0570	88.6	1.6167	95.2
1898.	3.7978	100.1	.9125	102.7	2.1750	79.3	.0565	87.9	1.6771	98.8
1899.	3.7047	97.6	1.0125	113.9	2.7000	98.4	.0531	82.6	2.1854	128.7
1900.	3.9451	104.0	1.2000	135.0	2.9083	106.0	.0752	117.0	2.6458	155.8
1901.	4.3224	113.9	1.3375	150.5	2.9250	106.6	.0782	117.0	1.9625	115.6
1902.	4.4627	117.6	2.1250	239.1	4.0583	148.0	.0787	122.4	2.6875	158.2
1903.	4.8245	127.1	2.3958	269.6	4.4375	161.8	.0925	143.9	2.9125	171.5
1904.	4.8246	127.1	1.7500	196.9	3.1958	116.5	.0852	132.5	1.6375	96.4
1905.	4.8226	127.1	1.6000	180.0	3.1500	114.8	.0800	124.4	2.2875	134.7
1906.	4.8615	128.1	1.5500	174.4	3.1250	113.9	.0789	122.7	2.6750	157.5
1907.	4.8215	127.1	1.5375	173.0	3.2375	118.0	.0824	128.1	2.8250	166.3

Year.	Fuel and lighting.								Metals and implements.	
	Matches: parlor, domestic.		Petroleum: crude.		Petroleum: refined, for export.		Petroleum: refined, 150°, w.w.		Angers: extra, 3-inch.	
	Average price 144 boxes (2008).	Relative price.	Average price per barrel.	Relative price.	Average price per gallon.	Relative price.	Average price per gallon.	Relative price.	Average price each.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$1.7563	100.0	\$0.9102	100.0	\$0.0649	100.0	\$0.0890	100.0	\$0.1608	100.0
1890.	1.9583	111.5	.8680	95.4	.0733	112.9	.0995	111.8	.1900	118.2
1891.	1.7800	99.6	.6697	73.6	.0685	105.5	.0879	98.8	.1900	118.2
1892.	1.7500	99.6	.5564	61.1	.0609	93.8	.0794	89.2	.1900	118.2
1893.	1.7500	99.6	.6399	70.3	.0522	80.4	.0725	81.5	.1800	111.9
1894.	1.6667	94.9*	.8389	92.2	.0515	79.4	.0725	81.5	.1542	95.9
1895.	1.6875	96.1	1.3581	149.2	.0711	109.6	.0922	103.6	.1333	82.9
1896.	1.7500	99.6	1.1789	129.5	.0702	108.2	.1039	116.7	.1394	86.7
1897.	1.7500	99.6	.7869	86.5	.0597	92.0	.0900	101.1	.1425	88.6
1898.	1.7500	99.6	.9118	100.2	.0628	96.8	.0909	102.1	.1425	88.6
1899.	1.7500	99.6	1.2934	142.1	.0791	121.9	.1015	114.0	.1465	91.1
1900.	1.7500	99.6	1.3521	148.5	.0854	131.6	.1188	133.5	.2000	124.4
1901.	1.7500	99.6	1.2095	132.9	.0749	115.4	.1096	123.1	.1700	105.7
1902.	1.5833	90.1	1.2369	135.9	.0734	113.1	.1108	124.5	.1800	111.9
1903.	1.5000	85.4	1.6886	174.5	.0860	132.5	.1363	153.1	.2310	143.7
1904.	1.5000	85.4	1.6270	178.8	.0826	127.3	.1367	153.6	.2400	149.3
1905.	1.5000	85.4	1.3842	152.1	.0722	111.2	.1263	141.9	.3097	190.7
1906.	1.5000	85.4	1.5975	175.5	.0702	117.4	.1300	146.1	.3567	221.8
1907.	1.5000	85.4	1.7342	190.5	.0824	127.0	.1346	151.2	.3600	223.9

* These figures are correct; those given for 1906 in Bulletin No. 69 were slightly in error.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Metals and implements.									
	Axes: M. C. O., Yankee.		Bar iron: best refined, from mill (Pittsburg market).		Bar iron: best refined, from store (Philadelphia market).		Barb wire: galvanized.		Butts: loose joint, cast, 3 x 3 inch.	
	Average price each.	Relative price.	Average price per lb.	Relative price.	Average price per lb.	Relative price.	Average price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Average price per pair.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.4693	100.0	\$0.0145	100.0	\$0.0164	100.0	\$2.5261	100.0	\$0.0316	100.0
1890.....	.5650	120.4	.0184	126.9	.0205	125.0	3.5665	141.2	.0353	111.7
1891.....	.5550	118.3	.0171	117.9	.0190	115.9	3.2189	127.4	.0353	111.7
1892.....	.5000	106.5	.0164	113.1	.0187	114.0	2.7662	109.5	.0306	96.8
1893.....	.5000	106.5	.0150	103.4	.0170	103.7	2.5188	99.7	.0311	98.4
1894.....	.4733	100.9	.0120	82.3	.0134	81.7	2.1750	86.1	.0303	95.9
1895.....	.4600	98.0	.0125	86.2	.0144	87.8	2.2458	88.9	.0317	100.3
1896.....	.4150	88.4	.0122	84.1	.0140	85.4	1.9625	77.7	.0329	104.1
1897.....	.3938	83.9	.0110	75.9	.0131	79.9	1.8000	71.3	.0306	96.8
1898.....	.3750	79.9	.0107	73.8	.0128	78.0	1.8375	72.7	.0292	92.4
1899.....	.4555	97.1	.0195	134.5	.0207	126.2	3.1696	125.5	.0292	92.4
1900.....	.4831	102.9	.0215	148.3	.0196	119.5	3.3942	134.4	.0490	126.6
1901.....	.4166	88.8	.0180	124.1	.0184	112.2	3.0375	120.2	.0369	116.8
1902.....	.4833	103.0	.0194	133.8	.0213	129.9	2.9542	116.9	.0490	126.6
1903.....	.5050	107.6	.0177	122.1	.0200	122.0	2.7375	108.4	.0490	126.6
1904.....	.5788	123.3	.0148	102.1	.0172	104.9	2.5075	99.3	.0490	126.6
1905.....	.6323	134.7	.0187	129.0	.0192	117.1	2.3829	94.3	.0490	126.6
1906.....	.6715	143.1	.0169	126.8	.0198	120.7	2.4283	96.1	.0490	126.6
1907.....	.6800	144.9	.0175	131.3	.0211	128.7	2.6342	104.3	.0490	126.6

Year.	Metals and implements.									
	Chisels: extra, socket firmer, 1-inch.		Copper: ingot, lake.		Copper: sheet, hot-rolled (base sizes).		Copper wire: bare.		Doorknobs: steel, bronze plated.	
	Average price each.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pair.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.1894	100.0	\$0.1234	100.0	\$0.1659	100.0	\$0.1464	100.0	\$0.1697	100.0
1890.....	.2100	110.9	.1575	127.6	.2275	137.1	.1875	128.1	.1660	97.8
1891.....	.2100	110.9	.1305	105.8	.1900	114.5	.1650	112.7	.1660	97.8
1892.....	.2100	110.9	.1154	93.5	.1600	96.4	.1438	98.2	.1650	97.8
1893.....	.1933	102.1	.1093	88.6	.1500	90.4	.1350	92.2	.1660	97.8
1894.....	.1733	91.5	.0948	76.8	.1425	85.9	.1156	79.0	.1660	97.8
1895.....	.1710	90.3	.1075	87.1	.1425	85.9	.1238	84.6	.1953	115.1
1896.....	.1793	94.7	.1097	88.9	.1425	85.9	.1326	92.6	.1733	102.1
1897.....	.1710	90.3	.1132	91.7	.1463	88.2	.1375	93.9	.1660	97.8
1898.....	.1720	90.8	.1194	96.8	.1400	84.4	.1375	93.9	.1660	97.8
1899.....	.2038	107.6	.1767	143.2	.2175	131.1	.1825	124.7	.1660	97.8
1900.....	.2417	127.6	.1661	134.6	.2067	124.6	.1800	123.0	.1813	106.8
1901.....	.2300	121.4	.1687	136.7	.2088	125.9	.1815	124.0	.1900	112.0
1902.....	.2700	142.6	.1201	97.3	.1783	107.5	.1326	90.6	.2153	126.9
1903.....	.2800	147.8	.1368	110.9	.1917	115.6	.1497	102.3	.2250	132.6
1904.....	.3000	158.4	.1311	106.2	.1800	108.5	.1438	98.2	.2458	144.8
1905.....	.3967	209.5	.1576	127.7	.1992	120.1	.1702	116.3	.3625	213.6
1906.....	.4188	221.1	.1961	158.9	.2375	143.2	.2108	144.0	.4408	259.8
1907.....	.4438	234.3	.2125	172.2	.2792	168.3	.2402	164.1	.4500	265.2

* Bar iron: common to best refined (Pittsburg market). For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price, 1905, \$0.0172.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Metals and implements.									
	Files: 8-inch mill bastard.		Hammers: Maydoie No. 14.		Lead: pig.		Lead pipe.		Locks: common mortise.	
	Average price per dozen.	Relative price.	Average price each.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Average price each.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.8527	100.0	\$0.3613	100.0	\$0.0381	100.0	\$4.8183	100.0	\$0.0817	100.0
1890.....	.9100	106.7	.3500	96.9	.0440	115.5	5.4000	112.1	.0830	101.6
1891.....	.8917	104.6	.3500	96.9	.0437	114.7	5.6000	116.2	.0830	101.6
1892.....	.8717	102.2	.3500	96.9	.0413	108.4	5.1833	107.6	.0830	101.6
1893.....	.8667	101.6	.3500	96.9	.0374	98.2	5.0000	103.8	.0830	101.6
1894.....	.8300	97.3	.3500	96.9	.0331	86.9	4.4333	92.0	.0818	100.1
1895.....	.8133	95.4	.3525	97.6	.0326	85.6	4.2000	87.2	.0833	102.0
1896.....	.7775	91.2	.3800	105.2	.0300	78.7	4.1000	85.1	.0867	106.1
1897.....	.8050	94.4	.3800	105.2	.0358	94.0	4.3167	89.6	.0833	102.0
1898.....	.8250	96.8	.3633	100.6	.0380	99.7	4.6000	95.5	.0750	91.8
1899.....	.9358	109.7	.3867	107.0	.0448	117.6	5.3000	111.0	.0750	91.8
1900.....	1.0900	127.8	.4189	115.9	.0445	116.8	5.1208	106.3	.0788	96.5
1901.....	1.0500	123.1	.4233	117.2	.0438	115.0	5.0479	104.8	.0750	91.8
1902.....	1.0500	123.1	.4233	117.2	.0411	107.9	5.2167	108.3	.0850	104.0
1903.....	1.0500	123.1	.4660	129.0	.0428	112.3	5.1958	107.8	.0900	110.2
1904.....	1.0400	122.0	.4660	129.0	.0443	116.3	4.7950	99.5	.1025	125.5
1905.....	1.0367	121.6	.4660	129.0	.0479	125.7	5.2250	108.4	.1406	183.1
1906.....	1.0217	119.8	.4660	129.0	.0588	154.3	6.4208	133.3	.1806	221.3
1907.....	.9975	117.0	.4660	129.0	.0552	144.9	6.7050	139.2	.2000	244.8

Year.	Nails: cut, 8-penny, fence and common.		Nails: wire, 8-penny, fence and common.		Pig iron: Bessemer.		Pig iron: foundry No. 1.		Pig iron: foundry No. 2.	
	Average price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Average price per 100 lbs.	Relative price.	Average price per ton.	Relative price.	Average price per ton.	Relative price.	Average price per ton.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$1.8275	100.0	\$2.1618	100.0	\$13.7783	100.0	\$14.8042	100.0	\$13.0533	100.0
1890.....	2.2875	125.2	2.9646	137.1	18.8725	137.0	18.4083	124.3	17.1563	131.4
1891.....	1.8333	100.3	2.4667	114.1	15.9500	115.8	17.5208	118.4	15.3968	117.9
1892.....	1.7583	96.2	2.1896	101.5	14.3667	104.3	15.7492	106.4	13.7729	105.5
1893.....	1.6813	92.0	1.9917	92.1	12.8602	93.4	14.5167	98.1	12.4396	95.3
1894.....	1.5271	83.6	1.6521	75.4	11.3775	82.6	12.0642	85.5	10.8458	83.1
1895.....	1.9250	105.3	2.1177	98.0	12.7167	92.3	13.1033	88.5	11.6750	89.4
1896.....	2.7125	148.4	2.9250	135.3	12.1400	88.1	12.0550	87.5	11.7708	90.2
1897.....	1.3329	72.9	1.4854	68.7	10.1288	73.5	12.1008	81.7	10.1000	77.4
1898.....	1.1927	65.3	1.4375	66.5	10.3317	75.0	11.6608	78.8	10.0271	76.8
1899.....	2.0240	110.8	2.3875	110.4	19.0333	138.1	19.3633	130.8	17.3500	132.9
1900.....	2.2500	123.1	2.6333	121.8	19.4925	141.5	19.9800	135.0	18.5063	141.8
1901.....	2.1125	115.6	2.3646	109.4	15.9350	115.7	15.8683	107.2	14.7188	112.8
1902.....	2.1333	116.7	2.1942	97.3	20.6742	150.0	22.1933	149.9	21.2396	162.7
1903.....	2.1958	120.2	2.0750	96.0	18.9758	137.7	19.9158	134.5	19.1417	146.6
1904.....	1.8188	99.5	1.9663	88.2	13.7558	99.8	15.5725	105.2	13.6250	104.4
1905.....	1.8250	99.9	1.8958	87.7	16.3502	118.7	17.8850	120.8	16.4104	125.7
1906.....	1.9313	105.7	1.9883	90.8	19.5442	141.8	20.9825	141.7	19.2667	147.6
1907.....	2.1625	118.3	2.1167	97.9	22.8417	165.8	23.8950	161.4	23.8688	182.9

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Metals and implements.									
	Pig iron: gray forge, southern, coke.		Planes: Bailey No. 5.		Quicksilver.		Saws: cross-cut, Disston.		Saws: hand, Disston No. 7.	
	Average price per ton.	Relative price.	Average price each.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price each.	Relative price.	Average price per dozen.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$11.0892	100.0	\$1.3220	100.0	\$0.5593	100.0	\$1.6038	100.0	\$12.780	100.0
1890.	14.5000	130.8	1.4200	107.4	.7300	130.5	1.6038	100.0	12.400	112.7
1891.	12.5167	112.9	1.4200	107.4	.6283	112.3	1.6038	100.0	12.600	98.6
1892.	11.7917	106.3	1.4200	107.4	.5642	100.9	1.6038	100.0	12.600	98.6
1893.	10.6354	95.9	1.4200	107.4	.5213	93.2	1.6038	100.0	12.600	98.6
1894.	8.9375	80.6	1.3783	104.3	.4792	85.7	1.6038	100.0	12.600	98.6
1895.	10.3229	93.1	1.2417	93.9	.5133	91.8	1.6038	100.0	12.600	98.6
1896.	9.6042	86.6	1.2300	93.0	.4979	89.0	1.6038	100.0	12.600	98.6
1897.	8.8021	79.4	1.2300	93.0	.5157	92.2	1.6038	100.0	12.600	98.6
1898.	8.7188	78.6	1.2300	93.0	.5425	97.0	1.6038	100.0	12.600	98.6
1899.	15.0625	135.8	1.2300	93.0	.6004	107.3	1.6038	100.0	12.600	98.6
1900.	15.6042	140.7	1.4142	107.0	.6769	121.0	1.6038	100.0	12.600	98.6
1901.	12.5521	113.2	1.4600	110.4	.6629	118.5	1.6038	100.0	12.600	98.6
1902.	17.6042	158.8	1.5100	114.2	.6458	115.5	1.6038	100.0	12.600	98.6
1903.	16.2292	146.4	1.5300	115.7	.6342	113.4	1.6038	100.0	12.600	98.6
1904.	11.6771	105.3	1.5300	115.7	.5900	105.5	1.6038	100.0	12.600	98.6
1905.	14.4896	130.7	1.5300	115.7	.5446	97.4	1.6038	100.0	12.600	98.6
1906.	16.5313	149.1	1.7100	129.3	.5517	98.6	1.6038	100.0	12.950	101.3
1907.	20.9875	189.3	1.5300	115.7	.5429	97.1	1.6038	100.0	12.950	101.3

Year.	Shovels: Ames No. 2.		Silver: bar, fine.		Spelter: western.		Steel billets.		Steel rails.	
	Average price per dozen.	Relative price.	Average price per ounce.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per ton.	Relative price.	Average price per ton.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$7.8658	100.0	\$0.74899	100.0	\$0.0452	100.0	\$21.5262	100.0	\$26.0654	100.0
1890.	7.8700	100.1	1.05329	140.6	.0554	122.6	30.4675	141.5	31.7792	121.9
1891.	7.8700	100.1	.99034	132.2	.0508	112.4	25.3292	117.7	29.9167	114.8
1892.	7.8700	100.1	.87532	116.9	.0465	102.9	23.6308	109.8	30.0000	115.1
1893.	7.8700	100.1	.78219	104.4	.0410	90.7	20.4358	94.9	28.1250	107.9
1894.	7.4500	94.7	.64043	85.5	.0355	78.5	16.5783	77.0	24.0000	92.1
1895.	7.4500	94.7	.66268	88.5	.0362	80.1	18.4842	85.9	24.3333	93.4
1896.	7.8100	99.3	.68195	91.0	.0401	88.7	18.8333	87.5	28.0000	107.4
1897.	7.9300	100.8	.60775	81.1	.0421	93.1	15.0800	70.1	18.7500	71.9
1898.	7.9300	100.8	.59065	78.9	.0453	100.2	15.3058	71.1	17.6250	67.6
1899.	8.6075	109.4	.60507	80.8	.0588	130.1	31.1167	144.6	28.1250	107.9
1900.	9.1200	115.9	.62065	82.9	.0442	97.8	25.0625	116.4	32.2875	123.9
1901.	9.1200	115.9	.59703	79.7	.0405	89.6	24.1308	112.1	27.3333	104.9
1902.	9.3550	118.9	.52816	70.5	.0487	107.7	30.5992	142.1	28.0000	107.4
1903.	8.6200	102.0	.54208	72.4	.0558	123.5	27.9117	129.7	28.0000	107.4
1904.	7.6533	97.3	.57844	77.2	.0515	113.9	22.1792	103.0	28.0000	107.4
1905.	7.6200	96.9	.61008	81.5	.0592	131.0	24.0283	111.6	28.0000	107.4
1906.	7.6200	96.9	.67379	90.0	.0620	137.2	27.4475	127.5	28.0000	107.4
1907.	7.8400	99.7	.65979	88.1	.0617	136.5	29.2533	135.9	28.0000	107.4

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Metals and implements.									
	Steel sheets: black, No. 27.		Tin: pig.		Tin plates: do- mestic, Besse- mer, coke.		Tin plates: im- ported, Besse- mer, coke.		Trowels: M. C. O., brick, 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch.	
	Average price per pound.	Rela- tive price.	Average price per pound.	Rela- tive price.	Average price per 100 lbs.	Rela- tive price.	Average price per 108 lbs. ^a	Rela- tive price.	Average price each.	Rela- tive price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0224	100.0	\$0.1836	100.0	\$3.4148	100.0	\$4.5802	100.0	\$0.3400	100.0
1890.....			.2121	115.5			4.7958	104.6	.3400	100.0
1891.....	.0244	108.9	.2025	110.3			5.3367	116.4	.3400	100.0
1892.....			.2037	110.9			5.3950	115.7	.3400	100.0
1893.....			.2002	109.0			5.3717	117.1	.3400	100.0
1894.....	.0235	104.9	.1812	98.7			4.8917	106.7	.3400	100.0
1895.....	.0215	96.0	.1405	76.5			3.8725	84.4	.3400	100.0
1896.....	.0195	87.1	.1358	74.0	3.4354	100.6	3.8000	82.9	.3400	100.0
1897.....	.0190	84.8	.1551	84.5	3.1823	93.2	3.9025	85.1	.3400	100.0
1898.....	.0267	119.2	.2721	148.2	2.8500	83.5	4.0000	87.2	.3400	100.0
1899.....	.0203	130.8	.3006	163.7	4.1913	122.7	(e)		.3400	100.0
1900.....	.0315	140.6	.2618	142.6	4.6775	137.0	(e)		.3400	100.0
1901.....	.0291	129.9	.2648	144.2	4.1900	122.7	(e)		.3400	100.0
1902.....	.0260	116.1	.2816	153.4	4.1233	120.7	(e)		.3400	100.0
1903.....	.0210	93.8	.2799	152.5	3.9490	115.4	(e)		.3400	100.0
1904.....	.0222	99.1	.3127	170.3	3.6025	105.5	(e)		.3400	100.0
1905.....	.0237	105.8	.3022	163.6	3.7067	108.5	(e)		.3400	100.0
1906.....	.0250	111.6	.3875	211.1	3.8608	113.1	(e)		.3400	100.0
1907.....					4.0000	119.8	(e)		.3400	100.0

Year.	Metals and implements.						Lumber and building materials.			
	Vises: solid box, 50-pound.		Wood screws: 1-inch, No. 10, flat head.		Zinc: sheet.		Brick: common domestic.		Carbonate of lead: American, in oil.	
	Average price each.	Rela- tive price.	Average price per gross.	Rela- tive price.	Average price per 100 lbs.	Rela- tive price.	Average price per M.	Rela- tive price.	Average price per pound.	Rela- tive price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$3.9009	100.0	\$0.1510	100.0	\$5.3112	100.0	\$5.5625	100.0	\$0.0577	100.0
1890.....	4.1400	106.1	.1970	130.5	6.0542	114.0	6.5625	118.0	.0638	110.6
1891.....	4.1400	106.1	.2000	132.5	5.7192	107.7	5.7083	102.6	.0650	112.7
1892.....	4.2550	109.1	.2100	139.1	5.4900	103.4	5.7708	103.7	.0658	114.0
1893.....	4.1975	107.6	.2100	139.1	4.9942	94.0	5.8333	104.9	.0609	105.5
1894.....	4.0567	104.0	.1558	103.2	3.9500	74.4	5.0000	89.9	.0524	90.8
1895.....	3.7933	97.2	.1117	74.0	4.5217	85.1	5.3125	95.5	.0525	91.0
1896.....	3.7200	95.4	.1033	68.4	4.9400	93.0	5.0625	91.0	.0517	89.6
1897.....	3.5000	89.7	.0850	56.3	4.9400	93.0	4.9375	88.8	.0535	92.7
1898.....	3.2800	84.1	.0918	60.8	5.4983	103.5	5.7500	103.4	.0543	94.1
1899.....	3.9267	100.7	.1452	96.2	7.0042	131.9	5.6875	102.2	.0598	98.4
1900.....	4.2683	109.4	.1820	120.5	6.0950	114.8	5.2500	94.4	.0625	108.3
1901.....	5.0200	128.7	.1945	69.2	5.5583	104.7	5.7656	103.7	.0576	99.8
1902.....	5.1300	131.5	.0952	63.0	5.7308	107.9	5.3854	96.8	.0589	93.4
1903.....	5.1767	132.7	.1093	72.4	6.0183	113.3	5.9963	106.2	.0615	106.6
1904.....	4.2550	109.1	.0945	62.6	5.6092	105.6	7.4948	134.7	.0598	103.6
1905.....	4.1400	106.1	.1055	69.9	6.8250	128.5	8.1942	145.7	.0633	109.7
1906.....	4.5208	115.9	.1055	69.9	7.1725	135.0	8.5469	153.7	.0690	119.6
1907.....	5.7500	147.4	.1219	80.7	7.4858	140.9	6.1563	110.7	.0697	120.8

^a Duty paid.^b Average for the period July, 1894, to December, 1899.^c Average for 1896-1899.^d Average for 1890-1898.^e Quotations discontinued.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Lumber and building materials.									
	Cement: Port-land, domestic.		Cement: Rosendale.		Doors: Pine.		Hemlock.		Lime: common.	
	Average price per barrel.	Relative price.	Average price per barrel.	Relative price.	Average price per door.	Relative price.	Average price per M feet.	Relative price.	Average price per barrel.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$1.9963	100.0	\$0.8871	100.0	\$1.0929	100.0	\$11.9625	100.0	\$0.8332	100.0
1890.			1.0542	118.8	1.3750	125.8	12.5833	105.2	.9792	117.5
1891.			.9417	106.2	1.2500	114.4	12.4583	104.1	.9125	109.5
1892.			.9688	109.2	1.2500	114.4	12.2917	102.8	.9292	111.5
1893.			.8875	100.0	1.2250	112.1	12.0000	100.3	.9292	111.5
1894.			.9271	104.5	1.0500	96.1	11.7083	97.9	.8479	101.8
1895.	1.9688	98.6	.8521	96.1	.9125	83.5	11.1458	93.2	.7813	93.8
1896.	2.0000	100.2	.8333	93.9	.8375	76.6	11.1667	93.3	.6938	83.3
1897.	1.9667	98.5	.7521	84.8	.8125	74.3	11.0000	92.0	.7188	86.3
1898.	1.9979	100.1	.7604	85.7	.9250	84.6	11.7500	98.2	.7417	89.0
1899.	2.0479	102.6	.8938	100.8	1.2917	118.2	13.5208	113.0	.7979	95.8
1900.	2.1583	108.1	1.0167	114.6	1.5900	145.5	16.5000	137.9	.8833	106.0
1901.	1.8806	94.7	1.0188	114.8	1.8913	173.1	15.0000	125.4	.7742	92.9
1902.	1.9500	97.7	.8646	97.5	2.1238	194.1	15.8333	132.4	.8058	96.7
1903.	2.0292	101.6	.8896	100.3	1.7292	158.2	16.7917	140.4	.7875	94.5
1904.	1.4604	73.2	.8021	90.4	1.4900	134.6	17.0000	142.1	.8246	99.0
1905.	1.4271	71.5	.8333	93.9	1.8367	163.2	17.8750	149.4	.8608	106.9
1906.	1.5750	78.9	.9500	107.1	1.7271	153.5	21.8958	183.0	.9471	113.7
1907.	1.6458	82.4	.9500	107.1	1.8842	167.5	22.2500	186.0	.9492	113.9

Year.	Linseed oil: raw.		Maple: hard.		Oak: white, plain.		Oak: white, quartered.		Oxide of zinc.	
	Average price per gallon.	Relative price.	Average price per M feet.	Relative price.	Average price per M feet.	Relative price.	Average price per M feet.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$0.4535	100.0	\$26.5942	100.0	\$37.4292	100.0	\$53.6771	100.0	\$0.0400	100.0
1890.	.6158	135.8	26.5000	100.0	37.8750	101.2	51.4583	95.9	.0425	106.3
1891.	.4842	106.8	26.5000	100.0	38.0000	101.5	53.5833	99.8	.0419	104.8
1892.	.4683	90.0	26.5000	100.0	38.4583	102.7	53.0000	98.7	.0426	106.5
1893.	.4633	102.2	26.5000	100.0	38.7500	103.5	53.0000	98.7	.0413	103.3
1894.	.5242	115.6	26.5000	100.0	37.2500	99.5	51.1250	95.2	.0373	93.3
1895.	.5242	115.6	26.5000	100.0	36.2500	96.8	53.2500	99.2	.0350	87.5
1896.	.3683	81.2	26.5000	100.0	36.2500	96.8	54.5000	101.5	.0383	95.8
1897.	.3275	72.2	26.5000	100.0	36.2500	96.8	53.8333	100.3	.0377	94.3
1898.	.3925	86.5	26.5000	100.0	36.2500	96.8	52.5000	97.8	.0396	99.0
1899.	.4267	94.1	26.5417	100.1	38.9583	104.1	60.5208	112.7	.0438	109.5
1900.	.6292	138.7	27.5000	103.8	40.8333	109.1	64.4583	120.1	.0451	112.8
1901.	.6350	140.6	26.7883	100.8	36.7708	98.2	59.1667	110.2	.0438	109.5
1902.	.5933	130.8	28.5833	107.8	40.8750	109.2	63.0833	117.5	.0440	110.0
1903.	.4167	91.9	31.6667	119.5	44.8333	119.8	74.7917	139.3	.0463	115.8
1904.	.4158	91.7	31.0000	117.0	46.5000	124.2	80.7500	150.4	.0463	115.8
1905.	.4675	103.1	30.5000	115.1	47.3333	126.5	80.2500	149.5	.0465	116.3
1906.	.4650	89.3	31.0000	117.0	50.4167	134.7	79.1667	147.5	.0508	127.0
1907.	.4342	95.7	32.2500	121.7	55.2083	147.5	80.0000	149.0	.0538	134.5

* Average for 1895-1899.

† Doors: western white pine, 2 feet 8 inches by 6 feet 8 inches, 1½ inches thick, 5 panel No. 1, O. G. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price for 1904, \$1.74.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Lumber and building materials.									
	Pine: white, boards, No. 2 barn (Buffalo market).		Pine: white, boards, uppers (Buffalo market).		Pine: yellow.		Plate glass: polished, 3 to 5 sq. ft.		Plate glass: polished, 5 to 10 sq. ft.	
	Average price per M feet.	Relative price.	Average price per M feet.	Relative price.	Average price per M feet.	Relative price.	Average price per sq. ft.	Relative price.	Average price per sq. ft.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$17.1104	100.0	\$46.5542	100.0	\$18.4646	100.0	\$0.3630	100.0	\$0.5190	100.0
1890.	16.7917	98.1	44.0833	94.7	20.7500	112.4	.5300	146.0	.7000	134.9
1891.	17.0000	99.4	45.0000	96.7	19.9583	108.1	.5200	143.3	.6900	132.9
1892.	17.1458	100.2	46.1417	98.9	18.5000	100.2	.4200	115.7	.5500	106.0
1893.	18.6250	108.9	48.5000	104.2	18.5000	100.2	.4200	115.7	.5500	106.0
1894.	18.1667	106.2	46.4167	99.7	18.5000	100.2	.3300	90.9	.4500	86.7
1895.	17.2500	100.8	46.0000	98.8	16.9167	91.6	.3000	82.6	.4800	92.5
1896.	16.5000	96.4	46.3250	100.2	16.4167	88.9	.3400	93.7	.5400	104.0
1897.	15.8332	92.5	46.3333	99.5	16.4375	89.0	.3000	82.6	.4800	92.5
1898.	15.8000	90.6	46.0833	99.0	18.6250	100.9	.2700	74.4	.4500	82.9
1899.	18.2917	106.9	50.4583	108.4	20.0417	108.5	.3000	82.6	.4800	92.5
1900.	21.5000	125.7	57.5000	123.5	20.7083	112.2	.3400	93.7	.5400	104.0
1901.	20.8750	122.0	60.4167	129.3	19.6667	106.5	.3200	88.2	.4900	94.4
1902.	23.5000	137.3	74.8333	160.7	21.0000	113.7	.2575	70.9	.4113	79.2
1903.	24.0000	140.3	80.0000	171.8	21.0000	113.7	.2625	72.3	.4313	83.1
1904.	23.0000	134.4	81.0000	174.0	21.4167	116.0	.2275	62.7	.3650	70.3
1905.	24.1667	141.2	82.0000	176.1	24.9167	134.9	.2408	66.3	.3729	71.8
1906.	29.7500	173.9	84.7500	182.0	29.3333	158.9	¢.2267	¢76.1	¢3.3000	¢77.7
1907.	67.4167	395.7	67.0833	6200.2	30.5000	165.2	¢.2300	¢77.2	¢3.4000	¢80.1

Year.	Poplar.		Putty.		Resin: good, strained.		Shingles: cypress.		Shingles: white pine, 18-inch.	
	Average price per M feet.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per barrel.	Relative price.	Average price per M.	Relative price.	Average price per M.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$31.2667	100.0	\$0.0158	100.0	\$1.4399	100.0	\$2.8213	100.0	\$3.7434	100.0
1890.	30.5000	97.2	.0175	110.8	1.3844	96.1	3.3500	118.7	3.8417	102.6
1891.	30.5000	97.2	.0175	110.8	1.4740	102.4	3.2500	115.2	4.0000	106.9
1892.	30.6042	97.6	.0161	101.9	1.3417	93.2	3.1500	111.7	3.9063	104.4
1893.	33.6250	107.2	.0160	101.3	1.2615	87.6	3.0000	106.3	3.8500	102.8
1894.	31.7500	101.2	.0157	99.4	1.2510	86.9	2.8000	99.2	3.7500	100.2
1895.	31.0000	98.8	.0145	91.8	1.5615	108.4	2.6500	93.9	3.7000	98.8
1896.	30.6667	97.8	.0145	91.8	1.6125	112.0	2.5000	83.3	3.5417	94.6
1897.	30.0000	95.6	.0145	91.8	1.4208	98.7	2.5000	88.6	3.5211	94.9
1898.	34.0208	108.5	.0168	106.3	1.3458	93.5	2.6625	94.4	3.6722	98.3
1899.	37.6875	120.2	.0190	120.3	1.6021	111.3	2.8500	101.0	4.0000	106.9
1900.	36.7083	117.0	.0150	94.9	1.5302	106.3	2.8500	101.0	4.1875	111.9
1901.	42.1042	134.2	.0192	121.5	1.6125	112.0	2.6708	94.7	¢3.5875	¢123.0
1902.	49.6458	158.3	.0141	89.2	2.2156	153.9	2.5667	91.0	¢3.6500	¢125.1
1903.	50.3292	160.5	.0110	69.6	2.8333	196.8	2.6000	92.2	¢3.5750	¢122.5
1904.	48.2083	153.7	.0109	69.0	3.4229	237.7	2.7250	96.6	¢3.5000	¢119.9
1905.	50.9583	162.5	.0119	75.3	4.0146	278.8	3.2417	114.9	¢2.2125	¢157.2
1906.	58.0833	185.2	.0120	75.9	4.3771	304.0	4.2250	149.8	¢2.6958	¢191.5

a Pine: white, boards, No. 2, barn, 1 inch by 10 inches wide, rough (New York market). For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price for 1906, \$33.25.
 b Pine: white, boards, uppers, 1-inch, 8 inches and up wide, rough (New York market). For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price for 1906, \$88.25.
 c Plate glass: polished, glazing, area 3 to 5 square feet. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price for 1905, \$0.1975.
 d Plate glass: polished, glazing, area 5 to 10 square feet. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price for 1905, \$0.3050.
 e Shingles: Michigan white pine, 16 inches long, XXXX. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price for 1901, \$3.2625.
 f Shingles: red cedar, clears, random width, 16 inches long. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price for 1905, \$1.6875.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Lumber and building materials.									
	Spruce.		Tar.		Turpentine: spirits of.		Window glass: American, single, firsts, 6 x 8 to 10 x 15 inch.		Window glass: American, single, thirds, 6 x 8 to 10 x 15 inch.	
	Average price per M feet.	Relative price.	Average price per barrel.	Relative price.	Average price per gallon.	Relative price.	Average price per 50 sq. ft.	Relative price.	Average price per 50 sq. ft.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$14.3480	100.0	\$1.2048	100.0	\$0.3343	100.0	\$2.1514	100.0	\$1.8190	100.0
1890.	16.2917	113.5	1.4750	122.4	.4080	122.0	2.2283	103.6	1.7858	98.2
1891.	14.2183	99.1	1.5833	131.4	.3795	113.5	2.2125	102.8	1.7700	97.3
1892.	14.8542	103.5	1.3000	107.9	.3227	96.5	1.9935	92.7	1.5948	87.7
1893.	13.7708	96.0	1.0458	86.8	.3002	89.8	2.1375	99.4	1.7100	94.0
1894.	12.7083	88.6	1.0917	90.6	.2932	87.7	1.9918	92.6	1.6326	89.8
1895.	14.2500	99.3	1.1417	94.8	.2923	87.4	1.5988	74.3	1.3919	76.5
1896.	14.2500	99.3	1.0125	84.0	.2743	82.1	1.8021	83.8	1.6000	88.0
1897.	14.0000	97.6	1.0542	87.5	.2924	87.5	2.1986	102.2	1.9630	107.9
1898.	13.7500	95.8	1.0979	91.1	.3221	96.4	2.6432	122.9	2.3428	128.8
1899.	15.3958	107.3	1.2458	103.4	.4581	137.0	2.7081	125.9	2.3986	131.9
1900.	17.3750	121.1	1.3625	113.1	.4771	142.7	2.6990	125.5	2.3194	127.5
1901.	18.0000	125.4	1.2817	106.4	.3729	111.5	4.1282	191.9	3.2823	180.4
1902.	19.2500	134.2	1.3250	110.0	.4740	141.8	3.2187	149.6	2.5649	141.0
1903.	19.1875	133.7	1.6792	139.4	.5715	171.0	2.6400	122.7	2.1600	118.7
1904.	20.5000	142.9	1.6792	139.4	.5757	172.2	2.8867	134.2	2.3283	128.0
1905.	21.4167	149.3	1.7583	145.9	.6276	187.7	2.7637	128.5	2.1365	117.5
1906.	25.5417	178.0	1.9583	162.5	.6649	198.9	2.9196	135.7	2.2563	124.0
1907.	24.0000	167.3	2.3292	193.3	.6344	189.8	2.8133	130.8	2.2419	123.2

Year.	Drugs and chemicals.							
	Alcohol: grain.		Alcohol: wood, refined, 95 per cent.		Alum: lump.		Brimstone: crude, seconds.	
	Average price per gallon.	Relative price.	Average price per gallon.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per ton.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899.	\$2.2405	100.0	\$0.9539	100.0	\$0.0167	100.0	\$20.6958	100.0
1890.	2.0717	92.5	1.1375	119.2	.0182	109.0	21.1458	102.2
1891.	2.2150	98.9	1.1598	121.6	.0158	94.6	28.6042	138.2
1892.	2.1417	95.6	1.2973	136.0	.0160	95.8	24.1458	116.7
1893.	2.1808	97.3	1.2917	135.4	.0174	104.2	18.7292	90.5
1894.	2.1521	96.1	.7198	75.5	.0169	101.2	16.5833	80.1
1895.	2.3292	104.0	.8667	90.9	.0160	95.8	15.6250	75.5
1896.	2.3008	102.7	.8500	89.1	.0164	98.2	17.9683	86.8
1897.	2.2767	101.6	.6958	72.9	.0166	99.4	20.1250	97.2
1898.	2.3250	103.8	.7500	78.6	.0165	98.8	22.9167	110.7
1899.	2.4117	107.6	.7708	80.8	.0168	100.6	21.1250	102.1
1900.	2.3867	106.5	.8000	83.9	.0175	104.8	21.1458	102.2
1901.	2.4583	109.7	.6125	64.2	.0175	104.8	22.0000	106.3
1902.	2.4057	107.4	.6417	67.3	.0175	104.8	23.4375	113.2
1903.	2.3958	106.9	.5917	62.0	.0173	103.6	22.3333	107.9
1904.	2.4325	108.6	.5875	61.6	.0175	104.8	21.7750	105.2
1905.	2.4275	108.3	.6750	70.8	.0175	104.8	21.2967	102.8
1906.	2.4642	110.0	.7000	73.4	.0175	104.8	22.1563	107.1
1907.	2.5229	112.6	.3992	41.8	.0175	104.8	21.4983	103.9

BULLETIN OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	Drugs and chemicals.							
	Glycerin: refined.		Muriatic acid: 20°.		Opium: natural, in cases.		Quinine: American.	
	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per ounce.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.1399	100.0	\$0.0104	100.0	\$2.3602	100.0	\$0.2469	100.0
1890.....	.1767	126.3	.0104	100.0	2.6208	111.0	.3275	133.1
1891.....	.1538	109.9	.0098	94.2	1.9438	82.4	.2568	102.0
1892.....	.1396	99.8	.0121	116.3	1.6708	70.8	.2183	88.7
1893.....	.1346	96.2	.0101	97.1	2.3917	101.3	.2150	87.4
1894.....	.1194	85.3	.0088	84.6	2.2854	96.8	.2621	106.5
1895.....	.1204	86.1	.0083	79.8	1.8413	78.0	.2538	102.0
1896.....	.1671	119.4	.0075	72.1	2.0917	88.6	.2406	97.8
1897.....	.1308	93.5	.0109	104.8	2.3417	99.2	.1829	74.3
1898.....	.1238	88.5	.0128	123.1	3.3417	141.6	.2146	87.2
1899.....	.1329	95.0	.0135	129.8	3.0729	130.2	.2975	120.9
1900.....	.1515	108.3	.0135	129.8	3.2000	135.6	.3325	135.2
1901.....	.1504	107.5	.0150	144.2	3.2292	136.8	.3025	123.0
1902.....	.1444	103.2	.0168	161.5	2.8313	120.0	.2575	104.7
1903.....	.1440	103.4	.0160	153.8	3.0813	130.6	.2525	102.6
1904.....	.1396	99.8	.0160	153.8	2.7500	116.5	.2333	94.8
1905.....	.1258	88.5	.0160	153.8	3.0333	128.5	.2100	85.4
1906.....	.1129	80.7	.0135	129.8	2.9500	125.0	.1688	67.4
1907.....	.1383	98.9	.0135	129.8	4.9458	209.6	.1775	72.2

Year.	Drugs, etc.		House furnishing goods.					
	Sulphuric acid: 66°.		Earthenware: plates, cream-colored.		Earthenware: plates, white granite.		Earthenware: teacups and saucers, white granite.	
	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per dozen.	Relative price.	Average price per dozen.	Relative price.	Average price per gross (6 dozen cups and 6 dozen saucers).	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0089	100.0	\$0.4136	100.0	\$0.4470	100.0	\$3.4292	100.0
1890.....	.0088	98.9	.4465	108.0	.4888	109.1	3.7600	109.6
1891.....	.0081	91.0	.4367	105.6	.4786	106.9	3.6817	107.4
1892.....	.0095	106.7	.4230	102.3	.4644	103.7	3.5720	104.2
1893.....	.0085	95.5	.4230	102.3	.4644	103.7	3.5720	104.2
1894.....	.0073	82.0	.4177	101.0	.4560	101.9	3.5250	102.8
1895.....	.0070	78.7	.3913	94.6	.4102	92.9	3.2374	94.4
1896.....	.0070	78.7	.3807	92.0	.3991	89.1	3.0907	90.1
1897.....	.0095	106.7	.3807	92.0	.3991	89.1	3.0907	90.1
1898.....	.0113	127.0	.4153	100.4	.4515	100.8	3.3595	98.0
1899.....	.0120	134.8	.4208	101.7	.4607	102.9	3.4026	99.2
1900.....	.0120	134.8	.4410	106.6	.4841	108.1	3.5750	104.3
1901.....	.0125	140.4	.4655	112.5	.5096	113.8	3.7632	109.7
1902.....	.0130	146.1	.4655	112.5	.5096	113.8	3.7632	109.7
1903.....	.0127	142.7	.4775	115.4	.4988	111.4	3.6832	107.4
1904.....	.0129	144.9	.4705	113.8	.4943	110.4	3.6503	106.4
1905.....	.0124	139.3	.4410	106.6	.4586	102.4	3.3869	98.8
1906.....	.0100	112.4	.4410	106.6	.4586	102.4	3.3869	98.8
1907.....	.0100	112.4	.4410	106.6	.4586	102.4	3.3869	98.8

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Continued.

Year.	House furnishing goods.							
	Furniture: bed-room sets, ash.		Furniture: chairs, bedroom, maple.		Furniture: chairs, kitchen.		Furniture: tables, kitchen.	
	Average price per set.	Relative price.	Average price per dozen.	Relative price.	Average price per dozen.	Relative price.	Average price per dozen.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$10.555	100.0	\$6.195	100.0	\$3.8255	100.0	\$14.435	100.0
1890.....	12.000	113.7	7.000	113.0	4.2000	109.8	15.000	103.9
1891.....	12.000	113.7	7.000	113.0	4.2000	109.8	15.000	103.9
1892.....	12.000	113.7	6.850	110.6	4.2500	111.1	15.000	103.9
1893.....	11.600	104.2	6.850	110.6	4.2500	111.1	15.000	103.9
1894.....	11.000	104.2	6.000	96.9	3.5000	91.5	14.250	98.7
1895.....	9.950	94.3	6.000	96.9	3.5000	91.5	14.250	98.7
1896.....	8.750	82.9	6.000	96.9	3.5000	91.5	13.800	95.6
1897.....	8.750	82.9	5.000	80.7	3.5000	91.5	13.800	95.6
1898.....	10.000	94.7	5.125	82.7	3.3150	86.6	13.800	95.6
1899.....	10.100	95.7	6.125	98.9	4.0420	105.7	14.450	100.1
1900.....	11.250	106.6	8.000	129.1	5.2080	136.1	15.600	108.1
1901.....	11.250	106.6	7.000	113.0	4.7500	124.2	15.600	108.1
1902.....	11.750	111.3	7.333	118.4	4.9167	128.5	15.600	108.1
1903.....	12.167	115.3	7.917	127.8	5.0900	130.7	15.600	108.1
1904.....	12.250	116.1	8.000	129.1	4.7708	124.7	15.600	108.1
1905.....	12.354	117.0	8.000	129.1	4.7500	124.2	15.600	108.1
1906.....	12.958	122.8	8.917	143.9	5.1250	134.0	16.500	114.3
1907.....	14.500	137.4	10.000	161.4	5.7917	151.4	18.000	124.7

Year.	Glassware: nappies, 4-inch.		Glassware: pitchers, 1-gallon, common.		Glassware: tumblers, 1-pint, common.		Table cutlery: carvers, stag handles.	
	Average price per dozen.	Relative price.	Average price per dozen.	Relative price.	Average price per dozen.	Relative price.	Average price per pair.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.112	100.0	\$1.175	100.0	\$0.1775	100.0	\$0.80	100.0
1890.....	.120	107.1	1.250	106.4	.1800	101.4	.80	100.0
1891.....	.120	107.1	1.250	106.4	.2000	112.7	.80	100.0
1892.....	.120	107.1	1.250	106.4	.1900	107.0	.80	100.0
1893.....	.120	107.1	1.250	106.4	.1900	107.0	.95	118.8
1894.....	.120	107.1	1.250	106.4	.1900	107.0	.80	100.0
1895.....	.120	107.1	1.250	106.4	.1850	104.2	.80	100.0
1896.....	.100	89.3	1.250	106.4	.1800	101.4	.80	100.0
1897.....	.100	89.3	1.000	85.1	.1700	95.8	.75	93.8
1898.....	.100	89.3	1.000	85.1	.1600	90.1	.75	93.8
1899.....	.100	89.3	1.000	85.1	.1300	73.2	.75	93.8
1900.....	.100	89.3	1.000	85.1	.1800	101.4	.75	93.8
1901.....	.140	125.0	1.300	110.6	.1800	101.2	.75	93.8
1902.....	.140	125.0	1.300	110.6	.1850	104.2	.75	93.8
1903.....	.140	125.0	1.300	110.6	.1767	99.5	.75	93.8
1904.....	.140	125.0	1.150	97.9	.1600	90.1	.75	93.8
1905.....	.140	125.0	1.050	89.4	.1500	84.5	.75	93.8
1906.....	.140	125.0	1.050	89.4	.1500	84.5	.75	93.8
1907.....	.140	125.0	1.050	89.4	.1500	84.5	.80	100.0

STATEMENT OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR.

THE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF
 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR
 1890-1899).

Year.	House furnishing goods.						Miscellaneous.	
	Cutlery: and forks, on handles.		Wooden ware: pails, oak-grained.		Wooden ware: tubs, oak-grained.		Cotton-seed meal.	
	Average price per dozen.	Relative price.	Average price per dozen.	Relative price.	Average price per nest of 3.	Relative price.	Average price per ton of 2000 pounds.	Relative price.
1890-1899...	\$0.0660	100.0	\$1.2888	100.0	\$1.3471	100.0	\$21.9625	100.0
1890	7.7560	127.9	1.5917	122.6	1.6590	122.5	23.3750	106.4
1891	7.7500	127.9	1.4500	111.6	1.5667	116.3	23.2983	114.8
1892	6.8500	113.0	1.3500	103.9	1.4000	103.9	23.0958	107.9
1893	5.5000	90.8			1.3083	97.1	23.7042	117.0
1894	5.5000	90.8			1.2875	95.6	22.5583	102.7
1895	5.5000	90.8			1.2500	92.8	18.9125	86.1
1896	5.5000	90.8			1.2500	92.8	19.9375	90.8
1897	5.0000	82.5			1.2500	92.8	20.4575	93.1
1898	5.5000	90.8			1.2500	92.8	19.0000	86.5
1899	5.7500	94.9			1.2583	93.4	20.7938	94.7
1900	5.7500	94.9			1.4417	107.0	25.5458	116.3
1901	6.5000	107.3			1.4500	107.6	25.0208	113.9
1902	6.5000	107.3			1.4500	107.6	27.1333	123.5
1903	6.6667	110.0			1.4500	107.6	26.7083	121.6
1904	6.6875	110.4			1.4500	107.6	26.2000	119.3
1905	6.0500	99.8			1.4500	107.6	26.3583	120.0
1906	6.4833	107.0			1.4500	107.6	30.3917	138.4
1907					1.6000	118.8	38.7042	180.7

Year.	Miscellaneous.							
	Cotton-seed oil: summer yellow, prime.		Jute: raw.		Malt: western made.		Paper: news.	
	Average price per gallon.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per bushel.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899...	\$0.3044	100.0	\$0.0350	100.0	\$0.7029	100.0	\$0.0296	100.0
1890	.3446	113.2	.0388	108.1	.7500	106.7	.0382	127.8
1891	.3567	117.2	.0371	103.3	.9271	131.9	.0340	113.7
1892	.3088	101.4	.0475	132.3	.8015	114.0	.0340	113.7
1893	.4550	149.5	.0346	96.4	.7750	110.3	.0318	106.4
1894	.3238	106.4	.0345	96.1	.7446	105.9	.0323	108.0
1895	.2721	89.4	.0279	77.7	.6854	97.5	.0308	103.0
1896	.2513	82.6	.0319	88.9	.5629	80.1	.0275	92.0
1897	.2365	77.7	.0373	103.9	.5438	77.4	.0271	90.6
1898	.2288	75.2	.0332	92.5	.6163	87.7	.0219	73.2
1899	.2663	87.5	.0365	101.7	.6221	88.5	.0209	69.9
1900	.3556	116.8	.0435	121.2	.6538	93.0	.0281	94.0
1901	.3571	117.3	.0400	111.4	.7450	106.0	.0226	75.6
1902	.4067	133.6	.0438	122.0	.7925	112.7	.0242	80.9
1903	.3977	130.7	.0464	129.2	.7246	103.1	.0253	84.6
1904	.3135	103.0	.0444	123.7	.6758	96.1	.0267	89.3
1905	.2696	88.6	.0398	113.0	.6150	87.5	.0242	80.9
1906	.3613	118.7	.0539	151.5	.6471	92.1	.0219	73.2
1907	.4809	160.0	.0486	138.4	1.0346	147.2	.0249	83.3

* Jute: raw, M-double triangle, shipments. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328. Average price, 1904, \$0.0326.

TABLE IV.—AVERAGE YEARLY ACTUAL AND RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907, AND BASE PRICES (AVERAGE FOR 1890-1899)—Concluded.

Year.	Miscellaneous.							
	Paper: wrapping, manila.		Proof spirits.		Rope: manila, ½-inch.		Rubber: Para Island.	
	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per gallon.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0553	100.0	\$1.1299	100.0	\$0.0934	100.0	\$0.8907	100.0
1890.....	.0575	104.0	1.0533	91.6	.1294	160.0	.8379	104.6
1891.....	.0575	104.0	1.1052	96.1	.1038	111.1	.7908	98.8
1892.....	.0558	100.9	1.0757	93.5	.1148	122.9	.6763	84.5
1893.....	.0579	104.7	1.0713	93.2	.0919	98.4	.7167	89.5
1894.....	.0584	105.6	1.1326	98.5	.0770	82.4	.6744	84.2
1895.....	.0586	106.0	1.2109	105.3	.0735	78.7	.7425	92.7
1896.....	.0588	106.3	1.2081	104.6	.0664	71.1	.8000	99.9
1897.....	.0588	106.3	1.1830	102.9	.0631	67.6	.8454	105.6
1898.....	.0499	83.0	1.2220	106.3	.0842	90.1	.9271	115.8
1899.....	.0438	79.2	1.2421	108.0	.1094	117.1	.9954	124.3
1900.....	.0480	86.8	1.2460	108.4	.1320	141.3	.9817	122.6
1901.....	.0502	90.8	1.2861	111.8	.1092	116.9	.8495	106.1
1902.....	.0497	89.9	1.3128	114.3	.1348	144.3	.7273	90.8
1903.....	.0526	95.1	1.2809	111.4	*.1146	*122.7	.9054	113.1
1904.....	.0530	95.8	1.2692	110.4	*.1171	*125.4	1.0875	135.8
1905.....	.0525	94.9	1.2616	109.7	*.1195	*127.9	1.2425	155.2
1906.....	.0500	90.4	1.2879	112.0	*.1252	*134.0	1.2131	151.5
1907.....	.0506	91.5	1.3133	114.2	*.1290	*138.1	1.0633	132.8

Year.	Soap: castile, mottled, pure.		Starch: laundry.		Tobacco: plug.		Tobacco: smoking, gran., Seal of N. C.	
	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.	Average price per pound.	Relative price.
Average, 1890-1899..	\$0.0509	100.0	\$0.0348	100.0	\$0.3962	100.0	\$0.5090	100.0
1890.....	.0594	104.4	.0371	106.6	.4050	102.2	.5000	98.2
1891.....	.0621	109.1	.0426	122.4	.4008	101.2	.5000	98.2
1892.....	.0624	109.7	.0373	107.2	.3725	94.0	.5000	98.2
1893.....	.0615	108.1	.0366	105.2	.3967	100.1	.5000	98.2
1894.....	.0588	103.3	.0366	105.2	.4000	101.0	.5000	98.2
1895.....	.0507	89.1	.0363	104.3	.4000	101.0	.5000	98.2
1896.....	.0502	88.2	.0310	89.1	.3808	96.1	.5000	98.2
1897.....	.0531	93.3	.0300	86.2	.3758	94.9	.5000	98.2
1898.....	.0550	96.7	.0300	86.2	.4133	104.3	.5300	104.1
1899.....	.0558	98.1	.0300	86.2	.4175	105.4	.5600	110.0
1900.....	.0613	107.7	.0340	97.7	.4433	111.9	.5600	110.0
1901.....	.0555	115.1	.0363	104.3	.4658	117.6	.5600	110.0
1902.....	.0663	116.5	.0454	130.5	.4542	114.6	.5392	109.9
1903.....	.0658	115.6	.0431	123.9	.4500	113.6	.5700	112.0
1904.....	.0647	113.7	.0360	106.0	.4700	118.6	.5825	114.4
1905.....	.0650	114.2	.0329	94.5	.4900	123.7	.6000	117.9
1906.....	.0650	114.2	.0367	105.5	.4833	122.0	.6000	117.9
1907.....	.0671	117.9	.0404	116.1	.4700	118.6	.6000	117.9

* ¼-inch.

ULLETIN OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR.

V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907.

[For explanation and discussion of this table, see pages 337 to 346. Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Farm products.										
	Cotton: upland, mid- dling.	Flax- seed: No. 1.	Grain.						Hay: timo- thy, No. 1.	Hides: green, salted, packers, heavy native steers.	Hops: New York State, choice.
			Barley: by sample.	Corn: No. 2, cash.	Oats: cash.	Rye: No. 2, cash.	Wheat: cash.	Aver- age.			
1890....	142.9	125.5	111.6	103.8	115.6	103.0	118.9	110.6	95.8	99.6	148.0
1891....	110.8	97.1	134.5	151.0	144.1	137.6	128.1	143.0	117.8	101.5	149.1
1892....	99.0	91.4	112.2	118.3	113.2	127.7	104.9	115.3	113.5	92.8	141.4
1893....	107.2	97.7	103.3	104.2	105.2	92.6	90.1	99.1	107.4	70.9	128.2
1894....	90.2	121.6	113.2	113.7	115.7	88.1	74.4	101.0	99.9	68.4	85.5
1895....	94.0	111.8	94.8	104.0	88.3	91.2	79.9	91.6	109.1	109.7	53.1
1896....	102.0	72.9	65.7	67.8	67.0	66.5	85.4	70.5	99.0	86.6	49.5
1897....	92.2	78.1	71.2	66.9	67.9	74.9	105.8	77.3	80.9	106.3	65.5
1898....	70.9	99.8	95.9	82.6	91.9	93.8	117.8	96.4	79.9	122.8	91.5
1899....	84.7	104.0	97.6	87.6	91.2	104.4	94.7	95.1	96.6	131.8	88.3
1900....	123.8	145.7	106.2	100.2	84.5	97.9	93.7	96.5	110.9	127.4	83.7
1901....	111.1	145.8	129.8	130.6	118.3	100.8	95.7	115.0	123.0	132.0	97.1
1902....	115.1	135.0	139.4	156.9	147.3	102.5	98.7	129.0	120.9	142.8	134.1
1903....	144.7	94.1	121.2	121.1	131.7	97.5	105.1	115.3	119.2	124.8	159.5
1904....	155.9	99.6	116.9	132.6	135.8	133.4	138.3	131.4	112.5	134.4	196.2
1905....	123.1	107.6	107.0	131.7	111.2	134.5	134.5	123.8	107.9	152.6	150.9
1906....	142.0	99.1	112.8	121.8	122.1	115.5	105.6	115.6	124.3	164.7	92.0
1907....	153.0	106.1	169.0	138.8	167.4	145.4	120.8	148.3	162.4	155.3	98.1

Year.	Live stock.										Average, farm products.
	Cattle.			Hogs.			Sheep.			Average.	
	Steers, choice to extra.	Steers, good to choice.	Aver- age.	Heavy.	Light.	Aver- age.	Native.	West- ern.	Aver- age.		
1890....	91.5	87.4	89.5	89.6	88.8	89.2	120.5	118.0	119.3	99.3	110.0
1891....	110.6	107.7	109.2	100.2	98.2	99.2	120.0	115.6	117.8	108.7	121.5
1892....	95.7	95.0	95.4	116.8	114.6	115.7	127.2	123.2	125.2	112.1	111.7
1893....	103.8	102.2	103.0	148.4	148.7	148.6	103.2	104.3	103.8	118.4	107.9
1894....	97.0	95.6	96.3	112.7	111.0	112.2	71.7	75.4	73.6	94.0	95.9
1895....	103.1	104.2	103.7	97.0	96.2	96.6	78.5	78.3	78.4	92.9	93.3
1896....	86.4	90.2	88.3	76.1	80.5	78.3	78.0	79.4	78.7	81.8	78.3
1897....	98.2	100.8	99.5	81.4	84.2	82.8	93.1	95.3	94.2	92.2	85.2
1898....	101.1	103.2	102.2	86.2	85.0	85.6	104.4	105.3	104.9	97.5	96.1
1899....	112.6	113.7	113.2	91.5	92.1	91.8	103.3	105.2	104.3	103.1	100.0
1900....	108.7	113.9	111.3	115.2	115.7	115.5	109.7	114.3	112.0	112.9	109.5
1901....	115.1	118.1	116.6	135.0	133.9	134.5	89.2	94.7	92.0	114.3	114.9
1902....	140.4	138.5	139.5	158.0	152.4	155.2	100.6	105.7	103.2	132.6	130.5
1903....	104.7	106.9	105.8	137.3	137.0	137.2	98.7	98.0	98.4	113.8	118.8
1904....	112.0	109.7	110.9	116.8	116.5	116.7	110.3	107.8	109.1	112.2	126.2
1905....	112.2	110.2	111.2	119.9	120.4	120.2	134.5	128.5	131.5	121.0	124.2
1906....	115.2	113.1	114.2	141.3	143.1	142.2	131.7	133.5	132.6	129.7	123.6
1907....	123.0	122.8	122.9	137.8	140.6	139.2	130.3	123.5	126.9	129.7	137.1

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1896=100.0.]

Year.	Food, etc.									
	Beans: medium choice.	Bread.								Average.
		Crackers.			Loaf.					
		Boston.	Soda.	Average.	Washington market.	Strommside (N. Y. market.)	Vienna (N. Y. market.)	Average.		
1890	121.3	104.0	111.4	107.7	100.6	100.9	101.1	100.9	103.6	
1891	124.9	104.0	111.4	107.7	100.6	100.9	101.1	100.9	103.6	
1892	112.0	102.2	108.3	104.3	100.6	100.9	101.1	100.9	102.2	
1893	119.2	96.6	104.5	100.6	100.6	100.9	101.1	100.9	100.7	
1894	110.6	96.6	101.0	98.8	100.6	100.9	101.1	100.9	100.0	
1895	107.2	97.2	94.0	95.6	94.1	100.9	101.1	98.7	97.5	
1896	70.3	96.6	91.6	94.1	102.5	96.5	90.6	94.5	94.4	
1897	62.6	88.0	82.5	85.3	100.6	100.9	101.1	100.9	94.6	
1898	74.7	108.9	105.6	107.3	100.6	100.9	101.1	100.9	103.4	
1899	87.0	105.9	92.3	99.1	100.6	100.9	101.1	100.9	100.2	
1900	125.6	111.4	94.0	102.7	100.6	100.9	101.1	100.9	101.6	
1901	131.3	118.9	97.5	108.2	100.6	100.9	101.1	100.9	103.8	
1902	115.0	118.9	97.5	108.2	100.6	100.9	101.1	100.9	103.8	
1903	135.5	112.6	90.0	101.3	100.6	100.9	101.1	100.9	101.0	
1904	120.4	115.2	91.6	103.4	102.5	110.4	105.1	106.0	105.0	
1905	128.8	132.5	95.1	113.8	100.6	118.6	113.6	110.9	112.1	
1906	113.8	133.7	90.5	112.1	100.6	118.6	113.6	110.9	111.4	
1907	106.4	133.7	90.5	112.1	100.6	118.6	113.6	110.9	111.4	

Year.	Butter.				Cheese: New York, full cream.	Coffee: Rio No. 7.	Eggs: new-laid, fancy, near-by.	Fish.				
	Creamery, Elgin (Elgin market).	Creamery, extra (New York market).	Dairy, New York State.	Average.				Cod, dry, bank, large.	Herring, shov, round.	Mackerel, salt, large No. 3s.	Salmon, canned.	Average.
1890	103.1	101.5	96.5	100.4	97.1	136.6	99.1	101.7	93.3	120.2	111.4	108.9
1891	115.3	115.3	117.6	116.1	102.4	127.3	110.0	120.5	124.6	108.4	101.8	113.8
1892	116.5	116.5	116.1	116.4	107.2	108.9	110.4	126.3	77.8	92.0	100.7	99.2
1893	118.9	120.5	124.6	121.3	109.0	131.2	114.5	114.2	101.0	92.0	101.4	102.2
1894	101.1	102.1	103.3	102.2	107.4	126.0	93.5	106.7	89.9	78.2	96.7	92.9
1895	95.1	95.3	93.0	94.5	94.1	121.2	102.0	98.9	83.6	110.6	102.1	98.8
1896	82.6	82.1	82.3	82.3	92.0	93.9	88.7	75.4	88.8	98.5	105.2	93.0
1897	84.7	84.5	83.2	84.1	98.1	60.4	87.5	80.9	90.3	86.5	90.8	86.6
1898	80.9	87.2	86.4	86.8	83.3	48.2	92.6	83.6	111.4	96.7	86.0	94.4
1899	95.6	94.8	97.1	95.8	108.9	46.0	101.6	92.0	133.2	107.9	103.8	100.9
1900	100.4	100.1	104.5	101.7	114.3	62.6	100.7	94.9	134.6	98.3	120.2	112.0
1901	97.4	96.5	99.2	97.7	102.4	49.2	106.7	107.2	131.9	76.6	116.3	108.0
1902	111.2	110.6	114.5	112.1	114.1	44.6	122.7	91.2	129.9	97.3	109.6	107.0
1903	106.1	104.7	106.2	105.7	123.3	42.6	123.2	105.0	151.7	123.5	110.0	122.6
1904	100.4	97.6	97.3	98.4	103.2	59.6	135.0	130.4	144.4	102.6	117.1	123.6
1905	111.9	111.0	115.6	112.8	122.8	63.4	138.2	132.4	158.9	98.5	115.7	126.4
1906	113.3	111.0	114.9	113.1	133.0	61.8	133.2	136.2	168.0	104.7	114.3	130.8
1907	127.2	126.2	132.0	128.5	143.3	50.1	141.2	138.6	162.9	98.5	113.2	128.3

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—
Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Food, etc.								
	Flour.					Fruit.			
	Buck-wheat.	Rye.	Wheat.			Average.	Apples.		
			Spring patents.	Winter straights.	Average.		Evaporated, choice.	Sun-dried.	Average.
1890	104.0	101.4	120.7	121.0	126.9	111.8	134.1	134.0	134.1
1891	125.7	148.3	123.5	127.6	125.6	131.3	129.9	160.2	145.1
1892	92.1	121.1	101.1	107.2	104.2	105.4	81.2	82.1	81.7
1893	121.9	93.0	93.2	85.4	89.3	98.4	109.4	98.0	104.0
1894	125.4	83.8	83.7	71.5	77.6	91.1	128.9	122.5	125.7
1895	86.2	94.5	84.8	84.0	84.4	87.4	80.0	93.4	86.7
1896	71.1	80.9	88.3	94.1	91.2	83.6	62.9	60.6	61.8
1897	75.4	84.6	106.8	113.4	110.1	95.1	65.5	51.8	58.7
1898	79.8	92.9	110.1	107.8	109.0	97.7	105.1	77.3	91.2
1899	118.4	99.4	87.8	88.0	87.9	98.4	102.6	118.4	110.5
1900	108.3	103.3	89.4	87.1	88.3	97.0	72.6	86.0	79.3
1901	108.4	100.1	88.7	86.0	87.4	95.8	83.7	79.6	81.7
1902	115.1	103.9	88.6	90.7	89.7	99.6	108.7	98.4	103.6
1903	119.5	94.9	100.8	93.4	97.1	102.2	72.1	83.9	78.0
1904	120.1	131.1	125.2	125.5	125.4	125.5	71.2	64.7	68.9
1905	112.7	134.7	126.2	118.1	122.2	122.9	82.5	67.6	75.1
1906	115.0	115.9	99.5	94.0	96.8	106.1	115.5	103.3	109.4
1907	132.4	138.7	113.5	103.7	108.6	122.1	99.5	123.9	111.7

Year.	Fruit.				Glucose. ^(a)	Lard: prime contract.	Meal: corn.		
	Currants, in barrels.	Prunes, California, in boxes.	Raisins, California, London layer.	Average.			Fine white.	Fine yellow.	Average.
1890	127.5	138.0	157.3	138.2	96.8	101.2	100.3	100.8
1891	112.6	129.2	120.1	130.6	100.9	140.6	143.4	142.0
1892	79.2	128.6	97.9	93.8	117.9	113.7	114.2	114.0
1893	72.0	134.2	113.3	105.5	124.3	157.5	105.0	106.5	105.8
1894	46.1	95.0	76.9	93.9	111.4	118.2	106.7	104.5	105.6
1895	67.7	86.0	95.2	84.5	109.2	99.8	102.2	104.4	103.3
1896	87.2	75.1	67.9	70.7	81.7	71.7	77.5	77.2	77.4
1897	127.7	70.5	93.2	81.7	86.0	67.4	77.8	75.1	76.5
1898	154.7	70.3	92.7	100.0	91.8	84.4	84.1	83.2	83.7
1899	125.3	73.0	85.5	101.0	95.6	85.0	91.1	91.2	91.2
1900	192.0	67.4	101.3	103.9	104.9	105.5	96.5	97.4	97.0
1901	221.6	67.8	96.1	109.8	116.0	135.3	114.2	116.8	115.5
1902	131.7	71.2	112.3	104.5	153.6	161.9	146.4	150.0	148.2
1903	126.9	62.1	96.3	88.3	129.7	134.1	123.7	125.7	124.7
1904	130.1	59.6	98.2	96.0	126.3	111.8	127.8	131.1	129.5
1905	130.7	59.3	79.1	83.8	125.1	113.9	126.4	130.3	128.4
1906	163.7	83.5	106.6	117.9	142.9	135.6	120.8	124.2	122.5
1907	187.5	76.6	108.4	119.2	150.4	140.7	129.5	133.5	131.5

^aAverage for 1893-1899=100.0.

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Food, etc.										
	Meat.										Average.
	Beef.				Pork.					Mutton, dressed.	
	Fresh, native sides.	Salt, extra mess.	Salt, hams, western.	Average.	Bacon, short clear sides.	Bacon, short rib sides.	Hams, smoked.	Salt, mess, old to new.	Average.		
1890....	89.2	86.8	80.4	85.5	89.3	89.3	101.1	104.4	96.0		
1891....	106.2	104.4	85.8	98.8	103.6	103.8	99.8	97.2	101.1	114.9	102.0
1892....	98.8	84.4	80.5	88.0	116.6	116.5	109.3	99.1	110.4	121.2	103.4
1893....	105.4	102.2	98.6	102.1	155.3	154.0	126.9	157.6	148.5	106.5	125.8
1894....	97.0	101.0	101.5	99.8	111.3	112.2	103.6	121.4	112.1	80.2	103.5
1895....	102.7	101.4	95.9	100.0	96.3	96.3	96.2	101.7	97.6	82.2	96.6
1896....	90.5	93.7	88.1	90.8	73.2	73.0	95.8	76.8	79.7	82.9	84.3
1897....	99.7	95.7	125.1	106.8	80.1	79.6	90.9	76.6	81.8	96.6	93.0
1898....	101.3	114.2	118.8	111.4	88.3	90.5	82.0	84.8	86.4	98.0	97.2
1899....	108.3	115.9	125.6	116.6	86.4	85.1	93.8	80.3	86.4	94.3	98.7
1900....	104.3	121.7	114.2	113.4	111.4	111.6	104.2	107.5	108.7	96.4	108.9
1901....	102.1	116.3	112.6	110.3	132.0	132.5	109.2	134.2	127.0	89.5	116.1
1902....	125.9	147.1	118.0	130.3	150.0	159.5	123.1	154.2	149.0	97.9	135.6
1903....	101.7	113.1	117.2	110.7	142.1	143.0	129.2	143.1	139.4	98.7	123.5
1904....	106.1	109.4	123.5	113.0	114.8	115.4	108.9	120.6	114.9	103.2	112.7
1905....	104.0	125.0	121.6	116.9	118.5	119.4	106.3	123.9	117.0	113.9	116.6
1906....	101.2	110.3	119.2	110.2	139.6	140.2	125.5	150.5	139.0	120.7	125.9
1907....	114.7	122.6	144.0	127.1	141.3	140.1	132.4	151.0	141.2	116.0	132.8

Year.	Milk: fresh.	Molasses: New Orleans, open kettle.	Rice: domestic, choice.	Salt.			Soda: bicarbonate of, American.	Spices.			Starch: pure corn.
				American.	Ash-ton's.	Average.		Nutmegs.	Pepper, Singapore.	Average.	
1891....	104.7	88.5	113.5	111.7	108.1	109.9	131.7	140.7	116.6	128.7	109.5
1892....	105.1	101.2	101.4	107.5	107.8	107.7	104.3	123.1	92.0	107.6	109.5
1893....	109.4	106.2	81.8	99.6	105.5	102.6	136.4	106.1	79.4	92.8	109.5
1894....	103.1	98.1	93.8	102.1	101.6	101.9	128.2	92.5	68.9	80.7	103.5
1895....	99.2	97.8	95.0	96.6	93.0	96.3	84.7	91.8	66.4	79.1	101.1
1896....	91.8	103.0	92.5	88.4	93.0	90.7	72.7	83.1	66.8	75.0	93.6
1897....	92.2	83.1	96.6	93.0	93.0	93.5	71.8	77.6	88.7	83.2	91.2
1898....	93.7	97.8	108.4	94.4	93.0	93.7	61.7	72.7	119.0	95.9	91.2
1899....	99.2	111.9	108.2	90.4	93.0	91.7	56.0	66.4	149.1	107.8	91.2
1900....	107.5	151.5	97.7	142.1	93.0	117.6	58.9	60.2	172.4	116.3	91.2
1901....	102.7	120.1	97.7	121.6	99.0	110.3	51.2	54.3	172.5	113.4	85.8
1902....	112.9	115.5	99.6	90.3	101.0	95.7	51.7	46.9	167.6	107.3	80.3
1903....	112.9	112.5	100.9	87.6	102.0	94.6	61.7	66.6	172.1	119.4	92.5
1904....	107.8	107.8	78.6	109.4	(c)	109.4	62.2	50.3	164.1	107.2	95.8
1905....	113.3	102.5	74.3	107.2	(c)	107.2	62.2	39.8	162.5	101.2	100.7
1906....	118.0	107.9	84.5	101.4	(c)	101.4	62.2	40.0	151.9	96.0	103.3
1907....	131.4	129.7	95.2	112.6	(c)	112.6	62.2	32.3	132.7	82.5	109.5

(c) Quotations discontinued.

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Food, etc.										
	Sugar.				Tallow.	Tea: Formosa, fine.	Vegetables, fresh.			Vinegar: cider, Monarch.	Average, food, etc.
	89° fair refining.	96° centrifugal.	Granulated.	Average.			Onions.	Potatoes, white.	Average.		
1890	143.9	141.1	130.5	138.5	105.7	96.3	127.8	119.3	123.6	105.4	112.4
1891	101.8	101.1	99.7	100.9	111.0	99.2	121.3	154.9	138.1	121.8	115.7
1892	84.5	85.7	92.1	87.4	106.4	106.0	106.0	91.1	98.6	111.1	103.6
1893	94.3	95.1	102.3	97.2	125.1	101.7	93.8	134.5	114.2	101.5	110.2
1894	81.2	83.5	87.0	83.9	110.3	98.0	95.6	122.8	109.2	101.5	99.8
1895	85.2	84.1	87.9	85.7	99.8	95.1	91.6	86.7	89.2	98.1	94.6
1896	93.9	93.7	95.9	94.5	78.9	91.0	57.3	39.4	48.4	88.0	83.8
1897	90.6	92.1	95.1	92.6	76.3	98.6	115.5	65.7	90.6	88.0	87.7
1898	109.2	109.5	105.2	108.0	81.8	104.2	96.2	102.1	99.2	89.6	94.4
1899	115.4	114.3	104.2	111.3	104.1	109.8	94.8	83.6	89.2	94.7	98.3
1900	119.2	118.2	112.8	116.7	111.5	104.9	71.4	74.9	73.2	91.3	104.2
1901	103.6	104.4	106.8	104.9	119.1	100.4	103.0	113.0	108.0	89.6	105.9
1902	89.3	91.5	94.2	91.7	144.6	106.2	107.2	119.4	113.3	95.3	111.3
1903	95.0	96.1	98.2	96.4	117.2	80.9	104.9	105.2	105.1	88.0	107.1
1904	102.1	102.7	101.0	101.9	105.5	97.1	104.6	146.3	125.5	89.6	107.2
1905	108.8	110.6	111.2	110.2	103.2	94.2	95.3	80.7	88.0	98.6	108.7
1906	93.7	95.3	95.5	94.8	119.3	82.8	96.8	109.7	103.3	115.0	112.6
1907	95.7	97.0	98.4	97.0	142.8	81.0	103.0	98.4	100.7	116.7	117.8

Year.	Cloths and clothing.											
	Bags: 2-bu., Amoskeag.	Blankets.				Average.	Boots and shoes.					Average.
		11-4, all wool.	11-4, cotton warp, all wool filling.	11-4, cotton warp, cotton and wool filling.	Average.		Men's brogans, split.	Men's calf bal. shoes, Good-year welt.	Men's split boots.	Men's vici kid shoes, Good-year welt.	Women's solid grain shoes.	
1890	113.9	108.3	106.0	108.5	107.6	106.1	101.0	104.0	108.7	104.0	194.8	
1891	111.7	106.0	106.0	108.5	106.8	106.1	101.0	104.0	108.7	97.9	103.5	
1892	110.8	107.1	104.4	101.4	104.3	104.9	101.0	104.0	108.7	94.8	102.7	
1893	106.8	107.1	104.4	99.1	103.5	102.3	101.0	100.9	108.7	91.7	100.9	
1894	91.1	101.2	89.7	96.7	95.9	97.9	101.0	97.9	108.7	91.7	99.4	
1895	82.2	89.3	88.1	94.3	90.6	99.2	101.0	91.7	97.8	104.0	98.7	
1896	91.6	89.3	91.4	94.3	91.7	100.4	101.0	94.8	97.8	104.0	99.6	
1897	92.9	89.3	106.0	99.1	98.1	96.0	101.0	97.9	87.0	104.0	97.2	
1898	95.6	107.1	102.0	99.1	102.7	92.2	97.6	100.9	87.0	104.0	96.3	
1899	103.4	95.2	102.0	99.1	98.8	94.8	94.3	104.0	87.0	104.0	96.8	
1900	112.6	107.1	122.3	123.8	117.7	94.8	94.3	110.1	87.0	110.6	99.4	
1901	101.0	101.2	106.0	112.0	106.4	95.4	96.8	112.4	87.0	104.5	99.2	
1902	102.4	101.2	106.0	112.0	106.4	94.1	96.8	111.1	87.0	105.5	98.9	
1903	104.2	110.1	114.2	117.9	114.1	93.5	98.9	113.1	87.0	108.6	100.2	
1904	128.4	110.1	118.3	123.8	117.4	93.5	98.9	113.7	87.3	112.3	101.1	
1905	109.6	119.0	126.4	141.5	129.0	101.5	100.0	120.5	95.5	119.5	107.4	
1906	129.1	122.0	130.5	141.5	131.3	126.8	a 108.0	144.8	103.4	126.2	121.8	
1907	138.5	119.0	130.5	141.5	130.3	128.7	a 109.0	160.0	108.7	123.1	125.9	

a Men's vici calf shoes, Blucher bal., vici calf top, single sole. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328.

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Cloths and clothing.								
	Broad-cloths: first quality, black, 54-inch, XXX wool.	Calico: Cochecho prints.	Carpets.				Cotton flannels.		
			Brussels, 5-frame, Bigelow.	Ingrain, 2-ply, Lowell.	Wilton, 5-frame, Bigelow.	Average.	2½ yards to the pound.	3½ yards to the pound.	Average.
1890....	113.7	117.5	103.1	108.6	104.2	105.3	123.9	119.7	121.8
1891....	113.7	104.0	112.7	116.2	109.4	112.8	123.9	119.7	121.8
1892....	113.7	117.5	103.1	106.1	104.2	104.5	118.7	113.0	115.9
1893....	113.7	113.0	98.3	111.1	104.2	104.5	102.7	100.0	101.4
1894....	91.2	99.5	93.5	98.5	104.2	98.7	95.6	95.7	95.7
1895....	79.7	94.9	93.5	88.4	91.1	91.0	92.1	91.3	91.7
1896....	79.7	94.9	93.5	85.9	91.1	90.2	92.1	95.7	93.9
1897....	98.2	90.4	95.9	90.9	93.8	93.5	81.4	95.7	88.6
1898....	98.2	81.4	103.1	98.5	99.0	100.2	81.4	80.5	81.0
1899....	98.2	87.3	103.1	96.0	99.0	99.4	87.7	88.3	88.0
1900....	108.0	94.9	103.1	103.5	101.6	102.7	104.5	98.6	101.6
1901....	110.3	90.4	103.1	101.0	101.6	101.9	90.7	100.0	95.4
1902....	110.3	90.4	103.5	101.9	102.2	102.5	92.1	100.0	96.1
1903....	110.3	91.1	108.7	108.1	108.9	108.6	104.1	109.4	106.8
1904....	110.5	95.7	110.3	109.1	110.7	110.0	125.4	125.7	125.6
1905....	115.2	93.5	115.1	116.2	115.9	115.7	121.0	118.4	119.7
1906....	116.6	99.5	117.9	116.2	118.9	117.7	130.7	125.7	128.2
1907....	116.6	121.0	124.7	121.2	123.7	123.2	139.9	139.1	139.5

Year.	Cotton thread: 6-cord, 200-yard spools, J. & P. Coats.	Cotton yarns.			Denims: Amos-keag.	Drillings.			Flannels: white, 4-4, Ballard Vale No. 3.
		Carded, white, mule-spun, northern, cones, 10/1	Carded, white, mule-spun, northern, cones, 22/1.	Average.		Brown, Peppereil.	30-inch, Stark A.	Average.	
1890....	101.6	111.3	112.1	111.7	112.5	119.4	122.8	121.1	116.8
1891....	100.7	111.6	114.0	112.8	109.6	114.0	115.2	114.6	116.8
1892....	100.7	117.2	116.8	117.0	109.6	101.7	102.7	102.2	115.9
1893....	100.7	112.4	108.6	110.5	112.5	103.1	108.1	105.6	109.5
1894....	100.7	94.7	91.2	93.0	105.4	97.7	95.4	97.1	94.1
1895....	100.7	91.9	92.2	92.1	94.6	92.5	93.9	93.2	81.7
1896....	99.6	92.2	93.7	93.0	94.6	100.2	100.2	100.2	85.4
1897....	98.4	90.3	90.8	90.6	80.2	91.8	88.9	90.4	82.6
1898....	98.4	90.5	91.0	90.8	85.9	89.7	83.9	80.8	97.8
1899....	98.4	87.6	89.4	88.5	85.8	89.2	87.7	88.5	90.5
1900....	120.1	115.0	115.9	115.5	102.8	105.9	104.0	105.0	108.7
1901....	120.1	98.6	97.9	98.3	100.2	102.3	102.1	102.2	100.8
1902....	120.1	95.6	92.4	94.0	100.6	100.5	103.5	102.0	105.8
1903....	120.1	116.2	109.5	112.9	108.0	108.2	111.5	109.9	114.3
1904....	120.1	123.2	115.7	119.5	116.6	127.1	126.3	126.7	117.6
1905....	120.1	107.8	103.5	105.7	103.7	126.0	121.5	123.8	118.4
1906....	120.1	124.6	117.0	120.8	118.1	135.5	142.0	138.8	122.4
1907....	134.8	137.1	130.6	133.9	132.3	144.2	150.1	147.2	123.1

^a Calico: American standard prints, 64 x 64. Fo: method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328.

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—
Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Cloths and clothing.								
	Ginghams.			Horse blankets: 6 pounds each, all wool.	Hosiery.				Average.
	Amoskeag.	Lancaster.	Average.		Men's cotton half hose, seamless, fast black, 20 to 22 oz.	Men's cotton half hose, seamless, S4 needles.	Women's combed Egyptian cotton hose, high spliced heel. ^(a)	Women's cotton hose, seamless, fast black, 26 to 28 oz.	
1890....	117.3	120.8	119.1	109.1	133.3	124.3	131.6	129.7
1891....	122.0	122.2	122.1	104.7	123.1	124.3	121.1	122.8
1892....	122.0	122.2	122.1	109.1	112.8	123.6	115.8	117.4
1893....	118.4	111.3	114.9	104.7	110.3	111.5	102.7	113.2	109.4
1894....	91.0	88.0	89.5	96.0	102.6	92.4	102.7	105.3	100.8
1895....	87.4	86.6	87.0	92.5	94.9	89.2	101.4	92.1	94.4
1896....	88.6	87.3	88.0	90.8	87.2	89.2	101.4	84.2	90.5
1897....	82.2	86.2	84.2	99.5	82.1	82.9	100.0	81.6	86.7
1898....	80.9	85.2	83.1	99.5	76.9	82.9	97.3	76.3	83.4
1899....	89.5	89.9	89.7	94.2	76.9	79.7	94.6	78.9	82.5
1900....	96.6	96.0	96.3	118.7	82.1	82.9	102.7	81.6	87.3
1901....	91.9	92.7	92.3	109.9	71.8	92.4	108.1	71.1	85.9
1902....	98.1	100.3	99.2	109.9	76.9	85.0	100.0	78.9	85.2
1903....	103.2	100.3	101.8	117.8	82.1	90.0	101.4	86.8	90.1
1904....	102.8	97.0	99.9	122.2	82.1	95.9	97.3	81.6	89.2
1905....	96.6	90.2	93.4	130.9	82.1	89.2	94.6	84.2	87.5
1906....	106.0	103.3	104.7	135.3	85.3	89.2	102.7	81.6	89.7
1907....	123.5	120.4	122.0	130.9	94.8	95.6	109.5	89.5	97.4

Year.	Leather.				Linen thread.			
	Harness, oak.	Sole, hemlock.	Sole, oak.	Wax calf, 30 to 40 lbs. to the dozen, B grade.	Average.	Shoe, 10s, Barbour.	3-cord, 200-yard spools, Barbour.	Average.
1890....	99.3	99.1	112.1	91.7	100.6	101.9	104.6	103.3
1891....	99.6	95.8	109.4	98.8	100.9	101.9	93.2	97.6
1892....	91.4	89.1	101.7	105.9	97.0	101.9	94.1	98.0
1893....	92.7	92.6	103.6	98.5	96.9	102.8	97.5	100.2
1894....	87.8	88.4	97.5	92.3	91.5	105.0	99.9	102.5
1895....	111.5	106.9	101.7	112.0	108.0	97.3	99.9	98.6
1896....	98.6	97.0	87.0	98.3	95.2	97.3	99.9	98.6
1897....	93.9	104.8	91.6	94.1	96.1	97.3	101.8	99.6
1898....	100.1	109.8	95.5	103.3	104.4	97.3	104.6	101.0
1899....	116.0	116.2	99.9	105.0	109.3	97.3	104.6	101.0
1900....	116.8	128.4	107.3	100.3	113.2	101.5	104.6	103.1
1901....	114.7	127.6	104.8	96.0	110.8	101.9	104.6	103.3
1902....	114.7	122.1	113.0	100.9	112.7	101.9	104.6	103.3
1903....	114.3	116.9	111.3	105.4	112.0	96.7	98.2	97.5
1904....	110.0	116.5	102.6	105.0	108.5	97.2	103.7	100.5
1905....	115.0	118.1	108.9	106.5	112.1	97.2	103.7	100.5
1906....	128.1	130.9	112.9	109.5	120.4	102.1	103.7	102.9
1907....	129.0	136.4	113.6	117.1	124.0	102.1	107.3	104.7

^a Average for 1893-1899=100.0.

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Cloths and clothing.							Print cloths: 28-inch, 64 x 64.	Shawls: standard, all wool, 72 x 144 in., 42-oz.
	Overcoatings.								
	Beaver, Moscow, all wool, black.	Chinchilla, B-rough, all wool.	Chinchilla, cotton warp, C. C. grade.	Covert cloth, light weight, staple.	Kersey, standard, 27 to 28 oz. (a)	Average.			
1890....	126.7	113.4	109.1	105.7	111.2	117.7	107.0	
1891....	126.7	113.4	107.7	105.7	110.9	103.5	107.0	
1892....	126.7	113.4	109.1	105.7	111.2	119.3	107.0	
1893....	121.7	108.5	109.9	105.7	109.0	114.6	107.0	
1894....	95.5	92.8	96.9	104.2	97.4	96.8	107.0	
1895....	84.9	87.7	92.3	99.9	91.2	100.9	107.0	
1896....	84.9	87.7	93.2	87.4	87.3	99.9	89.1	
1897....	84.9	87.7	93.7	83.6	94.9	89.0	87.6	89.5	
1898....	89.4	97.7	98.3	97.2	104.2	97.4	72.6	90.2	
1899....	98.7	97.7	93.9	104.9	100.9	99.2	96.3	89.1	
1900....	120.1	115.7	100.2	101.4	126.3	112.9	108.6	107.0	
1901....	106.1	97.7	90.8	97.2	120.3	102.4	99.3	107.0	
1902....	106.1	97.7	92.3	97.2	120.3	102.7	108.9	107.0	
1903....	117.3	103.1	92.8	94.0	126.3	106.7	113.3	107.0	
1904....	111.7	103.1	93.3	94.0	132.3	106.9	117.3	107.0	
1905....	117.3	111.8	94.0	96.9	146.8	113.4	110.0	117.5	
1906....	(b)	117.8	101.6	96.9	163.7	120.0	127.7	128.5	
1907....	(b)	119.4	100.5	96.9	158.0	118.7	167.4	107.0	

Year.	Sheetings.									Average.
	Bleached.				Brown.					
	10-4, Atlantic.	10-4, Pepperell.	10-4, Wamsutta S. T.	Average.	4-4, Atlantic A.	4-4, Indian Head.	4-4, Popperell R.	4-4, Stark A. A.	Average.	
1890....	122.1	116.2	106.0	114.8	121.0	115.8	116.2	125.7	119.7	117.6
1891....	116.4	106.6	107.2	110.1	118.1	116.1	108.3	113.1	113.9	112.3
1892....	108.7	100.8	99.8	103.1	106.7	103.5	103.3	103.8	104.3	103.8
1893....	111.8	103.3	103.6	106.2	111.9	108.5	105.8	109.3	108.9	107.7
1894....	94.8	92.5	93.5	93.6	99.3	95.5	96.4	99.2	97.6	95.9
1895....	93.8	94.7	92.2	93.6	94.0	93.5	96.0	97.7	95.3	94.6
1896....	92.6	95.1	99.2	95.6	96.7	99.4	101.3	97.3	98.7	97.4
1897....	87.4	92.3	99.2	93.0	88.6	93.9	95.3	86.1	91.0	91.8
1898....	83.2	91.3	99.2	91.2	80.1	86.3	86.2	80.8	83.4	86.7
1899....	89.4	107.3	100.1	98.9	84.3	86.9	91.5	85.9	87.2	92.2
1900....	111.3	121.7	104.3	112.4	100.4	99.5	107.4	96.8	101.0	105.9
1901....	100.9	112.4	99.2	104.2	98.0	100.8	107.4	94.1	100.1	101.8
1902....	104.4	111.5	99.2	105.0	99.3	99.8	103.3	c 92.6	98.8	101.4
1903....	115.7	120.8	103.0	113.2	115.0	108.8	108.7	e 101.9	108.6	110.4
1904....	128.3	128.7	94.1	117.0	129.8	128.1	121.4	e 117.0	124.1	121.1
1905....	110.2	120.3	91.6	107.4	115.6	121.1	116.9	e 118.6	118.1	113.5
1906....	d 121.5	131.4	92.7	115.2	133.6	128.1	124.3	e 125.5	127.9	122.4
1907....	d 134.3	153.0	103.4	130.2	138.9	133.4	135.4	e 127.1	133.7	132.2

a Average for 1897-1899=100.0.

b Quotations discontinued.

c Sheetings: brown, 4-4, Massachusetts Mills, Flying Horse brand. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328.

d Sheetings: bleached, 9-4, Atlantic. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328.

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Cloths and clothing.								
	Shirtings: bleached.					Silk: raw.			
	4-4, Fruit of the Loom.	4-4, Hope.	4-4, Lonsdale.	4-4, New York Mills.	4-4, Wamsutta < o > XX	Average.	Italian, classical.	Japan, flatures.	Average.
1890.....	116.1	115.2	116.2	110.5	106.6	112.9	122.7	130.5	126.6
1891.....	109.8	111.6	113.1	110.2	106.4	110.2	98.4	99.8	99.1
1892.....	111.0	105.2	111.7	106.3	102.6	107.4	105.3	107.7	106.5
1893.....	114.3	113.2	114.4	105.6	103.5	110.2	118.2	113.0	115.6
1894.....	99.9	98.4	100.0	101.0	100.2	99.9	86.5	83.7	85.1
1895.....	96.2	96.5	95.9	97.1	102.2	97.6	94.9	94.2	94.6
1896.....	95.6	98.4	94.2	101.0	100.3	97.9	85.3	84.8	85.1
1897.....	88.0	91.1	87.1	95.4	98.6	92.0	85.5	86.2	85.9
1898.....	80.2	82.2	81.8	89.5	85.1	83.8	91.1	90.5	90.8
1899.....	88.5	87.5	86.1	82.8	94.1	87.8	112.1	109.7	110.9
1900.....	103.4	106.5	100.6	89.7	101.8	100.4	106.0	103.7	104.9
1901.....	103.0	111.0	101.5	86.8	92.3	98.9	90.4	87.4	88.9
1902.....	103.8	107.3	101.9	87.4	93.4	98.8	96.5	95.1	95.8
1903.....	105.4	107.1	103.9	97.0	102.7	103.2	106.3	102.9	104.6
1904.....	110.2	111.9	109.5	94.7	97.2	104.7	90.8	90.6	90.7
1905.....	102.7	105.2	101.7	96.8	99.4	101.2	98.5	99.3	97.9
1906.....	112.2	115.6	110.9	a 108.0	109.0	111.1	101.6	103.6	102.6
1907.....	153.4	143.7	141.0	a 132.8	116.0	137.4	131.1	125.9	128.5

Year.	Suitsings.							Tickings: Amoskeag A. C. A.
	Clay worsted diagonal, 12-oz., Wash. Mills. (b)	Clay worsted diagonal, 16-oz., Wash. Mills. (b)	Indigo blue, all wool, 54-inch, 14-ounce, Middlesex.	Indigo blue, all wool, 16-ounce.	Serge, Washington Mills 6700. (c)	Trouserings, fancy worsted. (c)	Average.	
1890.....			116.9	109.2			113.1	113.1
1891.....			116.9	109.2			113.1	110.7
1892.....			116.9	109.2	120.9	106.6	113.4	108.4
1893.....			114.0	109.2	120.9	106.6	112.7	111.3
1894.....			111.1	92.3	90.7	98.9	98.3	102.2
1895.....	92.5	93.8	87.1	83.0	90.7	87.9	89.2	94.8
1896.....	89.1	87.6	86.0	89.9	81.6	92.3	87.8	96.0
1897.....	92.2	93.3	79.1	87.4	87.7	92.3	88.7	91.9
1898.....	111.3	111.4	86.0	103.2	99.5	108.9	103.4	84.3
1899.....	114.9	113.9	86.0	107.2	107.7	106.6	106.1	87.0
1900.....	131.4	133.7	86.0	118.4	107.6	117.6	115.8	102.2
1901.....	110.6	111.0	89.6	109.2	106.6	102.2	104.9	95.5
1902.....	110.9	108.6	99.2	109.2	105.1	101.8	105.8	99.0
1903.....	115.2	112.1	108.8	112.6	100.4	104.6	109.0	104.1
1904.....	112.2	109.6	109.1	114.1	102.9	106.2	109.0	114.3
1905.....	132.7	129.3	115.6	119.0	128.1	111.6	122.7	102.1
1906.....	147.5	146.4	129.3	126.2	138.8	120.6	134.8	119.6
1907.....	142.1	139.3	129.3	126.2	139.5	122.3	133.1	126.4

a Williamsville, A. I.

b Average for 1895-1899=100.0.

c Average for 1892-1899=100.0.

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Cloths and clothing.									
	Underwear.			Women's dress goods.						
	Shirts and drawers, white, all wool, etc.	Shirts and drawers, white, merino, 32% wool, etc.	Average.	Alpaca, cotton warp, 22-inch, Hamilton.	Cashmere, all wool, 10-11 twill, 33-in., Atlantic J.	Cashmere, cotton warp, 9-twll, 4-4, Atlantic F.	Cashmere, cotton warp, 22-inch, Hamilton.	Cashmere, cotton warp, 27-inch, Hamilton.	Franklin sackings, 6-4.	Average.
1890....	106.2	106.9	106.6	108.1	119.8	119.3	109.9	111.0	115.3	113.9
1891....	110.0	112.7	111.4	108.1	126.1	119.3	109.9	111.0	119.9	115.7
1892....	110.0	112.7	111.4	106.3	128.2	117.7	108.3	109.6	119.9	115.0
1893....	110.0	112.7	111.4	104.6	111.8	98.4	106.7	106.1	117.6	107.5
1894....	92.7	95.4	94.1	100.9	84.3	88.7	100.3	102.7	96.8	95.6
1895....	92.7	92.5	92.6	93.7	31.0	83.8	97.0	95.8	84.3	89.3
1896....	92.7	92.5	92.6	93.7	67.5	83.6	93.8	93.0	80.7	85.4
1897....	92.7	92.5	92.6	93.7	82.2	90.3	90.5	88.8	82.2	88.0
1898....	92.7	95.4	94.1	93.7	88.6	94.3	90.5	88.8	88.4	90.7
1899....	100.4	86.7	93.6	96.6	110.4	104.8	93.1	93.0	94.9	98.8
1900....	100.4	95.4	97.9	104.6	119.1	108.0	100.3	99.9	118.3	108.4
1901....	100.4	95.4	97.9	104.6	111.3	104.3	100.3	102.7	104.5	104.6
1902....	100.4	95.4	97.9	103.7	111.3	108.0	99.5	102.0	108.3	105.5
1903....	100.4	95.4	97.9	101.5	114.3	110.5	97.8	101.2	114.5	106.6
1904....	100.4	95.4	97.9	112.4	117.7	114.5	106.7	110.5	113.4	112.5
1905....	100.4	95.4	97.9	114.9	128.4	132.7	107.7	121.4	131.0	122.7
1906....	115.8	106.0	110.9	121.6	134.9	141.8	109.6	124.6	133.3	127.6
1907....	115.8	106.0	110.9	124.9	134.9	147.0	110.1	127.8	126.8	128.6

Year.	Wool.			Worsted yarns.			Average, cloths and clothing.
	Ohio, fine fleece (X and XX grade), scoured.	Ohio, medium fleece (1 and 1/2 grade), scoured.	Average.	2-40s, Australian fine.	2-40s, XXX, white, in skeins.	Average.	
1890....	129.5	134.6	132.1	120.4	124.1	122.3	113.5
1891....	124.1	127.5	125.8	121.3	125.4	123.4	111.3
1892....	110.7	115.6	113.2	119.6	114.8	117.2	109.0
1893....	102.0	101.2	101.6	111.4	107.6	109.5	107.2
1894....	80.5	77.6	79.1	91.3	91.2	91.3	96.1
1895....	68.2	71.9	70.1	72.9	75.1	74.0	92.7
1896....	71.3	69.8	70.6	71.2	74.5	72.9	91.3
1897....	89.7	87.6	88.7	83.6	81.3	82.5	91.1
1898....	111.3	105.3	108.3	101.2	99.7	100.5	93.4
1899....	112.8	108.8	110.8	107.1	106.3	106.7	96.7
1900....	119.3	116.0	117.7	118.3	118.5	118.4	106.8
1901....	98.7	94.5	96.6	102.2	102.1	102.2	101.0
1902....	104.4	97.2	100.8	110.3	113.1	111.7	102.0
1903....	118.5	102.1	110.3	115.6	120.4	118.0	106.6
1904....	124.2	106.7	115.5	116.6	116.3	116.5	109.8
1905....	137.4	117.2	127.3	123.0	126.4	124.7	112.0
1906....	129.9	112.3	121.1	127.0	130.0	128.5	120.0
1907....	129.9	113.0	121.5	127.3	128.4	127.9	126.7

^a Danish cloth, cotton warp and filling, 22-inch. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328.
^b Poplar cloth, cotton warp and filling, 36-inch. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328.
^c Cashmere, cotton warp, 36-inch, Hamilton. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328.
^d Designated as XXXX.

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TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Fuel and lighting.										Average.
	Candles: adaman-tine, 6s, 14-oz.	Coal.									
		Anthracite.					Bituminous.				
		Bro-ken.	Chest-nut.	Egg.	Stove.	Aver-age.	Georges Creek (at mine).	Georges Creek (L. o. b. N. Y. Harbor).	Pitts-burg (Yough-io-gheny).	Aver-age.	
1890.....	102.3	103.5	93.3	100.6	97.8	98.8	97.1	108.9	103.3	103.1	100.6
1891.....	102.3	102.3	96.7	104.4	101.6	98.8	106.9	110.5	122.7	113.4	106.4
1892.....	102.3	107.4	109.7	110.8	109.4	98.8	101.3	106.9	116.5	108.2	108.9
1893.....	112.9	105.8	115.9	107.2	110.5	98.8	103.6	107.6	117.9	109.7	109.8
1894.....	110.9	101.5	98.5	94.3	94.9	98.8	92.4	99.8	98.6	96.9	97.1
1895.....	108.7	97.5	82.9	84.3	82.4	86.8	87.2	102.5	93.3	94.3	90.0
1896.....	108.7	97.1	98.9	98.8	100.0	98.7	101.3	97.1	89.1	95.8	97.5
1897.....	95.3	96.4	103.9	105.7	105.8	103.0	93.8	80.0	88.6	90.5	97.6
1898.....	78.4	95.4	98.8	100.2	100.1	98.6	102.7	79.3	87.9	90.0	94.9
1899.....	78.4	93.1	101.4	93.8	97.6	96.5	113.9	98.4	82.6	98.3	97.3
1900.....	135.4	97.1	108.9	99.7	104.0	102.4	135.0	106.0	117.0	119.3	109.7
1901.....	140.7	105.5	120.4	112.9	113.9	113.2	150.5	106.6	117.0	124.7	118.1
1902.....	140.7	110.4	124.0	121.5	117.6	118.4	239.1	148.0	122.4	169.8	140.4
1903.....	127.4	126.2	134.2	134.3	127.1	130.5	209.6	161.8	143.9	191.8	156.7
1904.....	115.1	126.1	134.2	134.2	127.1	130.4	196.9	116.5	132.5	148.6	138.2
1905.....	109.7	125.1	134.1	134.3	127.1	130.2	180.0	114.8	124.4	139.7	134.3
1906.....	98.0	124.8	135.2	135.3	128.1	130.9	174.4	*113.9	122.7	*137.0	*133.5
1907.....	94.8	124.9	134.1	134.2	127.1	130.1	173.0	118.0	128.1	139.7	134.2

Year.	Coke: Connel-lisville, furnace.	Matches: parlor, domestic.	Petroleum.				Average, fuel and lighting.	
			Crude.	Refined.		Average.		
				For export.	150° fire test, w. w.			
1890.....	122.7	111.5	95.4	112.9	111.8	112.4	106.7	104.7
1891.....	110.4	99.6	73.6	105.5	98.8	102.2	92.6	102.7
1892.....	106.5	99.6	61.1	93.8	89.2	81.4	91.5	101.1
1893.....	87.1	99.6	70.3	80.4	81.5	81.0	77.4	100.0
1894.....	62.3	94.9	92.2	79.4	81.5	80.5	84.4	92.4
1895.....	78.0	96.1	149.2	109.6	103.6	106.6	120.8	98.1
1896.....	110.4	99.6	129.5	108.2	116.7	112.5	118.1	104.3
1897.....	95.2	99.6	86.5	92.0	101.1	96.6	93.2	96.4
1898.....	98.8	99.6	100.2	96.8	102.1	99.5	99.7	95.4
1899.....	128.7	99.6	142.1	121.9	114.0	118.0	126.0	105.0
1900.....	155.8	99.6	148.5	131.6	133.5	132.6	137.9	120.9
1901.....	115.6	99.6	132.9	115.4	123.1	119.3	123.8	119.5
1902.....	158.2	90.1	135.9	113.1	124.5	118.8	124.5	134.3
1903.....	171.5	85.4	174.5	132.5	153.1	142.8	153.4	149.3
1904.....	96.4	85.4	178.8	127.3	153.6	140.5	153.2	132.6
1905.....	134.7	85.4	132.1	111.2	141.9	126.6	135.1	128.8
1906.....	157.5	85.4	175.5	117.4	146.1	131.8	146.3	*131.9
1907.....	166.3	85.4	190.5	127.0	151.2	139.1	156.2	135.0

* These figures are correct; those for 1906 in Bulletin No. 69 were slightly in error.

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Metals and implements.												
Year.	Bar iron.			Barb wire: galvanized.	Builders' hardware.				Copper.			
	From mill (Pittsburg market).	From store (Phila. market).	Average.		Butts: loose joint, cast, 3 x 3 in.	Door-knobs: steel, bronze plated.	Locks: common mortise.	Average.	Ingot, lake.	Sheet, hot-rolled (base sizes).	Wire, bare.	Average.
1890....	126.9	125.0	126.0	141.2	111.7	97.8	101.6	103.7	127.6	137.1	128.1	130.9
1891....	117.9	115.9	116.9	127.4	111.7	97.8	101.6	103.7	105.8	114.5	112.7	111.0
1892....	113.1	114.0	113.6	109.5	96.8	97.8	101.6	98.7	93.5	96.4	98.2	96.0
1893....	103.4	103.7	103.6	99.7	98.4	97.8	101.6	99.3	88.6	90.4	92.2	90.4
1894....	82.8	81.7	82.3	86.1	95.9	97.8	100.1	97.9	76.8	85.9	79.0	80.6
1895....	86.2	87.8	87.0	88.9	100.3	115.1	102.0	105.8	87.1	85.9	84.6	85.9
1896....	84.1	85.4	84.8	77.7	104.1	102.1	106.1	104.1	88.9	85.0	92.6	89.1
1897....	75.9	79.9	77.9	71.3	96.8	97.8	102.0	98.9	91.7	88.2	93.9	91.3
1898....	73.8	78.0	75.9	72.7	92.4	97.8	91.8	94.0	96.8	84.4	93.9	91.7
1899....	134.5	126.2	130.4	125.5	92.4	97.8	91.8	94.0	143.2	131.1	124.7	133.0
1900....	148.3	119.5	133.9	134.4	126.6	106.8	96.5	110.0	134.6	124.6	123.0	127.4
1901....	124.1	112.2	118.2	120.2	116.8	112.0	91.8	106.9	136.7	125.0	124.0	128.9
1902....	133.8	129.9	131.9	116.9	126.6	126.9	104.0	119.2	97.3	107.5	90.6	98.5
1903....	122.1	122.0	122.1	108.4	126.6	132.6	119.2	123.1	110.9	115.6	102.3	109.6
1904....	102.1	104.9	103.5	99.3	126.6	144.8	125.5	132.3	106.2	108.5	98.2	104.3
1905....	129.0	117.1	123.1	94.3	126.6	213.6	183.1	174.4	127.7	120.1	116.3	121.4
1906....	126.8	120.7	123.8	96.1	126.6	259.8	221.3	202.6	158.9	143.2	144.0	148.7
1907....	131.3	128.7	130.0	104.3	126.6	265.2	244.8	212.2	172.2	168.3	164.1	168.2

Metals and implements.										
Year.	Lead: pig.	Lead pipe.	Nails.			Pig iron.				
			Cut, 8-penny, fence and common.	Wire, 8-penny, fence and common.	Average.	Bessemer.	Foundry No. 1.	Foundry No. 2.	Gray forge, southern, coke.	Average.
1890....	115.5	112.1	125.2	137.1	131.2	137.0	124.3	131.4	130.8	130.9
1891....	114.7	116.2	100.3	114.1	107.2	115.8	118.4	117.9	112.9	116.3
1892....	108.4	107.6	96.2	101.3	98.8	104.3	106.4	103.5	106.3	105.6
1893....	98.2	103.8	92.0	92.1	93.4	98.1	95.3	95.9	95.7	95.7
1894....	86.9	92.0	83.6	76.4	80.0	82.6	85.5	83.1	80.6	83.0
1895....	85.6	87.2	105.3	98.0	101.7	92.3	88.5	89.4	93.1	90.8
1896....	78.7	85.1	148.4	135.3	141.9	88.1	87.5	90.2	86.6	88.1
1897....	94.0	89.6	72.9	68.7	70.8	73.5	81.7	77.4	79.4	78.0
1898....	90.7	95.5	65.3	66.5	65.9	75.0	78.8	76.8	78.6	77.3
1899....	117.6	111.0	110.8	110.4	110.6	138.1	130.8	132.9	135.8	134.4
1900....	116.8	106.3	123.1	121.8	122.5	141.5	135.0	141.8	140.7	139.8
1901....	115.0	104.8	115.6	109.4	112.5	115.7	107.2	112.8	112.2	112.2
1902....	107.9	108.3	116.7	97.3	107.0	150.0	149.9	162.7	158.8	155.4
1903....	112.3	107.8	120.2	96.0	108.1	137.7	134.5	146.6	146.4	141.3
1904....	116.3	99.5	99.5	88.2	93.9	99.8	105.2	104.4	105.3	103.7
1905....	125.7	108.4	99.9	87.7	93.8	118.7	120.8	125.7	130.7	124.0
1906....	154.3	133.3	105.7	90.6	98.2	141.8	141.7	147.6	149.1	145.1
1907....	144.9	130.2	118.3	97.9	108.1	165.8	161.4	182.9	180.3	174.9

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Metals and implements.									
	Quick-silver.	Silver: bar, fine.	Spelter: western.	Steel billets.	Steel rails.	Steel sheets: black, No. 27. ^(a)	Tin: pig.	Tin plates.		
								Domestic, Bessemer, coke, 14x20. ^(b)	Imported, Bessemer, coke, I.C., 14x20. ^(c)	Average.
1890.....	130.5	140.6	122.6	141.5	121.9	115.5	104.6	104.6
1891.....	112.3	132.2	112.4	117.7	114.8	110.3	116.4	116.4
1892.....	100.9	116.9	102.9	109.8	115.1	110.9	115.7	115.7
1893.....	93.2	104.4	90.7	94.9	107.9	109.0	117.1	117.1
1894.....	85.7	85.5	78.5	77.0	92.1	104.9	98.7	106.7	106.7
1895.....	91.8	88.5	80.1	85.9	93.4	108.9	76.5	84.4	84.4
1896.....	89.0	91.0	88.7	87.5	107.4	96.0	72.4	100.6	82.9	91.8
1897.....	92.2	81.1	93.1	70.1	71.9	87.1	74.0	93.2	85.1	89.2
1898.....	97.0	78.9	100.2	71.1	67.6	84.8	84.5	83.5	87.2	85.4
1899.....	107.3	80.8	130.1	144.6	107.9	119.2	148.2	122.7	(d)	122.7
1900.....	121.0	82.9	97.8	116.4	123.9	130.8	163.7	137.0	(d)	137.0
1901.....	118.5	79.7	89.6	112.1	104.9	140.6	142.6	122.7	(d)	122.7
1902.....	115.5	70.5	107.7	142.1	107.4	129.9	144.2	120.7	(d)	120.7
1903.....	113.4	72.4	123.5	129.7	107.4	116.1	153.4	115.4	(d)	115.4
1904.....	105.5	77.2	113.9	103.0	107.4	93.8	152.5	105.5	(d)	105.5
1905.....	97.4	81.5	131.0	111.6	107.4	99.1	170.3	108.5	(d)	108.5
1906.....	98.6	90.0	137.2	127.5	107.4	105.8	213.6	113.1	(d)	113.1
1907.....	97.1	88.1	136.5	135.9	107.4	111.6	211.1	119.8	(d)	119.8

Year.	Tools.								
	Augers: extra, 1-inch.	Axes: M. C. O., Yankee.	Chisels: extra, socket firmer, 1-inch.	Files: 8-inch mill bastard.	Hammers: Maydole No. 14.	Planes: Bailey No. 5.	Saws.		Average.
							Crosscut, Disston.	Hand, Disston No. 7.	
1890.....	118.2	120.4	110.9	106.7	96.9	107.4	100.0	112.7	106.4
1891.....	118.2	118.3	110.9	104.6	96.9	107.4	100.0	98.6	99.3
1892.....	118.2	106.5	110.9	102.2	96.9	107.4	100.0	98.6	99.3
1893.....	111.9	106.5	102.1	101.6	96.9	107.4	100.0	98.6	99.3
1894.....	95.9	100.9	91.5	97.3	97.6	104.3	100.0	98.6	99.3
1895.....	82.9	98.0	90.3	95.4	97.6	104.3	100.0	98.6	99.3
1896.....	86.7	88.4	94.7	91.2	105.2	93.9	100.0	98.6	99.3
1897.....	88.6	83.9	90.3	94.4	105.2	93.0	100.0	98.6	99.3
1898.....	88.6	79.9	90.8	96.8	100.6	93.0	100.0	98.6	99.3
1899.....	91.1	97.1	107.6	109.7	107.0	93.0	100.0	98.6	99.3
1900.....	124.4	102.9	127.6	127.8	115.9	107.0	100.0	98.6	99.3
1901.....	105.7	88.8	121.4	123.1	117.2	110.4	100.0	98.6	99.3
1902.....	111.9	103.0	142.6	123.1	117.2	114.2	100.0	98.6	99.3
1903.....	143.7	107.6	147.8	123.1	129.0	115.7	100.0	98.6	99.3
1904.....	149.3	123.3	158.4	122.0	129.0	115.7	100.0	98.6	99.3
1905.....	190.7	134.7	209.5	121.6	129.0	115.7	100.0	98.6	99.3
1906.....	221.8	143.1	221.1	119.8	129.0	129.3	100.0	101.3	100.7
1907.....	223.9	144.9	234.3	117.0	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7

^a Average for the period July, 1894, to December, 1899=100.0.^b Average for 1896-1899=100.0.^c Average for 1890-1898=100.0.^d Quotations discontinued.

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—
Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Metals and implements.						
	Tools.				Wood screws: 1-inch, No. 10, flat head.	Zinc: sheet.	Average, metals and implements.
	Shovels: Ames No. 2.	Trowels: M. C. O., brick, 10½-inch.	Vises: solid box, 50-pound.	Average.			
1890....	100.1	100.0	106.1	107.2	130.5	114.0	119.2
1891....	100.1	100.0	106.1	105.6	132.5	107.7	111.7
1892....	100.1	100.0	109.1	104.5	139.1	103.4	106.0
1893....	100.1	100.0	107.6	103.0	139.1	94.0	100.7
1894....	94.7	100.0	104.0	98.6	103.2	74.4	90.7
1895....	94.7	100.0	97.2	95.3	74.0	85.1	92.0
1896....	99.3	100.0	95.4	95.7	68.4	93.0	93.7
1897....	100.8	100.0	89.7	95.0	56.3	93.0	86.6
1898....	100.8	100.0	84.1	93.9	60.8	103.5	86.4
1899....	109.4	100.0	100.7	101.3	96.2	131.9	114.7
1900....	115.9	100.0	109.4	111.8	120.5	114.8	120.5
1901....	115.9	100.0	128.7	110.0	69.2	104.7	111.9
1902....	118.9	100.0	131.5	114.6	63.0	107.9	117.2
1903....	102.0	100.0	132.7	118.2	72.4	113.3	117.6
1904....	97.3	100.0	109.1	118.4	62.6	105.6	109.6
1905....	96.9	100.0	106.1	127.5	69.9	128.5	122.5
1906....	96.9	100.0	115.9	134.4	69.9	135.0	135.2
1907....	99.7	100.0	147.4	115.7	80.7	140.9	143.4

Year.	Lumber and building materials.							
	Brick: common domestic.	Carbonate of lead: American, in oil.	Cement.			Doors: pine.	Lime: common.	Linsced oil: raw.
			Portland, domestic. ^a	Rosendale.	Average.			
1890....	118.0	110.6	118.8	118.8	125.8	117.5	135.8
1891....	102.6	112.7	106.2	106.2	114.4	109.5	106.8
1892....	103.7	114.0	109.2	109.2	114.4	111.5	90.0
1893....	104.9	105.5	100.0	100.0	112.1	111.5	102.2
1894....	89.9	90.8	104.5	104.5	96.1	101.8	115.6
1895....	95.5	91.0	98.6	96.1	97.4	83.5	93.8	115.6
1896....	91.0	89.6	100.2	93.9	97.1	70.6	83.3	81.2
1897....	88.8	92.7	98.5	84.8	91.7	74.3	80.3	72.2
1898....	103.4	94.1	100.1	85.7	92.9	84.6	89.0	86.5
1899....	102.2	98.4	102.6	100.8	101.7	118.2	95.8	94.1
1900....	94.4	108.3	108.1	114.6	111.4	145.5	82.0	138.7
1901....	103.7	99.8	94.7	114.8	104.8	173.1	92.9	140.0
1902....	96.8	93.4	97.7	97.5	97.6	194.1	96.7	130.8
1903....	106.2	106.6	101.6	100.3	101.0	158.2	94.5	91.9
1904....	134.7	103.6	73.2	90.4	81.8	154.6	99.0	91.7
1905....	145.7	109.7	71.5	93.9	82.7	163.2	106.9	103.1
1906....	153.7	119.6	78.9	107.1	93.0	153.5	113.7	89.3
1907....	110.7	120.8	82.4	107.1	94.8	167.5	113.9	95.7

^a Average for 1895-1899=100.0.

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Metals and implements.							Tin plates.		
	Quick-silver.	Silver: bar, fine.	Spelter: western.	Steel billets.	Steel rails.	Steel sheets: black, No. 27. ^(a)	Tin: pig.	Domestic, Bessemer, coke, 14x20. ^(b)	Imported, Bessemer, coke, 1.C., 14x20. ^(c)	Average.
1890.....	130.5	140.6	122.6	141.5	121.9	115.5	104.6	104.6
1891.....	112.3	132.2	112.4	117.7	114.8	110.3	116.4	116.4
1892.....	100.9	116.9	102.9	109.8	115.1	110.9	115.7	115.7
1893.....	93.2	104.4	90.7	94.9	107.9	109.0	117.1	117.1
1894.....	85.7	85.5	78.5	77.0	92.1	104.9	106.7	106.7
1895.....	91.8	88.5	80.1	85.9	93.4	108.9	84.4	84.4
1896.....	89.0	91.0	88.7	87.5	107.4	96.0	82.9	82.9
1897.....	92.2	81.1	93.1	70.1	71.9	87.1	85.1	85.1
1898.....	97.0	78.9	100.2	71.1	67.6	84.8	87.2	87.2
1899.....	107.3	80.8	130.1	144.6	107.9	110.2	122.7	122.7
1900.....	121.0	82.9	97.8	116.4	123.9	130.8	(d)	137.0
1901.....	118.5	79.7	89.6	112.1	104.9	140.6	(d)	122.7
1902.....	115.5	70.5	107.7	142.1	107.4	129.9	(d)	120.7
1903.....	113.4	72.4	123.5	129.7	107.4	116.1	(d)	115.4
1904.....	105.5	77.2	113.9	103.0	107.4	93.8	(d)	105.5
1905.....	97.4	81.5	131.0	111.6	107.4	99.1	(d)	108.5
1906.....	98.6	90.0	137.2	127.5	107.4	105.8	(d)	113.1
1907.....	97.1	88.1	136.5	135.9	107.4	111.6	(d)	119.8

Year.	Tools.							Saws.		
	Augers: extra, 1/4-inch.	Axes: M. C. O., Yankee.	Chisels: extra, socket firmer, 1-inch.	Files: 8-inch mill bastard.	Hammers: Maydole No. 1 1/2.	Planes: Bailey No. 5.	Crosscut, Disston.	Hand, Disston No. 7.	Average.	
1890.....	118.2	120.4	110.9	106.7	96.9	107.4	100.0	112.7	106.4	
1891.....	118.2	118.3	110.9	104.6	96.9	107.4	100.0	98.6	99.3	
1892.....	118.2	106.5	110.9	102.2	96.9	107.4	100.0	98.6	99.3	
1893.....	111.9	106.5	102.1	101.6	96.9	107.4	100.0	98.6	99.3	
1894.....	95.9	100.9	91.5	97.3	97.6	93.9	100.0	98.6	99.3	
1895.....	82.9	98.0	90.3	95.4	91.2	105.2	93.0	100.0	98.6	
1896.....	86.7	88.4	94.7	91.2	105.2	93.0	100.0	98.6	99.3	
1897.....	88.6	83.9	90.3	94.4	100.6	93.0	100.0	98.6	99.3	
1898.....	88.6	79.9	90.8	96.8	107.0	93.0	100.0	98.6	99.3	
1899.....	91.1	97.1	107.6	109.7	115.9	107.0	100.0	98.6	99.3	
1900.....	124.4	102.9	127.6	127.8	117.2	110.4	100.0	98.6	99.3	
1901.....	105.7	88.8	121.4	123.1	117.2	114.2	100.0	98.6	99.3	
1902.....	111.9	103.0	142.6	123.1	129.0	115.7	100.0	98.6	99.3	
1903.....	143.7	107.6	147.8	123.1	129.0	115.7	100.0	98.6	99.3	
1904.....	149.3	123.3	158.4	122.0	129.0	115.7	100.0	98.6	99.3	
1905.....	190.7	154.7	209.5	121.6	129.0	115.7	100.0	98.6	99.3	
1906.....	221.8	143.1	221.1	119.8	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7	
1907.....	223.9	144.9	234.3	117.0	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7	

^a Average for the period July, 1894, to December, 1899=100.0.^b Average for 1896-1899=100.0.^c Average for 1890-1898=100.0.^d Quotations discontinued.

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Metals and implements.						
	Tools.				Wood screws: 1-inch, No. 10, flat head.	Zinc: sheet.	Average, metals and implements.
	Shovels: Ames No. 2.	Trowels: M. C. O., brick, 10½-inch.	Vises: solid box, 50-pound.	Average.			
1890....	100.1	100.0	106.1	107.2	130.5	114.0	119.2
1891....	100.1	100.0	106.1	105.6	132.5	107.7	111.7
1892....	100.1	100.0	109.1	104.5	139.1	103.4	106.0
1893....	100.1	100.0	107.6	103.0	139.1	94.0	100.7
1894....	94.7	100.0	104.0	98.6	103.2	74.4	90.7
1895....	94.7	100.0	97.2	95.3	74.0	85.1	92.0
1896....	99.3	100.0	95.4	95.7	68.4	93.0	93.7
1897....	100.8	100.0	89.7	95.0	56.3	93.0	86.6
1898....	100.8	100.0	84.1	93.9	60.8	103.5	86.4
1899....	109.4	100.0	100.7	101.3	96.2	131.9	114.7
1900....	115.9	100.0	109.4	111.8	120.5	114.8	120.5
1901....	115.9	100.0	128.7	110.0	69.2	104.7	111.9
1902....	118.9	100.0	131.5	114.6	63.0	107.9	117.2
1903....	102.0	100.0	132.7	118.2	72.4	113.3	117.6
1904....	97.3	100.0	109.1	118.4	62.6	105.6	109.6
1905....	96.9	100.0	106.1	127.5	69.9	128.5	122.5
1906....	96.9	100.0	115.9	134.4	69.9	135.0	135.2
1907....	99.7	100.0	147.4	115.7	80.7	140.9	143.4

Year.	Lumber and building materials.							
	Brick: common domestic.	Carbonate of lead: American, in oil.	Cement.			Doors: pine.	Lime: common.	Linseed oil: raw.
			Portland, domestic. ^a	Rosendale.	Average.			
1890....	118.0	110.6	118.8	118.8	125.8	117.5	135.8
1891....	102.6	112.7	106.2	106.2	114.4	109.5	106.8
1892....	103.7	114.0	109.2	109.2	114.4	111.5	90.0
1893....	104.9	105.5	100.0	100.0	112.1	111.5	102.2
1894....	89.9	90.8	104.5	104.5	96.1	101.8	115.6
1895....	95.5	91.0	96.1	97.4	83.5	93.8	115.6
1896....	91.0	89.6	93.9	97.1	76.6	83.3	81.2
1897....	88.8	92.7	84.8	91.7	74.3	86.3	72.2
1898....	103.4	94.1	85.7	92.9	84.6	89.0	86.5
1899....	102.2	98.4	100.8	101.7	118.2	95.8	94.1
1900....	94.4	108.3	114.6	111.4	145.5	82.0	138.7
1901....	103.7	99.8	114.8	104.8	173.1	92.9	140.0
1902....	96.8	93.4	97.7	97.6	194.1	96.7	130.8
1903....	106.2	106.6	100.3	101.0	158.2	94.5	91.9
1904....	134.7	103.6	90.4	81.8	154.6	99.0	91.7
1905....	145.7	109.7	93.9	82.7	163.2	106.9	103.1
1906....	153.7	119.6	107.1	93.0	153.5	113.7	89.3
1907....	110.7	120.8	107.1	94.8	167.5	113.9	95.7

^a Average for 1895-1899=100.0.

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Metals and Implements.							Tin plates.		
	Quick-silver.	Silver: bar, fine.	Spelter: western.	Steel billets.	Steel rolls.	Steel sheets: black, No. 27. (a)	Tin: pig.	Domestic, Bessemer, coke, 14x20. (b)	Imported, Bessemer, coke, I. C., 14x20. (c)	Average.
1890.....	130.5	140.6	122.6	141.5	121.9	115.5	104.6	104.6
1891.....	112.3	132.2	112.4	117.7	114.8	110.3	116.4	116.4
1892.....	100.9	116.9	102.9	109.8	115.1	110.9	115.7	115.7
1893.....	93.2	104.4	90.7	94.9	107.9	109.0	117.1	117.1
1894.....	85.7	85.5	78.5	77.0	92.1	104.9	98.7	106.7	106.7
1895.....	91.8	88.5	80.1	85.9	93.4	108.9	76.5	84.4	84.4
1896.....	89.0	91.0	88.7	87.5	107.4	96.0	72.4	100.6	82.9	91.3
1897.....	92.2	81.1	93.1	70.1	71.9	87.1	74.0	93.2	85.1	89.2
1898.....	97.0	78.9	100.2	71.1	67.6	84.8	84.5	83.5	87.2	85.4
1899.....	107.3	80.8	130.1	144.6	107.9	119.2	148.2	122.7	(d)	122.7
1900.....	121.0	82.9	97.8	116.4	123.9	130.8	163.7	137.0	(d)	137.0
1901.....	118.5	79.7	89.6	112.1	104.9	140.6	142.6	122.7	(d)	122.7
1902.....	115.5	70.5	107.7	142.1	107.4	129.9	144.2	120.7	(d)	120.7
1903.....	113.4	72.4	123.5	129.7	107.4	116.1	153.4	115.4	(d)	115.4
1904.....	105.5	77.2	113.9	103.0	107.4	93.8	152.5	105.5	(d)	105.5
1905.....	97.4	81.5	131.0	111.6	107.4	99.1	170.3	108.5	(d)	108.5
1906.....	98.6	90.0	137.2	127.5	107.4	105.8	213.6	113.1	(d)	113.1
1907.....	97.1	88.1	136.5	135.9	107.4	111.6	211.1	119.8	(d)	119.8

Year.	Tools.						Saws.		
	Augers: extra, 1/2-inch.	Axes: M. C. O., Yankee.	Chisels: extra, socket firmer, 1-inch.	Files: 8-inch mill bastard.	Hammers: Maydole No. 14.	Planes: Bailey No. 5.	Crosscut, Disston.	Hand, Disston No. 7.	Average.
1890.....	118.2	120.4	110.9	106.7	96.9	107.4	100.0	112.7	106.4
1891.....	118.2	118.3	110.9	104.6	96.9	107.4	100.0	98.6	99.3
1892.....	118.2	106.5	110.9	102.2	96.9	107.4	100.0	98.6	99.3
1893.....	111.9	106.5	102.1	101.6	96.9	107.4	100.0	98.6	99.3
1894.....	95.9	100.9	91.5	97.3	96.9	104.3	100.0	98.6	99.3
1895.....	82.9	98.0	90.5	95.4	97.6	93.9	100.0	98.6	99.3
1896.....	86.7	88.4	94.7	91.2	105.2	93.0	100.0	98.6	99.3
1897.....	85.6	83.9	90.3	94.4	105.2	93.0	100.0	98.6	99.3
1898.....	88.6	79.9	90.8	96.8	100.6	93.0	100.0	98.6	99.3
1899.....	91.1	97.1	107.6	109.7	107.0	93.0	100.0	98.6	99.3
1900.....	124.4	102.9	127.6	127.8	115.9	107.0	100.0	98.6	99.3
1901.....	105.7	88.8	121.4	123.1	117.2	110.4	100.0	98.6	99.3
1902.....	111.9	103.0	142.6	123.1	117.2	114.2	100.0	98.6	99.3
1903.....	143.7	107.6	147.8	123.1	129.0	115.7	100.0	98.6	99.3
1904.....	149.3	123.3	158.4	122.0	129.0	115.7	100.0	98.6	99.3
1905.....	190.7	134.7	209.5	121.6	129.0	115.7	100.0	98.6	99.3
1906.....	221.8	143.1	221.1	119.8	129.0	129.3	100.0	101.3	100.7
1907.....	223.9	144.9	234.3	117.0	129.0	115.7	100.0	101.3	100.7

a Average for the period July, 1894, to December, 1899=100.0.

b Average for 1896-1899=100.0.

c Average for 1890-1898=100.0.

d Quotations discontinued.

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Metals and implements.							
Year.	Tools.				Wood screws: 1-inch, No. 10, flat head.	Zinc: sheet.	Average, metals and implements.
	Shovels: Ames No. 2.	Trowels: M. C. O., brick, 10½-inch.	Vises: solid box, 50-pound.	Average.			
1890....	100.1	100.0	106.1	107.2	130.5	114.0	119.2
1891....	100.1	100.0	106.1	105.6	132.5	107.7	111.7
1892....	100.1	100.0	109.1	104.5	139.1	103.4	106.0
1893....	100.1	100.0	107.6	103.0	139.1	94.0	100.7
1894....	94.7	100.0	104.0	98.6	103.2	74.4	90.7
1895....	94.7	100.0	97.2	95.3	74.0	85.1	92.0
1896....	99.3	100.0	95.4	95.7	68.4	93.0	93.7
1897....	100.8	100.0	89.7	95.0	56.3	93.0	86.6
1898....	100.8	100.0	84.1	93.9	60.8	103.5	86.4
1899....	109.4	100.0	100.7	101.3	96.2	131.9	114.7
1900....	115.9	100.0	109.4	111.8	120.5	114.8	120.5
1901....	115.9	100.0	128.7	110.0	69.2	104.7	111.9
1902....	118.9	100.0	131.5	114.6	63.0	107.9	117.2
1903....	102.0	100.0	132.7	118.2	72.4	113.3	117.6
1904....	97.3	100.0	109.1	118.4	62.6	105.6	109.6
1905....	96.9	100.0	106.1	127.5	69.9	128.5	122.5
1906....	96.9	100.0	115.9	134.4	69.9	135.0	135.2
1907....	99.7	100.0	147.4	115.7	80.7	140.9	143.4

Lumber and building materials.								
Year.	Brick: common domestic.	Carbonate of lead: American, in oil.	Cement.			Doors: pine.	Lime: common.	Linseed oil: raw.
			Portland, domestic, ^a	Rosendale.	Average.			
1890....	118.0	110.6	118.8	118.8	125.8	117.5	135.8
1891....	102.6	112.7	106.2	106.2	114.4	109.5	106.8
1892....	103.7	114.0	109.2	109.2	114.4	111.5	90.0
1893....	104.9	105.5	100.0	100.0	112.1	111.5	102.2
1894....	89.9	90.8	104.5	104.5	96.1	101.8	115.6
1895....	95.5	91.0	98.6	96.1	97.4	93.8	115.6
1896....	91.0	89.6	100.2	93.9	97.1	76.6	81.2
1897....	88.8	92.7	98.5	84.8	91.7	74.3	72.2
1898....	103.4	94.1	100.1	85.7	92.9	84.6	89.0
1899....	102.2	98.4	102.6	100.8	101.7	118.2	95.8
1900....	94.4	108.3	108.1	114.6	111.4	145.5	82.0
1901....	103.7	99.8	94.7	114.8	104.8	173.1	92.9
1902....	96.8	93.4	97.7	97.5	97.6	194.1	96.7
1903....	106.2	106.6	101.6	100.3	101.0	158.2	94.5
1904....	134.7	103.6	73.2	90.4	81.8	154.6	99.0
1905....	145.7	109.7	71.5	93.9	82.7	163.2	106.9
1906....	153.7	119.6	78.9	107.1	93.0	153.5	113.7
1907....	110.7	120.8	82.4	107.1	94.8	167.5	113.9

^a Average for 1895-1899=100.0.

LETIN OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR.

1907—YE

RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—
Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Lumber and building materials.										
Year.	Hem- lock.	Maple: hard.	Oak: white.			Pine.				
			Platn.	Quar- tered.	Aver- age.	White, boards.			Yellow.	Average.
						No. 2 barn.	Uppers.	Aver- age.		
1890....	105.2	100.0	101.2	95.9	98.6	98.1	94.7	96.4	112.4	101.7
1891....	104.1	100.0	101.5	99.8	100.7	99.4	96.7	98.1	108.1	101.4
1892....	102.8	100.0	102.7	98.7	100.7	100.2	98.9	99.6	100.2	99.8
1893....	100.3	100.0	103.5	98.7	101.1	108.9	104.2	106.6	100.2	104.4
1894....	97.9	100.0	99.5	95.2	97.4	108.2	99.7	103.0	100.2	102.0
1895....	93.2	100.0	96.8	99.2	98.0	109.8	98.8	99.8	91.6	97.1
1896....	93.3	100.0	96.8	101.5	99.2	96.4	180.2	98.3	88.9	95.2
1897....	92.0	100.0	96.8	100.3	98.6	92.5	99.5	96.0	89.0	93.7
1898....	98.2	100.0	96.8	97.8	97.3	98.6	99.0	94.8	100.9	96.8
1899....	113.0	100.1	104.1	112.7	108.4	106.9	108.4	107.7	108.5	107.9
1900....	137.9	103.8	109.1	120.1	114.6	125.7	123.5	124.6	112.2	130.5
1901....	125.4	100.8	98.2	110.2	104.2	122.0	129.8	125.9	106.5	119.4
1902....	132.4	107.8	109.2	117.5	113.4	137.3	160.7	149.0	113.7	137.2
1903....	140.4	119.5	119.8	139.3	129.6	140.3	171.8	156.1	113.7	141.9
1904....	142.1	117.0	124.2	150.4	137.3	134.4	174.0	154.2	116.0	141.5
1905....	149.4	115.1	126.5	149.5	138.0	141.2	176.1	158.7	134.9	159.7
1906....	183.0	117.0	134.7	147.5	141.1	173.9	182.0	178.0	158.9	171.6
1907....	186.0	121.7	147.5	149.0	148.3	195.7	200.2	198.0	165.2	187.0

Year.	Lumber.			Oxide of zinc.	Plate glass: polished.			Putty.	Resin: good, strained.
	Poplar.	Spruce.	Average.		Area 3 to 5 sq. ft.	Area 5 to 10 sq. ft.	Average.		
1890....	97.2	113.5	102.0	106.3	140.0	134.9	140.5	110.8	96.1
1891....	97.2	99.1	100.7	104.8	143.3	132.9	138.1	110.8	102.4
1892....	97.6	103.5	100.5	106.5	115.7	106.0	110.9	101.9	93.2
1893....	107.2	96.0	102.1	103.3	115.7	106.0	110.9	101.3	87.6
1894....	101.2	88.6	98.7	93.3	90.9	86.7	88.8	99.4	86.9
1895....	98.8	99.3	97.6	87.5	82.6	92.5	87.6	91.8	108.4
1896....	98.8	99.3	97.2	95.8	93.7	104.0	98.9	91.8	121.2
1897....	97.8	97.6	96.2	94.3	55.1	61.7	58.4	91.8	112.0
1898....	95.6	95.8	97.2	99.0	74.4	82.9	78.7	91.8	98.7
1899....	108.6	107.3	107.7	109.5	82.6	92.5	87.6	106.3	93.5
1900....	129.2	121.1	119.3	112.8	93.7	104.0	98.9	120.3	111.2
1901....	117.0	125.4	115.0	109.5	88.2	94.4	91.3	94.9	106.3
1902....	134.2	134.2	127.4	110.0	70.9	79.2	75.1	121.5	112.0
1903....	158.3	133.7	137.4	115.8	72.3	83.1	77.7	89.2	153.9
1904....	160.5	142.9	140.2	115.8	62.7	70.3	66.5	69.6	196.8
1905....	153.7	149.3	144.0	116.3	66.3	71.8	69.1	69.0	237.7
1906....	162.5	178.0	159.7	127.0	76.1	77.7	76.9	75.3	278.8
1907....	183.2	167.3	168.6	134.5	77.2	80.1	78.7	75.9	304.0

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	Lumber and building materials.								Average, lumber and building materials.
	Shingles.			Tar.	Turpen- tine: spirits of.	Window glass: American, single.			
	Cypress.	White pine.	Average.			Firsts, 6 x 8 to 10 x 15 inch.	Thirds, 6 x 8 to 10 x 15 inch.	Average.	
1890....	118.7	102.6	110.7	122.4	122.0	103.6	98.2	100.9	111.8
1891....	115.2	106.9	111.1	131.4	113.5	102.8	97.3	100.1	108.4
1892....	111.7	104.4	108.1	107.9	96.5	92.7	87.7	90.2	102.8
1893....	106.3	102.8	104.6	86.8	89.8	99.4	94.0	96.7	101.9
1894....	99.2	100.2	99.7	90.6	87.7	92.6	89.8	91.2	96.3
1895....	93.9	98.8	96.4	94.8	87.4	74.3	75.5	75.4	94.1
1896....	88.6	96.5	92.6	84.0	82.1	83.8	88.0	85.9	93.4
1897....	83.3	94.6	89.0	87.5	87.5	102.2	107.9	105.1	90.4
1898....	88.6	94.9	91.8	91.1	96.4	122.9	128.8	125.9	95.8
1899....	94.4	98.3	96.4	103.4	137.0	125.9	131.9	128.9	105.8
1900....	101.0	106.9	104.0	113.1	142.7	125.5	127.5	126.5	115.7
1901....	101.0	111.9	106.5	106.4	111.5	191.9	180.4	186.2	116.7
1902....	94.7	123.0	108.9	110.0	141.8	149.6	141.0	145.3	118.8
1903....	91.0	125.1	108.1	139.4	171.0	122.7	118.7	120.7	121.4
1904....	92.2	122.5	107.4	139.4	172.2	134.2	128.0	131.1	122.7
1905....	96.6	119.9	108.3	145.9	187.7	128.5	117.5	123.0	127.7
1906....	114.9	* 157.2	136.1	162.5	198.9	135.7	124.0	129.9	140.1
1907....	149.8	* 191.5	170.7	193.3	189.8	130.8	123.2	127.0	146.9

Year.	Drugs and chemicals.									
	Alcohol: grain.	Alcohol: wood, refined, 95 per cent.	Alum: lump.	Brim- stone: crude, seconds.	Glycer- in: refined.	Muriatic acid: 20°.	Opium: natural, in cases.	Quinine: Ameri- can.	Sul- phuric acid: 66°.	Average, drugs and chemi- cals.
1890....	92.5	119.2	106.0	102.2	126.3	100.0	111.0	133.1	98.9	110.2
1891....	98.9	121.6	94.6	138.2	109.9	94.2	82.4	102.0	91.0	103.6
1892....	95.6	136.0	95.8	116.7	99.8	116.3	70.8	88.7	106.7	102.9
1893....	97.3	135.4	104.2	90.5	96.2	97.1	101.3	87.4	95.5	100.5
1894....	96.1	75.5	101.2	80.1	85.3	84.6	96.8	106.5	82.0	89.8
1895....	104.0	90.9	95.8	75.5	86.1	79.8	78.0	102.0	78.7	87.9
1896....	102.7	89.1	98.2	86.8	119.4	72.1	88.6	97.8	78.7	92.6
1897....	101.6	72.9	99.4	97.2	93.5	104.8	99.2	74.3	106.7	94.4
1898....	103.8	78.6	98.8	110.7	88.5	123.1	141.6	87.2	127.0	106.6
1899....	107.6	80.8	100.6	102.1	95.0	129.8	130.2	120.9	134.8	111.3
1900....	106.5	83.9	104.8	102.2	108.3	129.8	135.6	135.2	134.8	115.7
1901....	109.7	64.2	104.8	106.3	107.5	144.2	136.8	123.0	140.4	115.2
1902....	107.4	67.3	104.8	113.2	103.2	161.5	120.0	104.7	146.1	114.2
1903....	106.9	62.0	103.6	107.9	103.4	153.8	130.6	102.6	142.7	112.6
1904....	108.6	61.6	104.8	105.2	99.8	153.8	116.5	94.8	144.9	110.0
1905....	108.2	70.8	104.8	102.8	88.5	153.8	128.5	85.4	139.3	109.1
1906....	110.0	73.4	104.8	107.1	80.7	129.8	125.0	67.4	112.4	101.2
1907....	112.6	41.8	104.8	103.9	98.9	129.8	209.6	72.2	112.4	109.6

* Shingles: red cedar, random width, 16 inches long. For method of computing relative price, see pages 327 and 328.

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—Continued.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0.]

Year.	House furnishing goods.								
	Earthenware.				Furniture.				
	Plates, cream-colored.	Plates, white granite.	Teacups and saucers, white granite.	Average.	Bedroom sets, ash.	Chairs, bedroom, maple.	Chairs, kitchen.	Tables, kitchen.	Average.
1890....	108.0	109.1	109.6	108.9	113.7	113.0	109.8	103.9	110.1
1891....	105.6	106.9	107.4	106.6	113.7	113.0	109.8	103.9	110.1
1892....	102.3	103.7	104.2	103.4	113.7	110.6	111.1	103.9	109.8
1893....	102.3	103.7	104.2	103.4	104.2	110.6	111.1	103.9	107.5
1894....	101.0	101.9	102.8	101.9	104.2	96.9	91.5	98.7	97.8
1895....	94.6	92.9	94.4	94.0	94.3	96.9	91.5	98.7	95.4
1896....	92.0	89.1	90.1	90.4	82.9	96.9	91.5	95.6	91.7
1897....	92.0	89.1	90.1	90.4	82.9	80.7	91.5	95.6	87.7
1898....	100.4	100.8	98.0	99.7	94.7	82.7	86.6	95.6	89.9
1899....	101.7	102.9	99.2	101.3	95.7	98.9	105.7	100.1	100.1
1900....	106.6	108.1	104.3	106.3	106.6	129.1	136.1	108.1	120.0
1901....	112.5	113.8	109.7	112.0	106.6	113.0	124.2	108.1	113.0
1902....	112.5	113.8	109.7	112.0	111.3	118.4	128.5	108.1	116.6
1903....	115.4	111.4	107.4	111.4	115.3	127.8	130.7	108.1	120.5
1904....	113.8	110.4	106.4	110.2	116.1	129.1	124.7	108.1	119.5
1905....	106.6	102.4	98.8	102.6	117.0	129.1	124.2	108.1	119.6
1906....	106.6	102.4	98.8	102.6	122.8	143.9	134.0	114.3	128.8
1907....	106.6	102.4	98.8	102.6	137.4	161.4	151.4	124.7	143.7

Year.	Glassware.				Table cutlery.			Wooden ware.			Average, house furnishing goods.
	Nap-pies, 4-inch.	Pitch-ers, 1/2-gallon, com-mon.	Tum-blers, 1/2-pint, com-mon.	Average.	Carvers, stag handles.	Knives and forks, cocobolo handles.	Average.	Pails, oak-grained.	Tubs, oak-grained.	Average.	
1890....	107.1	106.4	101.4	105.0	100.0	127.9	114.0	122.6	122.5	122.6	111.1
1891....	107.1	106.4	112.7	108.7	100.0	127.9	114.0	111.6	116.3	114.0	110.2
1892....	107.1	106.4	107.0	106.8	100.0	113.0	106.5	103.9	103.9	103.9	106.5
1893....	107.1	106.4	107.0	106.8	118.8	90.8	104.8	101.1	97.1	99.1	104.9
1894....	107.1	106.4	107.0	106.8	100.0	90.8	95.4	96.9	95.6	96.3	100.1
1895....	107.1	106.4	104.2	105.9	100.0	90.8	95.4	86.3	92.8	89.6	96.5
1896....	89.3	106.4	101.4	99.0	100.0	90.8	95.4	97.2	92.8	95.0	94.0
1897....	89.3	85.1	95.8	90.1	93.8	82.5	88.2	95.6	92.8	94.2	89.8
1898....	89.3	85.1	90.1	88.2	93.8	90.8	92.3	87.3	92.8	90.1	92.0
1899....	89.3	85.1	73.2	82.5	93.8	94.9	94.4	97.5	93.4	95.5	95.1
1900....	89.3	85.1	101.4	91.9	93.8	94.9	94.4	114.9	107.0	111.0	106.1
1901....	125.0	110.6	101.4	112.3	93.8	107.3	100.6	119.3	107.6	113.5	110.9
1902....	125.0	110.6	104.2	113.3	93.8	107.3	100.6	119.3	107.6	113.5	112.2
1903....	125.0	110.6	99.5	111.7	93.8	107.3	100.6	122.2	107.6	114.9	113.0
1904....	125.0	97.9	90.1	104.3	93.8	110.0	101.9	130.9	107.6	119.3	111.7
1905....	125.0	89.4	84.5	99.6	93.8	110.4	102.1	130.9	107.6	119.3	109.1
1906....	125.0	89.4	84.5	99.6	93.8	99.8	96.8	130.9	107.6	119.3	111.0
1907....	125.0	89.4	84.5	99.6	100.0	107.0	103.5	151.7	118.8	135.3	118.5

TABLE V.—YEARLY RELATIVE PRICES OF COMMODITIES, 1890 TO 1907—
Concluded.

[Average price for 1890-1899=100.0]

Year.	Miscellaneous.							Proof spirits.
	Cotton- seed meal.	Cotton- seed oil: summer yellow, prime.	Jute: raw.	Malt: western made.	Paper.			
					News.	Wrapping, manila.	Average.	
1890....	100.4	113.2	108.1	106.7	127.8	104.0	115.9	91.6
1891....	114.8	117.2	103.3	131.9	113.7	104.0	108.9	90.1
1892....	107.9	101.4	132.3	114.0	113.7	100.9	107.3	93.5
1893....	117.0	149.5	96.4	110.3	106.4	104.7	105.6	93.2
1894....	102.7	106.4	96.1	105.9	108.0	105.6	106.8	98.5
1895....	86.1	89.4	77.7	97.5	103.0	106.0	104.5	105.3
1896....	90.8	82.6	88.9	80.1	92.0	106.3	99.2	104.6
1897....	93.1	77.7	103.9	77.4	90.6	106.3	98.5	102.9
1898....	86.5	75.2	92.5	87.7	73.2	83.0	78.1	106.3
1899....	94.7	87.5	101.7	88.5	69.9	79.2	74.6	108.0
1900....	116.3	116.8	121.2	93.0	94.0	86.8	90.4	108.4
1901....	113.9	117.3	111.4	106.0	75.6	93.8	83.2	111.8
1902....	123.5	133.6	122.0	112.7	80.9	89.9	85.4	114.3
1903....	121.6	130.7	129.2	103.1	84.6	95.1	89.9	111.4
1904....	119.3	103.0	123.7	96.1	89.3	95.8	92.6	110.4
1905....	120.0	88.6	151.0	87.5	80.9	94.9	87.9	109.7
1906....	138.4	118.7	204.5	92.1	73.2	90.4	81.8	112.9
1907....	130.7	160.0	184.4	147.2	83.3	91.5	87.4	114.2

Year.	Rope: ma- nila.	Rubber: Para Island.	Soap: cas- tle, mot- tled, pure.	Starch: laundry.	Tobacco.			Average, miscella- neous.
					Plug.	Smoking, granu- lated, Seal of N. C.	Average.	
1890....	160.0	104.6	104.4	106.6	102.2	98.2	100.2	110.3
1891....	111.1	98.8	109.1	122.4	101.2	98.2	99.7	109.4
1892....	122.9	84.5	109.7	107.2	94.0	98.2	96.1	106.2
1893....	98.4	89.5	108.1	105.2	100.1	98.2	99.2	105.9
1894....	82.4	84.2	103.3	105.2	101.0	98.2	99.6	99.8
1895....	78.7	92.7	89.1	104.3	101.0	98.2	99.6	94.5
1896....	71.1	99.9	88.2	89.1	96.1	98.2	97.2	91.4
1897....	67.6	105.6	93.3	86.2	94.9	98.2	96.6	92.1
1898....	90.1	115.8	96.7	86.2	104.3	104.1	104.2	92.4
1899....	117.1	124.3	98.1	86.2	105.4	110.0	107.7	97.7
1900....	141.3	122.6	107.7	97.7	111.9	110.0	111.0	109.8
1901....	116.9	106.1	115.1	104.3	117.6	110.0	113.8	107.4
1902....	144.3	90.8	116.5	130.5	114.6	109.9	112.3	114.1
1903....	122.7	113.1	115.6	123.9	113.6	112.0	112.8	113.6
1904....	125.4	135.8	113.7	106.0	118.6	114.4	116.5	111.7
1905....	127.9	155.2	114.2	94.5	123.7	117.9	120.8	112.8
1906....	134.0	161.5	114.2	105.5	122.0	117.9	120.0	121.1
1907....	138.1	132.8	117.9	116.1	118.6	117.9	118.3	127.1

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE.

BY GEORGE M. KOBER, M. D.

INTRODUCTION.

It was shown by observation long ago that certain occupations and trades were dangerous to health. In the interest of wage-earners and the public at large it is clearly desirable to study the relation of a person's trade or occupation to his health and longevity, the source and significance of the dangers, and the possible means for their prevention or the mitigation of their injurious effects.

A pioneer study was made by Professor Ramazzini, of Padua, as early as 1670, and his monograph was translated into English in 1705, and also into French in 1777.

In 1810 the French Government issued a decree relating to "établissements dangereux, insalubres et incommodes," and in 1815 the English Parliament instituted a commission to inquire into the condition of factories, etc. In 1822 Mr. C. Turner Thackrah, of Leeds, wrote a monograph "On the effects of the arts, trades, and professions, and of civic states and habits of living on health and longevity." In 1833 and 1865 the English Parliament again appointed commissioners, and in 1839 the "Academie des sciences morales et politiques" of France, and subsequently Bavaria, Prussia, and the German Empire directed similar investigations. As a result of these efforts and numerous independent investigations, it is known that the character of the occupation influences to a great extent not only the average expectation of life, but also the prevalence of certain diseases.

It is known, for example, that bronchitis, pneumonia, and tuberculosis are extremely frequent in dusty occupations, and that the sharp angular particles of iron and stone dust are more liable to produce injury of the respiratory passages than coal, flour, grain, and other kinds of dust. It is also known that workers in lead, mercury, arsenic, phosphorus, poisonous dyes, etc., suffer from their injurious effects, and that other occupations, such as mining, railroading, and those which necessitate working with or around moving machinery involve special danger to life and limb.

In 1833, 1864, 1867, and 1870, England enacted the so-called "factory laws." France provided a child labor law in 1841 and in 1874 a more satisfactory labor code. Germany and other continental governments enacted suitable legislation between 1859 and 1886.

According to Miss S. S. Whittelsey's "Essay on Massachusetts Labor Legislation," child labor received attention in Massachusetts as early as 1836. The first law as regards safety and sanitation was enacted in that State in 1877, since which time all the States and Territories have enacted some form of labor or factory laws.

MORBIDITY AND MORTALITY OF WAGE-EARNERS.

The statistics of the morbidity and mortality of various occupations, while far from satisfactory, and subject to more or less erroneous conclusions, nevertheless indicate that persons habitually engaged in hard work are more frequently subject to disease and present a higher mortality than persons more favorably situated, and this is especially true of factory employees, because their work is generally more monotonous, fatiguing, and performed under less favorable surroundings, and they are too often also badly nourished and badly housed.

Among the occupations usually classed as inimical to health are bleachers, bookbinders, brass founders, compositors, coppersmiths, electrotypers, stonecutters, gas-works employees, white-lead workers, match workers, persons employed in the manufacture of explosives, firemen, potters, file makers, and operatives in rubber factories.

The following table from the reports of the Twelfth Census shows the death rates per 1,000 employees for leading causes and for all causes in certain occupations in 1900:

DEATH RATE PER 1,000 EMPLOYEES IN CERTAIN OCCUPATIONS IN REGISTRATION STATES IN 1900, BY PRINCIPAL CAUSES OF DEATH.

Occupation.	Death rate per 1,000.						All causes.
	Tuber- culosis of lungs.	Dis- eases of ner- vous system.	Heart disease.	Pneu- monia.	Dis- eases of urinary organs.	Acci- dents and in- juries.	
MANUFACTURING AND MECHANICAL INDUSTRIES.							
Bakers and confectioners.....	2.50	1.61	1.02	1.17	1.46	0.61	12.3
Blacksmiths.....	2.13	2.99	1.90	1.69	1.90	1.00	18.3
Boot and shoe makers.....	1.36	1.50	1.46	.95	.79	.33	9.4
Brewers, distillers, and rectifiers.....	2.57	2.74	2.23	2.40	2.57	1.37	19.7
Butchers.....	2.88	2.30	1.78	1.73	1.36	.81	16.1
Cabinetmakers and upholsterers.....	3.59	2.22	1.61	1.74	1.57	.65	18.0
Carpenters and joiners.....	2.31	2.45	2.24	1.46	1.74	1.18	17.2
Cigar makers and tobacco workers.....	4.77	1.80	1.76	2.15	1.68	.70	18.7
Compositors, printers, and pressmen.....	4.36	1.31	.94	1.16	.94	.60	12.1
Coopers.....	3.00	2.90	2.72	2.09	3.09	1.36	23.8
Engineers and firemen (not locomotive).....	2.30	2.00	1.81	1.78	1.67	1.84	15.7
Iron and steel workers.....	2.36	.92	1.02	1.82	.77	.79	10.7
Leather makers.....	3.11	1.02	1.26	1.32	.84	.60	12.3
Leather workers.....	2.27	2.68	2.11	.97	2.27	.97	17.5
Machinists.....	1.96	1.24	1.04	1.10	.98	.71	10.5
Marble and stone cutters.....	5.41	1.10	1.60	1.37	.84	.99	14.9
Masons (brick and stone).....	2.94	2.27	2.32	2.30	1.83	1.58	19.9
Mill and factory operatives (textiles).....	2.08	.84	.91	.81	.57	.76	8.8
Millers (flour and grist).....	1.99	4.47	3.81	2.98	2.48	1.98	26.6
Painters, glaziers, and varnishers.....	3.19	2.14	1.70	1.54	1.83	1.28	16.2
Plumbers and gas and steam fitters.....	2.94	.91	.60	1.13	.88	.76	9.1
Tailors.....	2.18	1.43	1.29	1.13	1.38	.51	11.8
Tinners and tinware makers.....	3.65	1.78	1.27	1.37	1.32	.91	14.5
AGRICULTURE, TRANSPORTATION, AND OTHER OUTDOOR CLASSES.							
Draymen, hackmen, teamsters, etc.....	2.61	.90	.95	1.48	.90	1.34	11.0
Farmers, planters, and farm laborers.....	1.12	2.71	2.63	1.49	1.71	.84	17.6
Miners and quarrymen.....	1.21	.39	.57	.77	.49	3.78	9.6
Steam railroad employees.....	1.30	.96	.89	.60	.65	4.10	10.8

The following table from the report of the registrar-general of England and Wales shows the comparative mortality of occupations in England and Wales, 1890-1892. The average mortality of all males of the population between 25 and 65 years of age was placed at 1,000. The mortality of occupied males was 953 and of the unoccupied 2,215.

COMPARATIVE MORTALITY OF OCCUPATIONS IN ENGLAND AND WALES, 1890 TO 1892.

Occupation.	Compara- tive mor- tality.	Occupation.	Compara- tive mor- tality.
Clergymen, priests, ministers.....	533	Bricklayers, masons, builders.....	1,001
Gardeners, nurserymen.....	553	Butchers.....	1,096
Farmers, graziers.....	563	Printers.....	1,096
Schoolmasters, teachers.....	604	Plumbers, painters, glaziers.....	1,120
Grocers, etc.....	664	Cotton manufacturers (Lancashire).....	1,176
Carpenters, joiners.....	753	Carmen, carriers.....	1,284
Barristers, solicitors.....	821	Slaters, tilers.....	1,323
Fishermen.....	845	Brewers.....	1,427
Shopkeepers.....	859	Innkeepers, hotel servants.....	1,659
Medical practitioners.....	966	Potters, earthenware manufacturers.....	1,706
Tailors.....	989	File makers.....	1,810

A reasonable explanation for the excessive mortality in some of the occupations will be found in subsequent pages; the high rates in brewers, innkeepers, and hotel servants are believed to be due to the effects of alcohol.

According to Rauchberg^(a) the average number per 1,000 members of the "Vienna Sick Benefit Society" taken sick during a period of 17 years was 423 per annum distributed as follows:

Occupation.	Average number taken sick per 1,000 members.	Occupation.	Average number taken sick per 1,000 members.
Machinists' helpers.....	488	Iron workers.....	351
Factory employees and day laborers.....	477	Shoemakers.....	343
Foundrymen.....	473	Tinners and bronzers.....	339
Blacksmiths.....	451	Cabinetmakers and wood workers.....	326
Masons and stonemasons.....	437	Saddlers.....	282
Painters.....	378	Tailors and furriers.....	215
Weavers and spinners.....	367	Other mechanics.....	463
Locksmiths.....	354		

The subject of industrial diseases and industrial accidents is everywhere assuming more and more importance and our knowledge should be based upon accurate data. In England, where reports of certain occupations are compulsory, it is possible to secure, for example, reliable data as to the number of cases of lead poisoning. The same facilities are afforded by the statistics of the "German Industrial Insurance Institutes," which furnish not only the number of deaths from various causes, but also the number of cases treated, together with the age period and the duration of the disease. Similar facts

^a Die allg. Arbeiter-Kranken und Invalidencasse in Wien, 1886.

should be collected in this country. This is all the more important when it is remembered that even with the most complete statistics, it is extremely difficult to determine all the factors which influence the health and longevity of operatives. Great differences are found in the conditions under which the work is performed, some of which are entirely avoidable, while others are not, and it is hardly fair to characterize certain trades as dangerous, when experience has shown that no harm results when proper safeguards have been taken. In the consideration of this question the personal element of the workmen, their habits, mode of life, food, home environments, etc., can not be ignored. There are a number of occupations in which the alcohol habit prevails to an unusual extent, perhaps because of the character of the work, perhaps as a result of association, and it would not be fair to attribute the ill health of the operatives altogether to the character of the employment. Again, many persons are engaged in occupations for which they are not physically fitted, while others ruin their health by vice, dissipation, improper food, and insanitary environment at home. In addition to all this there are factors, such as water and soil pollution, for which neither the industry nor the individuals are primarily to blame. Thus, for example, the general anæmia of the agricultural classes in Porto Rico was attributed a few years ago to their occupation and starvation, when as a matter of fact it was caused by the "hook-worm disease." Recent investigations conducted by Doctor Stiles appear to indicate that the same disease prevails to some extent among the textile operatives in the South. All this indicates the need of a thorough study of the conditions affecting health in various occupations, not only to determine the relative health risks and the causes of the undue prevalence of certain diseases in certain occupations, but also to formulate rules which may remove the causes or render the system better fitted to resist them. In this, as in all preventive efforts, a hearty cooperation of the parties interested is absolutely essential for the attainment of the highest measure of success. In this instance the responsibility rests with the state, the employer, and employees; each have certain duties to perform, and the help of all is essential for the mitigation of existing evils.

INDOOR OCCUPATIONS.

Indoor employment, broadly speaking, is inimical to health, while outdoor work in a pure air favors health and longevity. Without underrating the influence of insanitary dwellings, improper and insufficient food, lack of recreation, and other factors, there is no doubt that one of the chief dangers of indoor life is exposure to vitiated air. The air in dwellings and workshops is never so pure as the outer air, because it is polluted by the products of respiration, combustion, and

decomposition, and the presence of individuals also tends to vitiate the air with dust, germs, and organic matter from the skin, mouth, lungs, and soiled clothing. Unless proper provision is made for the dispersion of foul air and the introduction of pure air there is much reason for assuming that these impurities play a more or less important rôle in what has been designated as "crowd poisoning," characterized in the acute form by symptoms of oppression, headache, dizziness, and faintness, while the chronic effects of deficient oxygenation and purification of the blood are plainly evinced by the pallor, loss of appetite, anæmia, and gradual loss of physical and mental vigor. All of these effects are intensified when human beings are obliged to occupy rooms with an air supply insufficient for the proper oxygenation of the blood, and as a result of this habitual exposure to vitiated air, we note an undue prevalence of consumption in crowded workshops, dwellings, prisons, public institutions, and formerly also in military barracks and battle ships. Even live stock shows the baneful effects of insufficient air space, for tuberculosis among the range cattle of the far west, which are practically without shelter, is comparatively rare, while it affects from 15 to 25 per cent of dairy herds, which are housed, but without sufficient regard to light and air. Improved ventilation and increased air space has everywhere lessened the death rate, and it is chiefly by just such measures that the rate from consumption has been reduced from 11.9 to 1.2 per 1,000 in the British armies. As a matter of fact, an abundance of pure air has been found the most important factor in the treatment of tuberculosis, because it promotes oxygenation of the blood, stimulates the appetite and nutrition, and thereby increases the general resisting power of the system.

OCCUPATIONS INVOLVING EXPOSURE TO IRRITATING DUST.

It has long been known that the inhalation of dust predisposes to diseases of the respiratory passages, which may result in consumption. The particles of mineral dust produce an irritation of the mucous membranes of the nose, throat, respiratory organs, and eyes, and the hard, sharp, and angular particles of iron and stone dust may cause actual abrasions. According to Arnold^(a) the dust which is inhaled lodges on the mucous membranes of the air passages and vesicles of the lungs, there to be coughed up, although some of the finest particles are taken up by the epithelial cells and white corpuscles and carried to the nearest lymphatic glands. The coarser particles, such as iron, stone, or coal dust, usually lodge upon the surface to be coughed up with the secretions. If not expectorated they will cause harm by clogging up the air vesicles and interfere with respiration. In the

^a Untersuchungen über Staubinhalation, etc., Leipzig, 1885.

meantime not infrequently an irritation is set up, causing catarrhal conditions of the mucous membranes, or a more serious chronic inflammation of the respiratory organs, so common among persons engaged in dusty occupations. The chronic inflammatory conditions thus produced favor infection with the tubercle bacillus. At all events Hirt's statistics show that men employed in occupations that produce much dust suffer more frequently from pneumonia and consumption than those not exposed to dust and that there is practically no difference in frequency of diseases of the digestive system. The relative frequency of these diseases per 1,000 workmen is as follows: (4)

CASES OF CONSUMPTION, PNEUMONIA, AND DIGESTIVE DISORDERS PER 1,000 WORKERS IN CERTAIN OCCUPATIONS.

Class of occupations.	Consumption.	Pneumonia.	Digestive disorders.
Workers in metallic dust.....	28.0	17.4	17.8
Workers in mineral dust.....	25.2	5.9	16.6
Workers in mixed dust.....	22.6	6.0	15.2
Workers in animal dust.....	20.8	7.7	20.2
Workers in vegetable dust.....	13.3	9.4	13.7
Workers in nondusty trades.....	11.1	4.6	16.0

Perlen in his "Inaugural Dissertation," Munich, 1887, (5) discussed the records of the Munich Polyclinic, where 65,766 persons were treated between 1865 and 1885, including 4,177 tubercular patients. Of these, 1,425 patients had been engaged in occupations where they were exposed to dust, viz:

- 30 per cent were by reason of occupation exposed to metallic dust.
- 26 per cent were by reason of occupation exposed to vegetable dust.
- 18 per cent were by reason of occupation exposed to mineral dust.
- 17 per cent were by reason of occupation exposed to mixed dust.
- 8 per cent were by reason of occupation exposed to animal dust.

According to the reports of the census of 1900 the consumption death rate of marble and stone cutters in the United States is nearly six times that of bankers, brokers, and officials of companies, and the rate in fifty-one other employments ranges between these extremes.

The amount of dust is perhaps less important than the character of the particles which compose it. The susceptibility to consumption among metal workers and stonecutters can be explained only by the fact that the hard, sharp, and irregular particles of this kind of dust are more apt to produce injury of the mucous membranes of the respiratory tract. But it is not fair to assume that the less irritating dust is free from danger, for as pointed out by E. Roth (6) even the inhalation

^a Cited by Harrington, Practical Hygiene, 1901, p. 664.

^b Cited by Uffelmann, Handbuch d. Hygiene, 1890, p. 587.

^c Kompendium der Gewerbekrankheiten, Berlin, 1904, p. 106.

of plaster of Paris or flour dust can not be regarded with indifference, especially when such inhalation is preventable.

Ahrens^(a) found the amount of dust for each cubic meter of air in certain industrial establishments as follows:

	Milligrams.		Milligrams.
Horseshoe works.....	10	Flour mill.....	28
Sawmill.....	17	Foundry.....	28
Woolen factory.....	20	Polishing room of foundry.....	71.7
Woolen factory with exhauster.....	7	Felt shoe factory.....	175
Paper factory.....	24	Cement works.....	224
Laboratory.....	1.4		

According to Schuler and Burkhardt, cited by Roth,^(b) the morbidity among 1,000 workmen engaged in dusty occupations is as follows:

Bookbinders.....	98	Paper factory employees.....	343
Silk weavers.....	205	Mechanical industrial shops.....	419
Cotton spinners.....	235	Wood turners.....	427
Printers.....	250	Laborers in the rag storeroom of a paper factory.....	479
Cotton weavers.....	285		
Type foundry and typesetters.....	304		

According to Sommerfeld, cited by Roth,^(b) the mortality in Berlin of persons engaged in nondusty occupations is 2.39 per 1,000; of persons engaged in dusty occupations is 5.42 per 1,000; the mortality of the total population of Berlin at the same ages is 4.93 per 1,000.

Of 1,000 deaths in Berlin the number of deaths from consumption in occupations without development of dust was 381; in occupations with development of dust it was 480; in the total population of the city at the same ages 332.3 deaths of every 1,000 were due to consumption.

METALLIC AND MINERAL DUST.

It will be readily understood that in the cutlery and tool industry, especially in the grinding and polishing departments, more or less dust is evolved not only from the metallic surfaces, but also from the numerous grindstones and emery and corundum wheels. This dust production is not wholly avoidable, even when the wet process is employed. It is known that the inhalation of this dust tends to produce diseases of the lungs, such as bronchitis, peribronchitis, and fibroid pneumonia, but tuberculosis, also spoken of by the workmen as "grinders' asthma" and "grinders' rot," leads the list.

Moritz and Röpke^(c) have shown that 72.5 per cent of the deaths among the metal grinders of Solingen are due to consumption, as compared with 35.5 per cent among the general population.

^a Kompendium der Gewerbekrankheiten, Berlin, 1904, p. 106.

^b Ibid., p. 107.

^c Ibid., p. 26.

The death returns for 12 years of the city of Northampton, Mass., one of the centers of the cutlery and tool industry, show that among "grinders," "polishers," and "cutlers" diseases of the lungs were responsible for 72.73 per cent of the mortality, inclusive of 54.5 per cent of deaths from tuberculosis.^(a)

Hirt gives the percentage of consumption in the total number of sick among different classes of workers in metal as follows: Needle polishers, 69.6 per cent; file cutters, who are also exposed to inhalation of lead, 62.2 per cent; grinders, 40 per cent; nail cutters, 12 per cent.

Greenhow^(b) over 50 years ago called attention to the excessive mortality among the needle polishers of Sheffield. Beyer^(b) found that of 196 needle polishers at Remscheid only 24 were over 40 years of age. The reason why this occupation is especially dangerous is because the "wet process" can not be employed for small objects, which moreover have to be brought more closely to the eyes, and thus the chances for the inhalation of this metallic dust are increased.

The danger in all such establishments can be reduced to a minimum by the employment of respirators and forced ventilation to carry the dust away from the operator. The Massachusetts report, cited above, states that even when employers have provided hoods, connected with a system of exhaust fans or blowers, "a very large proportion of grinders recklessly remove the hoods, and thus expose themselves unnecessarily to this especially dangerous form of dust. They assert that they prefer freedom of movement, with dust, to the protection offered by hoods."

Stonecutting is regarded as a dangerous occupation, and consumption is quite common among men engaged in the industry. Those who have observed the various operations realize that in spite of wet processes and employment in the open air the workmen, especially those who operate the pneumatic tools, are exposed to a great amount of this irritating form of dust.

A collective investigation published in 1901, and cited by Roth^(c) shows that of every 100 deaths among stonecutters, polishers, and quarrymen 86 were due to diseases of the lungs, inclusive of 55 deaths from consumption. Of 2,013 stonecutters examined by Sommerfeld, 19.7 per cent were afflicted with consumption, 17.98 per cent with other diseases of the lungs, and nearly all had a chronic catarrh of the throat or larynx.

^a Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon the Sanitary Condition of Factories, Workshops, etc., 1907, p. 87.

^b Cited by Sanders, *Handbuch der öffentl. Gesundheitspflege*, 1885, p. 106.

^c *Compendium der Gewerbkrankheiten*, Berlin, 1904, p. 118.

According to the report of the Board of Health of Massachusetts, previously cited,^(a) of 343 deaths which occurred in the city of Quincy, Mass., among stonecutters during a period of about 16 years, 41.4 per cent were due to pulmonary consumption, 12 per cent to other diseases of the lungs, 12.8 per cent to diseases of the heart, 7 per cent to violence, and 26.8 per cent to all other causes.

Millstone and slate cutting are also regarded as dangerous occupations. Persons engaged in glass cutting and polishing are not only exposed to the inhalation of a sharp and irritating dust, but also to lead poisoning from the use of putty powder, which contains 70 per cent of lead oxide. In glass establishments in Massachusetts, where all the cutting and polishing is done by the wet method, no dust is perceptible and the employees as a class appear to enjoy good health.^(b) Gem finishers also have a high consumption and sick rate. Workers in mica dust and bronzing powders used in the manufacture of wall papers, fancy souvenir cards, moldings, frames, etc., are predisposed to diseases of the respiratory passages, and the bronze powder in addition is liable to produce headache, loss of appetite, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea.

It is said of the bronzing department of some of the lithographing establishments in Massachusetts that in spite of the exhaust ventilation the air is heavy with bronze dust most of the time. "The boys who run the five bronzing machines wear handkerchiefs over the nose and mouth. They look pale and unhealthy, and all show the characteristic green perspiration due to contact with bronze. The great majority of the employees appear to be healthy."^(c)

In the manufacture of machinery and metal supplies some of the operations involve exposure to dust, fumes, vapors, or extreme heat. In some of the processes emery wheels and revolving wire brushes are used, and unless the wheels are equipped with exhaust ventilating appliances, enormous quantities of fine steel and emery dust are given off. In a Massachusetts investigation covering 24 establishments the air of some of the rooms was found exceedingly dusty, and about one-tenth of the occupants looked pale and sickly and complained of the irritation of the air passages by the dust. The number of employees in these establishments ranges between 12,500 and 15,000. Some of the establishments were models in character as regards light, ventilation, and general sanitation. "The tumblers and emery wheels are provided with hoods and blowers which are effective, and there is practically no dust. The rooms in which castings are dipped are properly

^a Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon the Sanitary Condition of Factories, Workshops, etc., 1907, p. 79.

^b *Ibid.*, p. 80.

^c *Ibid.*, p. 102.

ventilated and all fumes are effectively removed. All of the machinery is well protected."^(a)

One brass foundry was reported where the air was heavy with fumes, especially in winter, no mechanical ventilation being installed, and all the workmen asserted that they had occasional attacks of "brass founders' ague." The following may be taken as a fair statement of the hygienic aspects of the machinery and metal industry. "While the nature of some of the processes is such as to warrant classification of this industry with the dangerous trades, the conditions under which the work is done are very largely responsible for the injurious effects on the health of the employees, and these conditions are to a considerable extent avoidable or at least susceptible of improvement."^(a)

The same Massachusetts investigation covered 14 iron and steel foundries and 9 stove foundries. In one establishment, the department in which the castings are sand blasted was found very objectionable, as the air was heavily impregnated with flying sand, which "gets into the mouth, nose, and eyes and the employees suffer considerably from soreness of the last-mentioned organs." In another establishment this condition is very much ameliorated by a large flaring hood in the center of the room with upward-suction draft, the operatives wearing helmets with fine wire inserts to protect the eyes and cloths underneath the helmets to protect the nose and mouth. In one of the stove foundries, the dust from the polishing and buffing process, in the absence of hoods and exhaust ventilation, "is so thick that objects a few feet distant can not clearly be made out. Many men refuse to work in this establishment in the hot months on account of the excessive heat and general discomfort." In some instances, where the necessary protection is afforded by the employer, the men habitually remove the hoods and become covered with emery and iron particles.^(b)

In the crushing, grinding, and sifting process incident to the manufacture of emery, corundum, and sandpaper more or less fine dust is given off in spite of the fact that the machines are more or less completely inclosed. The emery and corundum industry must be classed among the trades intrinsically dangerous to health, on account of the peculiarly irritating character of dust; "but, as is the case with other dusty occupations, few of those employed can be induced to wear respirators."^(c)

Coal miners, charcoal men, firemen, chimney sweeps, etc., are exposed to constant inhalation of coal dust and soot, and though subject to chronic bronchial catarrh, consumption is not especially common among them.

^a Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon the Sanitary Condition of Factories, Workshops, etc., 1907, pp. 81-85.

^b *Ibid.*, p. 85.

^c *Ibid.*, pp. 76-78.

VEGETABLE DUST.

Millers and bakers inhale flour dust, and, according to Hirt, 20.3 per cent of all the diseases affecting millers are pneumonia, 9.3 per cent bronchial catarrh, 10.9 per cent consumption, and 1.9 per cent emphysema (abnormal collection of air in the lungs). The tuberculosis death rate, according to Schuler, among millers in Switzerland is 3.75, as compared with 2.95 per 1,000 in the general population. Carpenters, joiners, cabinetmakers, etc., are exposed to wood dust, and the dust from hard wood is probably more injurious than that from softer kinds. Dr. E. J. Neisser^(a) refers to a wooden-tool factory at Strassburg which in 1904 furnished 15 cases of sickness out of the 20 employees, with 288 days loss of work, 10 cases being as follows—diseases of the eyes, 1; of nose, 1; throat, 2, and diseases of the lungs, 6. The Massachusetts Board of Health found that in the agricultural tool and implement industry a hard wood called "cocobolo," which is used for tool handles, evolves a very pungent and irritating dust, productive of inflammation of the eyes and skin. Some persons, in the course of a week or two, become accustomed to its effects, while others are obliged to discontinue work in the department.^(b)

The medical inspector of Great Britain, according to Neisser, reported a number of toxic symptoms which occurred among persons engaged in the manufacture of weaver shuttles made from African boxwood. Investigation revealed the presence of an alkaloid in the wood, which acted as a heart depressant, producing a slow and intermittent pulse, headache, drowsiness, watering of the eyes and nose, difficulty in breathing, nausea, and weakness.

Laborers in grain elevators and on grain threshers inhale a very irritating dust, which may cause acute and chronic catarrh of the mucous membranes. Workers in tobacco suffer more or less from nasal, conjunctival, and bronchial catarrh and digestive and nervous derangements, and although the mucous membranes gradually become accustomed to the irritation of the dust and fumes the occupation appears to be dangerous, as the consumption rate in the United States ranks next to that of marble and stone cutters.

It is said that female workers in tobacco are more liable to miscarry; at all events Doctor Rosenfeld, cited by Roth (p. 166), found this to be true in Austria. This experience is not confirmed by recent observations made in German tobacco towns like Giessen, for example (Neisser, p. 125), and more extended investigations are called for.

^a Internationale Übersicht über Gewerbehygiene, Berlin, 1907, p. 115.

^b Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon the Sanitary Condition of Factories, Workshops, etc., 1907, p. 89.

Some authors maintain that tobacco dust exerts a protective influence against infective agents and instance the fact that during the cholera epidemic of Hamburg in 1892 there were only 8 cases among the 5,000 resident cigar makers. The Massachusetts report previously cited, in discussing the cigar and cigarette factories in Massachusetts, refers (p. 49) to the spitting habit and the objectionable practice of finishing cigars with the aid of saliva. This practice was observed in more than one-third of the places visited, and in 18 factories the practice of biting off the end of the filler and inner wrappers with the teeth was also observed. The report reiterates the statement made to the legislature in January, 1905, as to the possibility of disseminating loathsome diseases through this practice. Such conditions certainly emphasize the necessity for the use of cigar holders.

Operatives in cotton and flax textiles are perhaps more subject to dust inhalation and various diseases of the respiratory and digestive organs than are those in woolen mills. The phthisis death rate in 1892 in Belfast^(a) with its 30,000 persons engaged in the linen industry was 4.1 per 1,000 against 1.5 for the whole of England and Wales and 2.2 for Ireland. According to Schuler and Burkhardt 1,000 linen spinners furnish annually 221.6 cases of sickness, and 1,000 weavers 202.7. Female operatives suffer even more, the sick rate being 249.5 and 334.4 for the respective occupations.

CASES OF SICKNESS PER 1,000 EMPLOYEES AMONG SPINNERS AND WEAVERS.

Disease.	Cases per 1,000 spinners.	Cases per 1,000 weavers.
Diseases of the digestive organs.....	58.7	103.4
Diseases of the respiratory organs.....	47.7	52.5
Diseases of the motor organs.....	29.6	21.2
Diseases of a constitutional character.....	22.9	31.6

Arlidge^(b) gives a table showing the comparative frequency of the most important diseases in the case of 739 weavers and of 676 persons following the several other branches of the cotton industry, such as winders, spinners, reelers, curlers, mill hands, grinders, etc., and who for convenience sake are designated by him as machine-room workers. The figures are based on 1,415 operatives who received treatment as "in" and "out" patients in connection with the Preston Hospital during a period of six years.

^a G. H. Ferris, *Journal of State Medicine*, London, March, 1895, p. 109.

^b *The Hygiene, Diseases, and Mortality of Occupations*, London, 1892, p. 361.

PER CENT OF TEXTILE WORKERS TREATED IN THE PRESTON HOSPITAL DURING A PERIOD OF SIX YEARS, BY DISEASES.

Disease.	Per cent of weavers treated for specified disease.	Per cent of machine-room workers treated for specified disease.
Phthisis.....	9.87	11.30
Dyspepsia.....	16.50	21.00
Bronchitis.....	32.34	31.30
Varicose veins and ulcers.....	11.23	6.80
Rheumatic affections.....	7.70	11.68
Uterine disorders and displacements.....	8.24	8.43
Neuralgia.....	2.84	4.43
Throat affections.....	1.89	2.51
Renal diseases.....	2.57	2.66
Epilepsy.....	1.49	3.40
Heart diseases.....	2.71	5.32
Debility.....	7.57	9.17
Anæmia.....	2.43	2.30

It will be observed that both the Swiss and English statistics reveal an undue prevalence of the diseases of the respiratory and digestive organs. It has been suggested that the constrained position of weavers is to a large extent responsible for the undue prevalence of dyspepsia among the Swiss weavers, but other factors like improper food, indoor life, and home conditions should be considered. This is apparent from the fact that the percentage of cases of dyspepsia among the English weavers is smaller than among the machine-room workers. The constitutional disorders like anæmia, chlorosis, neuralgia, and debility are likewise due to a variety of causes, chief of which are vitiated air, resulting from defective ventilation of the workshops, overwork, insufficient or improper food, and insanitary homes.

Uterine derangements and displacements may very properly be attributed to general debility, overwork, and long standing in hot and moist workrooms, and, like varicose veins and ulcers and "flat feet," may be expected to develop in other occupations involving long standing. (See occupations involving constrained attitudes p. 522.)

The undue prevalence of pulmonary diseases among the textile operators can be accounted for by a number of factors, such as the presence of very fine cotton or flax dust or "fly"; air vitiated by the products of respiration and combustion, the presence of infectious germs from the promiscuous expectoration habit; faulty life and home surroundings. Of these the presence of "fly" is doubtless a very important predisposing factor, since it is generally admitted that this dust acts as an irritant to the respiratory passages, and sooner or later prepares the way for the invasion of the germs of tuberculosis, pneumonia, etc. Coetsem describes the so-called byssinosis or "pneumonie cotonneuse," but it is by no means settled

whether in these cases we have to deal with a typical occupation disease, or with a specific infection, in which the inhalation of the cotton dust simply operates as a predisposing cause. It is very probable, however, that the habitual inhalation of this dust may produce disease of the lungs not necessarily tubercular.

Arlidge says: "If inhaled longer, it reaches the bronchi, and sets up cough with white mucous expectoration. The cough will be for years chiefly a morning phenomenon on first rising, but it is also induced upon leaving the warm workroom. Fine fibers of cotton are found, on microscopical examination, in the sputum, and as these make their way into the pulmonary tissue, they set up morbid action, resulting in increasing density of it on the one hand, and of emphysematous expansion on the other. These morbid changes are accompanied by dyspnoea, wasting, and debility, but rarely with hemoptysis [spitting of blood]; and together constitute a group of symptoms not inappropriately termed 'industrial phthisis.' Moreover, intercurrent diseases of the lungs, such as acute bronchitis and pneumonia, often arise and terminate life; and true tubercular phthisis is no uncommon cause of death."^(a)

The chief requirements for the amelioration of existing conditions in the textile industry are efficient machines for the prevention and removal of dust. The utmost care should be taken to provide the most perfect methods so far devised for the removal of dust and for proper ventilation. The lighting should be good, both for day and night work, giving preference to electricity. The temperature and humidity of the rooms should be regulated, and children under the age of 14, or those with weak chests, should not be employed in the cotton mills.

In the textile industry in Massachusetts analysis of the death returns "during the year 1905 from the three principal 'mill towns' shows that although tuberculosis is one of the leading causes of death among mill operatives the general death rate of this class was by no means abnormally high, being, respectively, 7, 8, and 10 per 1,000. Tuberculosis caused, respectively, 32, 23.57, and 21 per cent of the deaths. It appears also that the general death rates of the cities whose populations include the highest percentages of textile operatives compare not unfavorably with those of certain other cities which are engaged in other kinds of manufacture or are more residential in character, in spite of the high rate of infant mortality which appears to be inseparably connected with mill populations everywhere."^(b)

^a *The Hygiene, Diseases, and Mortality of Occupations*, London, 1892, p. 360.

^b Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon the Sanitary Condition of Factories, Workshops, etc., 1907, p. 16.

A source of danger is the presence of infectious dust from dried sputum in the air of different mill rooms on account of the indiscriminate habit of spitting. The number of accidents in textile mills, considering the large number of fast-running machines, is not large. During a period of almost five years at the Pacific Mills, with about 5,200 employees, there were 1,000 accidents, classified as follows:^(a)

Accidents to employees of the Pacific Mills, Lawrence, Mass., August 10, 1900, to July 13, 1905.

Killed outright.....	1
Fatally injured.....	1
Seriously injured (broken limbs, or amputation necessary).....	86
Slightly injured.....	910
Unclassified (suffered nervous shocks, but physically uninjured).....	2
	1,000

The underlying cause of injury is given as follows:

Careless manipulation.....	539
Deliberate carelessness (taking chances of being injured, such as cleaning machinery while running, etc.).....	164
Inattention to surroundings.....	177
Carelessness of fellow-workman.....	51
Unforeseen liability.....	60
Unclassified.....	9
	1,000

In three mills in Massachusetts devoted to the manufacture of twine, cordage, and gunny cloth from jute and hemp some of the workrooms are reported to be exceedingly dusty in spite of mechanical ventilation and open windows, and "many of the operatives wear thick bunches of fiber over mouth and nose as a protection. A fairly large proportion of the operatives show the effects of their employment, looking pale and sickly." In the room where the sisal hemp is fed into breakers the air is filled with dust. In one of the establishments the employees in all departments look well and strong, although in some parts the air contained considerable dust.

In five Massachusetts carpet and rug factories, employing about 6,000 persons, about 10 per cent of whom are between the ages of 14 and 16, the largest of these factories shows some departments in which poor light, excessive heat, moisture, and dust constitute objectionable conditions. In one room there was "so much fine cotton dust and fiber in the air that it is with difficulty one can see across it. This dust is very irritating to the nose and throat." In one of the establishments the children are described as very small and too poorly developed for their age "to be allowed to work 10 hours and 20 minutes for 5 days in the week." In another factory "about one-tenth

^a Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon the Sanitary Condition of Factories, Workshops, etc., 1907, p. 39.

of the employees look sickly." The smallest factory employs 500 persons, and is reported as having good light, adequate ventilation, and commendable weave rooms, and the employees appear to be in good health.

One of the shoddy mills examined was "poorly lighted, inadequately ventilated, dusty, and ill-kept; the other was light, clean, and well ventilated. Some of the women employed appeared to be in poor physical condition." In the six felt-cloth factories examined "the work was found to be conducted in fairly lighted and, apart from dust, adequately ventilated buildings. In each there was more or less dust, especially in the picking and carding rooms; but the amount was much diminished in most of them by means of blower fans."^(a)

ANIMAL DUST.

Of the several classes of dust, that from wool is considered to be less irritating than flax or cotton, and horn is believed to be more irritating than bone. The conditions found in some of the woolen mills in Massachusetts as regards light, ventilation, and general cleanliness are reported as far from satisfactory; but in the absence of morbidity statistics it is difficult to determine the degree of danger to which the operatives are exposed. In the boot and shoe industry in Massachusetts, where there is more or less animal dust evolved, some effort is being made to remove the dust by exhaust flues attached to the machinery. Of the 373 factories summarized by the Massachusetts Board of Health Report previously cited, "126 are partially, and a fair proportion of these are wholly, equipped with this means of protection; in 88 of these 126 one or more machines are not so equipped; and in 49 of the 88 there are rooms in which the air, apart from the escaping dust, is noticeably bad. The number of machines with means for efficient or fairly efficient removal of dust was found to be 1,630; the number either inefficiently equipped or devoid of equipment was reported as 2,769. * * * While in general the health of the employees appears to be fair to good, in 85 factories a considerable proportion of them are noticeably pale and unhealthy in appearance."^(b) The pale and poorly nourished condition of youthful employees is also emphasized.

The dust and moisture involved in the polishing departments of the horn and celluloid industry, and the irritating fumes given off by a "dip" containing glacial acetic acid, are sources of possible injurious effects to the employees.

^a Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon the Sanitary Condition of Factories, Workshops, etc., 1907, pp. 46-49.

^b *Ibid.*, p. 59.

In the manufacture of derby and felt hats, apart from the exposure to dust from the fur which comes to the factory clipped from the skin, there is also a certain degree of danger from the cyanide of mercury with which the fur is treated. In two felt-hat factories inspected by the Massachusetts Board of Health, "the employees appear to be healthy." "In some of the establishments visited the fumes of wood alcohol in the drying department were markedly strong. The workmen stated that they are frequently troubled with headaches, vertigo, smarting and burning of the eyes and impairment of vision, and that few can remain at this work longer than three or four months at a time." This could readily be prevented by the use of "denatured" alcohol. The "pouncing" process "consists in smoothing off the rough hairs from the hat rim and other parts, and gives off a great deal of very fine dust."^(a)

In the brush-making industry hogs' bristles and vegetable fibers are used. In seven brush factories in Massachusetts "the general conditions were found to be beyond criticism and the health of the employees appeared to be fair or good."^(b)

Hirt regarded brush making as a dangerous occupation, as nearly one-half of the deaths among the brush makers were from consumption, due probably to the inhalation of the sharp fragments of bristles.

There is no adequate reliable data as to the effects of animal dust given off in the manufacture of woolen goods, silk, feather, fur, hair, horn, bone, shell, ivory, etc. It is reasonable to assume, however, that the dust from all these sources is capable of setting up an irritation and inflammation of the respiratory passages, though not so intensive as that caused by mineral constituents of dust. In the hair, brush, and wool industry there is also some danger from disease germs.

OCCUPATIONS INVOLVING EXPOSURE TO INFECTIVE MATTER IN DUST.

RAG AND PAPER, WOOL AND HAIR INDUSTRIES.

It has been held for a long time that germs of infectious diseases like smallpox, anthrax, scarlet fever, tuberculosis, typhus and typhoid fevers, diphtheria, measles, and cholera may cling to body and bed clothes and prove a source of danger to those coming in contact with rags in the rag business and paper industry.^(c) The danger, while perhaps overrated, is nevertheless real and can be guarded against only by a thorough disinfection of the rags by steam under pressure before they are handled at the paper mills.

^a Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon the Sanitary Condition of Factories, Workshops, etc., 1907, p. 66.

^b *Ibid.*, p. 72.

^c The State of Maine requires evidence of successful vaccination in persons employed in the manufacture of paper from foreign or domestic rags.

The occupation is evidently inimical to health. Of 4,857 German operatives reported by Uffelmann, 50 per cent are annually taken sick; about 34 per cent of those engaged in the handling of dry rags suffered from affections of the respiratory passages, and only 21.9 per cent of those otherwise engaged in the same establishments, all of which speaks strongly for the necessity of proper ventilation and exhaust flues for the removal of dust.

In this connection it is proper to refer to the dangers of the so-called "rag sorters'" and "wool sorters'" diseases, which are nothing more or less than anthrax infection—a disease transmissible from animals to man by means of wool, hides, hair, and horsehair. Two hundred and sixty-one cases, with 67 deaths, were reported, according to Neisser, in England from 1899–1904. Of these, 88 occurred among those engaged in the wool industry, 70 cases among persons engaged in curled hair and brush factories, 86 in persons engaged in tanneries and hide trades, and 17 in other industrial pursuits.

About 59 cases of anthrax infection were reported in different parts of Europe during the year 1905. Ravenal reported in three localities in Pennsylvania, during the summer of 1897, 12 cases among men and 60 in cattle, which were traced to a tannery handling hides imported from China. Nichols reported 26 cases occurring in persons employed in a curled-hair factory within three years.

The Federal Government recognizes the dangers by insisting upon the exclusion of rags, wool, and hides coming from districts in which there is a prevalence of cholera, anthrax, and typhus fever and the proper disinfection of such imports at all times. While anthrax is not a very common disease among American domestic animals, local pustular infections and carbuncle are by no means infrequent, and might well be guarded against, as in some of the European countries, where recourse is had to disinfection of the raw material, special blower apparatus for the removal of dust, repeated disinfection of the premises, and prompt treatment of all slight wounds and abrasions.

The material from which paper is made includes rags, burlap, old paper, and wood pulp. The rags are chiefly imported from foreign countries, arriving in a baled condition, and afterward are subjected to a number of processes which clean and disintegrate them. The "beating, or threshing," and "chopping" processes are carried on by machines and are attended by the escape of more or less dust. The quantity naturally varies with the cleanliness of the stock. In the observations of about 80 establishments, the Massachusetts Board of Health found that with the usual grade of stock, no matter what kind of "duster" or "thresher" is used, a considerable amount of dust is also evolved in the "chopping" process, and in spite of exhaust fans and dust pipes some dust will escape. The men engaged in the collection and baling of this dust are usually

provided with respirators. "In a majority of the mills visited a portion of the employees are exposed to an excessive quantity of dirt, dust, and lint; and in most of this majority the persons so exposed show not a few who are pale and sickly in appearance." A comparison of the death rates from tuberculosis, pneumonia, and bronchitis at Holyoke, the center of this industry in Massachusetts, with those of the State at large, showed "that the Holyoke rates were under rather than over the average."^(a)

OCCUPATIONS INVOLVING EXPOSURE TO POISONOUS DUST.

LEAD DUST.

All occupations in which lead is employed and in which particles of lead may be inhaled, swallowed, or absorbed by the skin must be regarded as dangerous to health. Lead poisoning in its various forms, such as the lead habit, characterized by loss of weight, anæmia, sallow skin, a blue line along the gums, offensive breath, a sweetish taste and diminished salivary secretion, lead colic, lead paralysis, wrist drop, painful affections of the lower extremities, and other grave nervous diseases, is frequently seen in artisans. It attacks persons employed in the roasting of lead ores, in the manufacture of white and red red, acetate and chromate of lead, china and pottery, artificial flowers; also painters, plumbers, varnishers, type founders, typesetters, file cutters, glass and gem cutters, electricians (especially those employed in charging storage batteries), persons engaged in enameling, dyeing, printing, working in rubber goods, weighted silk, and glazing of paper, and many other occupations involving the employment of lead.

Doctor Teleki, of Vienna, in 1906 reported several cases of lead poisoning in females and young girls, contracted in fringe making, the silk having been weighted by a solution of sugar of lead.

Of 999 employees in Prussian lead smelters during the year 1905, 177 suffered from lead colic or lead palsy, involving 3,056 days' loss of work; and of 4,789 engaged in zinc smelters, 50 of the employees, with 2,217 days' loss of work, were thus affected.

In Europe a most marked reduction in the morbidity and mortality has taken place during the past ten years, coincident with the enforcement of preventive measures. The number of cases of lead poisoning in England, where report is compulsory, has been reduced from 1,278 cases in 1898 to 592 cases in 1905. While most of the cases occurred in sugar-of-lead works and potteries, a considerable number were also reported in the other occupations already referred to. The percentage of severe cases in men was 23.9, as compared with 13.9 in females—

^a Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon the Sanitary Condition of Factories, Workshops, etc., 1907, p. 76.

perhaps because the latter have cleaner habits and possibly also stop work more promptly upon the appearance of the first symptoms.

In Paris it is estimated that over 30,000 persons are engaged in occupations involving exposure to lead, and of the 14,000 painters and varnishers employed there an average of 250 are treated annually in the hospitals for lead poisoning.

File cutters are subjected not only to an irritant dust, but also to lead poisoning, because the file in cutting is being held upon a leaden bed "and particles of lead are inhaled with the dust and may also be absorbed by the fingers in handling the stiddy." In England the mortality figure for plumbism, in 1890-1892, was no less than 75.^(a)

The greatest danger in lead works is from inhalation of the lead dust and fumes; hence a special spray apparatus and exhausters have been designed, and employees have been taught to protect their hands with gloves and the mouth and nose with respirators.

In the pottery industry, where the danger arises from the glazes, the flux being made of litharge, clay, and flint, it has been found that the danger can be very much reduced by using only 8 per cent of carbonate of lead in the form of a "double-fritted silicate," instead of the older method, in which from 13 to 24 per cent of lead carbonate was employed.

Smoking should be forbidden during the working hours, and the work should be done in a special suit, frequently washed. The hands, face, and nostrils should be thoroughly washed with soap and water upon cessation of work, and the mouth and throat rinsed with a watery solution of tartrate of ammonia before eating and drinking. The same rules are applicable to painters, who would likewise find it of benefit to soften old paints with an alkali (weak lye) before scraping and to keep the handles of tools clean from deposits.

THE LEAD INDUSTRY IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The report of the Massachusetts Board of Health gives a very complete account of the conditions which obtain in the manufacture of lead compounds in the several factories visited. "The men who attend the grinding machines are of a very different class from those who empty the stacks, and, since they are not exposed to lead dust, they do not suffer from lead poisoning and are comparatively healthy. Those who empty the stacks do not remain long at work. It is said that this is due in part to the disagreeable nature of the work, in part to the fact that they are largely roving characters who do not care to work more than a few days occasionally, and in part to the fact that they acquire lead poisoning and are obliged to quit. Even those of good intention rarely work more than a month."

^a Dangerous Trades, Oliver, 1902, p. 138.

One establishment is referred to where white lead is made by the "wet process," with no evolution of dust, and there is no history of lead poisoning. In a "red-lead" factory, also, the general process is commended, especially the absence of appreciable amounts of dust, and the intelligence of the workmen, who are mindful of the dangers and who, with an experience of 6 to 25 years, appear well and strong. In one of the lead-oxide works more or less dust escapes into the air during the transfer to the mill and packing it into barrels. The men wear respirators, and each man washes carefully and changes all his clothes before leaving the establishment. In another establishment "all of the 40 employees appeared to be in good health, and the conditions everywhere were found to be commendable."

In the lead pipe and plumbers' supplies factories the lead fumes are carried away by hoods and exhaust pipes, and in no instance was it possible to trace a case of lead poisoning to faulty methods. All of the employees observed the necessary precautions and appeared to be in good health. In the manufacture of solder the same precautions are employed, and although in the establishment described rats, cats, and dogs appear to succumb to lead poisoning only one case of lead poisoning occurred among the employees in 35 years.

In the pottery industry it is said that lead poisoning is almost unknown in the six establishments visited; only two cases occurred a few years ago in girls who applied the glaze. A possible explanation for this gratifying contrast to conditions observed in French and English potteries may be found in the fact "that the persons engaged in this industry appear to be of good intelligence, and understand thoroughly the importance of care and strict personal cleanliness, and that the employers provide ample means for its maintenance."^(a)

Wire and wire-cloth making as carried on in some of the plants visited in Massachusetts appears to be attended, in the opinion of Doctor Hanson,^(b) by "avoidable dangerous conditions." "After the wire is hardened by being run into crude oil, it is passed through kettles of molten lead inside the tempering furnaces, and is then finished and wound for shipment. From the tempering furnaces dense blue fumes arise, and envelop the men whose work it is to feed and tend them. Occasional cases of lead poisoning occur in this department. In one establishment, one of the employees of 5 years' experience shows the characteristic blue line of lead poisoning on the gums; and another, of 14 years' experience, in the same room, has a history of 'wrist-drop' and other evidence of chronic poisoning. Efficient

^a Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon the Sanitary Condition of Factories, Workshops, etc., 1907, pp. 97-101.

^b "The effect of industry on health," Boston Medical Journal, No. 14, April 4, 1907, Wm. C. Hanson.

mechanical ventilation is most necessary in this work, but it is not always provided."^(a)

Doctor Hanson, evidently referring to the same factory, writes: "All of the employees in this room worked 11 hours a day and had irregular hours for eating. There were no rules concerning the duties of the employers or those of the persons employed in order to avoid this serious danger. On the contrary, the hoods and blowers and top ventilators for the lead and other fumes were found to be distinctly inefficient, and over one large furnace there was no protection of any sort, the appliances having been broken years before and none renewed, so that all the fumes mingled at once with the air of the room."

In making shingle stains pigments like chromate of lead, zinc oxide, iron oxide, and Prussian blue are used, and in the two establishments visited the men appeared to be careless in the matter of handling the pigments. In the manufacture of paints, colors, and varnishes much of the work is done outdoors by men who have worked from 6 to 20 years; "the man who makes the lead colors has worked 17 years without sickness. The last cases of poisoning at this establishment occurred 16 years ago, when a number of inexperienced men were poisoned with Paris green." In a color and mordant factory where aniline colors, logwood, starch, sodium dichromate, etc., are used, "about one in five of the employees is noticeably pale and sallow," and inflamed eyes were not uncommon. The latter condition is ascribed to the sodium dichromate. In the manufacture of "whiting" about half of the 58 men employed in three establishments visited "looked to be in poor condition."^(b)

PRINTERS, TYPE FOUNDERS, AND TYPESETTERS.

The mortality of printers in England is high, being 1,096 per 10,000, as against 953 for all occupied males, and 602 for agriculturists.^(c) According to Schuler, of 1,000 Swiss typesetters and founders, 304.7 are annually taken sick, and of printers 250. Diseases of the digestive organs predominate (78 per 1,000). Diseases of the respiratory passages come next (75 per 1,000). Sommerfeld states that among 38 occupations tabulated by him the printers occupy the fifth rank in the number of deaths from tuberculosis. Albrecht reports that the statistics of the Berlin Sick Benefit Insurance Company covering a period of 33 years show that 48.13 per cent of the deaths among printers are caused by consumption.^(d)

^a Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon the Sanitary Condition of Factories, Workshops, etc., 1907, p. 91.

^b *Ibid.*, pp. 106, 107.

^c *Dangerous Trades*, Oliver, p. 151.

^d Roth, *Kompendium der Gewerbekrankheiten*, Berlin, p. 56.

This may be due in part to the fact that many weaklings engage in this occupation, but the work itself is often performed in most unfavorable environments and in an impure and dusty atmosphere, which has been found to contain traces of lead, arsenic, and antimony. Special attention should be paid to proper ventilation, and particularly to the collection and removal of dust from the type cases. One gram of this dust has been found to contain 57.7 mg. of lead, 186.8 mg. of antimony, and traces of arsenic.^(a) Strasser has suggested a type case with perforated tin bottom which is placed within another case, so as to facilitate the collection and proper disposition of this injurious form of dust.

A recent study of the "Health of printers," by George A. Stevens, in the Twenty-fourth Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of New York, based on the records of the International Typographical Union and the London (England) Society of Compositors, shows clearly the very high death rate from tuberculosis among printers.

The following table gives for the years 1901 to 1905 the annual death rates per 1,000 from the leading causes and from all causes among compositors in certain localities:

ANNUAL DEATH RATE PER 1,000 FROM PRINCIPAL CAUSES AND ALL CAUSES AMONG COMPOSITORS IN CERTAIN LOCALITIES, FOR THE FIVE YEARS, 1901 TO 1905.

[From Twenty-fourth Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of New York, 1906.]

Locality.	Death rate per 1,000.							All causes.
	Tuber- culosis of lungs and other respira- tory or- gans.	Pneu- monia.	Diseases of nerv- ous sys- tem.	Diseases of genito- urinary system.	Diseases of the heart.	Diseases of diges- tive sys- tem.	Acci- dents and in- juries.	
New York City.....	3.82	2.42	1.91	1.63	1.37	0.99	0.89	16.32
Other New York State.....	2.54	.97	1.49	.70	1.67	.97	.61	11.14
Total New York State.....	3.48	2.03	1.80	1.38	1.45	.98	.82	14.94
Chicago, Ill.....	2.42	1.57	1.04	.98	1.44	.45	.72	10.12
Philadelphia, Pa.....	3.65	.70	2.26	.70	1.39	.52	12.35
All other United States.....	3.38	1.07	1.33	1.02	1.37	.74	.60	12.20
Total United States.	3.34	1.30	1.44	1.08	1.39	.76	.64	12.63
London, England...	3.69	.67	1.16	.51	1.97	.51	.19	12.19

A second table gives for the same period the per cent of deaths due to tuberculosis in the selected localities for compositors and for all persons 20 years of age or over. It will be seen that in all the localities the percentage of deaths due to tuberculosis is very much higher for compositors than for all persons 20 years of age or over in the same community. For New York State outside of New York City and for London, England, the percentage for compositors is more than double that for the population 20 years of age or over as a whole.

^a *Rozsahegyi, Archiv. für Hygiene, Munich and Leipzig, vol. 3, p. 522.*

PER CENT OF DEATHS FROM TUBERCULOSIS OF THE LUNGS AND OTHER RESPIRATORY ORGANS OF PERSONS 20 YEARS OF AGE OR OVER AND OF COMPOSITORS, IN CERTAIN LOCALITIES, 1901 TO 1905.

[From the Twenty-fourth Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of New York, p. cxxv.]

Locality.	Per cent of deaths in—					
	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	Five years.
ALL PERSONS 20 YEARS OF AGE OR OVER.						
New York City.....	17.7	17.7	17.6	16.5	17.4	17.4
Other New York State.....	11.4	10.9	10.6	10.6	10.6	10.8
Total New York State.....	14.5	14.2	14.0	13.6	13.9	14.0
Chicago, Ill.....	14.9	14.6	14.5	16.0	17.0	15.4
Philadelphia, Pa.....	16.3	15.5	15.8	16.8	15.9	16.1
London, England.....	14.9	13.9	15.3	15.0	13.6	14.5
COMPOSITORS.						
New York City.....	36.5	17.0	18.2	26.6	21.1	23.4
Other New York State.....	29.2	32.3	10.5	21.4	16.0	22.8
Total New York State.....	34.9	20.8	17.1	25.5	20.1	23.3
Chicago, Ill.....	26.9	28.0	28.6	7.7	33.3	23.9
Philadelphia, Pa.....	43.8	50.0	7.1	13.3	35.7	29.6
All other United States.....	31.1	29.9	24.0	20.0	29.2	27.7
Total United States.....	32.3	27.8	22.2	24.4	27.2	26.4
London, England.....	32.0	26.2	36.4	28.2	29.1	30.2

Mr. Stevens, in commenting on the high death rate from tuberculosis among compositors, says: "Scarcely any other occupation furnishes so large a quota of victims from consumption. The domestic life of printers is parallel to that of other artisans in equal financial circumstances. As wages go in these days, they are fairly compensated for their labor, thus enabling them to have homes as healthful as may be procured by the best paid workmen in any community. Neither can it be said that compositors are ill-nourished and therefore rendered more susceptible to the insidious action of tubercle bacilli. The determining cause of their susceptibility to the harmful process of the 'great white plague' lies in a different direction—to the neglect of sanitary precautions in far too many composing rooms."

With proper attention to sanitary conditions in the composing rooms the death rate from consumption could undoubtedly be very materially reduced. The excellent results that have come from improved sanitation in workrooms appear from the mortality statistics for 1905 of the National Organization of Printers in Germany. "The average membership of the union in that year was 44,236, of whom 283, or 6.40 per 1,000, died from all causes, while 134 of the total were affected with diseases of the respiratory system, from which the death rate was 3.03,^(a) tuberculosis not being separated in the tabular presentation."^(b)

^a The corresponding death rates among compositors in New York City was 7.17; other New York State, 4.04; total New York State, 6.34; Chicago, 4.11; Philadelphia, 5.04; total United States, 5.02, and London, England, 5.50.

^b Twenty-fourth Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of New York, 1906, p. cxxxvii.

The regulations of the Federal Council of the German Empire, which control sanitary conditions in German printing houses (put into effect July 31, 1897), will indicate the means by which such low death rates have been brought about. The regulations are given in full.

I. In rooms in which persons are employed in setting up type or manufacture of type or stereotype plates the following provisions apply:

"1. The floor of workrooms must not be sunk deeper than half a meter (1.64 feet) below the ground. Exceptions may only be granted by the higher administrative authority where hygienic conditions are secured by a dry area and ample means of lighting and ventilating the rooms.

"Attics shall only be used as workrooms if the roof is underdone with lath and plaster.

"2. In workrooms in which the manufacture of type or stereotype plates is carried on the number of persons must not exceed such as would allow at least 15 cubic meters of air space (529.74 cubic feet) to each. In the rooms in which persons are employed only in other processes there must be at least 12 cubic meters of air space (423.79 cubic feet) to each person.

"In cases of exceptional temporary pressure the higher administrative authority may, on the application of the employer, permit a larger number in the workrooms for at the most 30 days in the year, but not more than will allow 10 cubic meters of air space (353.16 cubic feet) for each person.

"3. The rooms must be at least 2.60 meters (8.528 feet) in height where a minimum 15 cubic meters are allowed for each person, in other cases at least 3 meters (9.84 feet) in height.

"The rooms must be provided with windows which are sufficient in number and size to let in ample light for every part of the work. The windows must be so constructed that they will open and admit of complete renewal of air in workrooms.

"Workrooms with sloping roofs must have an average height equal to the measurements given in the first paragraph of this section.

"4. The rooms must be laid with a close-fitting impervious floor, which can be cleared of dust by moist methods. Wooden floors must be smoothly planed, and boards fitted to prevent penetration of moisture.

"All walls and ceilings must, if they are not of a smooth, washable surface or painted in oil, be lime-washed once at least a year. If the walls and ceilings are of a smooth washable surface or painted in oil, they must be washed at least once a year, and the oil paint must, if varnished, be removed once in ten years, and if not varnished, once in five years.

"The compositors' shelves and stands for type boxes must be either closely ranged round the room on the floor so that no dust can collect underneath, or be fitted with long legs so that the floor can be easily cleared of dust underneath.

"5. The workrooms must be cleaned and thoroughly aired once at least a day, and during the working hours means must be taken to secure constant ventilation.

"6. The melting vessel for type or stereotype metal must be covered with a hood provided with exhaust ventilation or chimney with sufficient draft to draw the fumes to the outer air.

"Type founding and melting may only be carried on in rooms separate from other processes.

"7. The rooms and fittings, particularly the walls, cornices, and stands for type, must be thoroughly cleaned twice a year at least. The floors must be washed or rubbed over with a damp cloth so as to remove dust once a day at least.

"8. The type boxes must be cleansed before they are put in use, and again as often as necessary, but not less than twice at least in the year.

"The boxes shall only be dusted out with a bellows in the open air, and this work shall not be done by young persons.

"9. In every workroom spittoons filled with water, and one at least for every five persons, must be provided. Workers are forbidden to spit upon the floor.

"10. Sufficient washing appliances with soap, and at least one towel a week for each worker, must be provided in or as near as possible to the workrooms for compositors, cutters, and polishers.

"One wash hand basin must be provided for every five workers, with an ample supply of water. The wash basin after its use by each person must be emptied.

"The employer must make strict provision for the use of the washing appliances by workers before every meal, and before leaving their work.

"11. Clothes put off during working hours must either be kept outside the workroom or hung up in wardrobes with closely fitting doors or curtains, which are so shut or drawn as to prevent penetration of dust.

"12. Artificial means of lighting which tend to raise the temperature of the rooms must be so arranged or provided with counteracting measures, that the heat of the workrooms shall not be unduly raised.

"13. The employer must draw up rules binding on the workers, which will insure the full observance of the provisions in sections 8, 9, 10, and 11. In an establishment where as a rule twenty people are employed these rules shall be inserted in the general factory regulations, in accordance with section 134a of the Industrial Code.

"II. In every workroom a notice must be posted, signed by the local police authority, attesting to the correctness of the statements concerning (a) the length, height, and breadth of rooms, (b) the air space in cubic measure, (c) and the number of workers permitted in each room.

"A copy of rules 1 to 13 must be affixed where it can be easily read by all persons affected."

III. Provides for the method of permitting the exceptions named above in sections 2 and 3, and makes it a condition of reduction in cubic air space for each person employed as type founder or compositor, that there shall be adequate mechanical ventilation for regulating temperature and carrying off products of combustion from workrooms.

HEALTH OF EMPLOYEES IN THE GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE, WASHINGTON.^(a)

Owing to improved hygienic conditions in modern printing offices, type foundries, and stereotype and electrotype foundries, lead poisoning now exists to a very limited extent among workers in such establishments.

In the Government Printing Office at Washington, where upwards of 4,500 employees are gathered in one building, excellent hygienic conditions prevail. Every ten minutes the air in each room is changed by a very simple device, consisting of air shafts leading from the basement to the roof, which are pierced near the ceiling in each room with suitable openings. A revolving fan placed just below the roof

^a This section relating to the "Health of employees in the Government Printing Office" was prepared by Wm. J. Manning, M. D., Chief of the Sanitary Division in the Government Printing Office, and is a reproduction of an article submitted in competition by him for a prize offered by the International Labor Office, Basel, Switzerland. The article was purchased for publication by that office on account of merit.

creates a suction, so that a constant supply of fresh air is available at all times.

The electrotype and stereotype foundries are placed on the topmost floor, the modern, rapidly moving elevators making this practicable, so far as the employees are concerned. At that height from the ground currents of air are constantly in motion, with a consequently greater diffusion of the gases than would prevail on floors nearer the ground. In the large newspaper buildings of the various cities in the United States the same idea is being carried out, these rooms being placed as high in the air as possible.

In the type founding and stereotyping trades employees whose duties call them to work over the fumes of the melting-pots are most exposed to the injurious influences of lead, although the large amount of alloy present tends to lessen the danger.

"Finishers" of the plates, who handle only the smooth, hard, bright slabs of the alloyed metal, run the least risk of lead poisoning, because the slabs are free from all oxides and there is little or no dust, the small particles which rub off the plates on the hands of the workmen being in the metallic state and perfectly dry. In contradistinction to this is the case of the painter. Here the lead, being in the form of a carbonate (white lead) and being mixed with such an excellent absorbing material as oil, the danger of lead poisoning is greatly increased.

In type foundries practically the same conditions exist as in electrotype foundries, those who work in the vicinity of the melting-pots being liable to be affected by the toxic vapors which arise therefrom. This is particularly the case where the lead is impure and contains volatile substances which, combining with the lead fumes, might possibly add to the toxic influences of the lead. Hence, in "fluxing" the metal, when wax is employed as the agent, as little as possible should be used.

Females are, as a rule, employed in this country to sort, finish, and pack the type. Here, as with the "finishers" in the electrotype foundries, the metal is bright and free from oxides, besides being largely alloyed; hence the chance of absorption with toxic results is greatly lessened. Doctor Osler has pointed out that the ratio of women susceptible to lead poisoning is small as compared with men. Why they are thus immune is hard to say; but, so far as type founding is concerned, probably the above statement indicates the cause.

With the compositor the chances of absorption of lead from the type metal by the skin is probably nil. Only a small portion of the epidermis of the fingers (the apex of the thumb and forefinger) is brought in contact with the metal both in "distributing" and in "setting," and the epidermis at these parts is in a more or less thickened, dense condition. Thus, the compositor is protected from absorbing the metal, even

when the type is covered with the hydrate which is formed by the long-continued action of air and water. It is well known that substances are absorbed but slightly, if at all, through the skin that is in a thickened condition, and since the small atoms which become separated from the metal type in one way and another are in a metallic form the chances of absorption are even more remote.

The danger to the compositor, as with the melting-pot tender, would seem to lie in inhalation. With the former the introduction into the system would be by dust, and with the latter in the form of gas.

When foreign bodies are taken into the system in a state of fine subdivision, the favorite seat will be found, as a rule, in the bronchi and the lungs. The process, so far as compositors are concerned, might be termed "plumbiosis." The dust which is not carried directly into the alveoli of the lungs by the air breathed finds lodgment on the membrane of the bronchi and their ramifications. That considerable dust is carried down the esophagus into the stomach and from there swept out into the intestines is not to be doubted. Might not these fine particles cause the "colic" or active peristalsis by the stimulation of the circular and longitudinal muscular fibers in a mechanical way on the muscles themselves or in a chemic way by a stimulation of the nerves controlling these fibers? This "colic" is one of the first symptoms complained of by the patient.

That the white blood corpuscles play an important part in carrying this finely divided substance throughout the body is also probable, the mode of action being to inclose the fine particles and try to dissolve them, and, failing in that, to transport them to distant points in the body and to the various organs. In that condition known as anthracosis, or coal-miner's consumption, the lung is found to be covered with black dust. The same conditions are found in those suffering from stonecutter's consumption, the absence of carbon rendering the pigment somewhat lighter in color. The condition is known as lithosis. In the knife and saw sharpener's trade the dust is in the form of steel and the consequent disease is known as siderosis. In each case the fine dust finds lodgment in the lungs.

The lungs become so pigmented after long exposure to these conditions, and the alveoli so congested and choked, accompanied by a low form of inflammation that the substances set up, that this, with the unhygienic surroundings and bad ventilation, might explain why so many compositors die each year from tuberculosis. Certainly the tubercle bacilli find a congenial environment in which to begin their fatal work. To the above conditions must be added, of course, the toxic influence of the lead itself, together with the persistent astringent effect of the lead on the air cells. Lead is a very feeble antiseptic and does not seem to inhibit the growth of the bacilli.

The lymph nodes very likely play an important part in carrying the lead through the body to produce plumbism. When lymph nodes become loaded with foreign material of any nature they are apt to break down and the circulation carries the substances to various parts of the body. This would seem to explain the peculiar color of those suffering from plumbism, and it might explain why the kidneys become so irritated and why albumin is found in the urine. Certain tissues seem to have an affinity for the lead thus carried and it is deposited in them. The blue line on the gums, which is pathognomonic of lead poisoning, may be the result of this. It may be that sulphur, which has such a strong affinity for lead and which might be taken into the mouth in articles of food and drink, causes this pigmentation. It is strange that the blue line does not make its appearance on any other part of the body. Certain it is that potassium sulphide when added to a bath will bring out this pigment over the entire body, which remains until the lead in the skin is either eliminated or the affinity is satisfied.

Lead poisoning in the chronic form, as already stated, is very rare among type foundrymen, electrotypers, stereotypers, and in the printing trades in this country. It may present itself in the regular type or the symptoms may be hidden. The characteristic symptoms are the blue line on the gums, and the wrist drop, due to the paralysis of the extensors of the forearms. In some cases it first makes its appearance in anæmia and in a loss of strength. Anæsthesia may appear in spots on different parts of the body, the spots varying in size from that of a half dollar to that of the hand. They may appear on the arms, legs, or on the back. In some cases these symptoms are entirely absent. Albumin may appear in the urine. Doctor Osler describes cases that have come under his care where the symptoms resembled gout and rheumatism. The joints would swell and become very red and tender, the patient suffering all the while intense pain. Doctor Wood mentions cases where the symptoms resembled acute poliomyelitis. In other cases there was simply a failure of health, anæmia, nervous phenomena, etc., the patient having ill-defined, sharp, shooting pains. The pain from the colic seems to radiate from the umbilicus in all instances. Arteriosclerosis has been noticed, with atrophy of the kidneys and hypertrophy of the heart, the enlargement of the latter organ probably being due to its redoubled effort to force the blood through the various contracted distal organs. This contraction may be due, in a measure, to the astringent action of the lead which is noticed upon all tissues when lead is applied in its various forms.

The treatment in these cases may be divided into the preventive and curative, the former relating, of course, only to the trades mentioned in this article. Among the measures which might be taken in the prevention of plumbism in the printing, type founding, and electrotyping and stereotyping trades would be, first of all, the location.

The rooms devoted to the melting of type metal should be situated as high as possible, on the topmost floor of the building, and the ceilings should be at least 10 feet from the floor. Windows should be placed on both sides of the room, so that a current of air may be in constant motion and a fresh supply always on hand. In winter or bad weather a very simple way to obtain fresh air consists in placing a board 3 or 4 inches high lengthwise under the lower window sash. This will enable the fresh air to enter between the lower and upper sashes without causing a direct draft on the workmen. The pots should be covered with iron hoods that will cover the entire top of the melting-pot proper. The hoods should set as near the metal as possible, in such a way that they will not interfere with the manipulation of the ladles or dippers. Hoods with small pipes when used as fume chambers do not answer. It has been found that to be of any service or benefit, the pipe leading from the hood or fume chamber should be nearly as large as the chamber itself and should lead to a smoke chimney or into the outside air. The heat generated should supply draft enough to carry the fumes off in this way. It might be aided by placing a revolving, circular ventilator in the pipe from the outside to be operated by the wind. The whole thing might be made very cheaply of galvanized iron. Various face masks have been suggested, but none seems to be practical, and after a mask is worn for some time it really becomes a greater danger than if it had not been used, owing to the lack of cleanliness. Cotton and such substances in the nose are useless, because the workman will then breathe through his mouth.

The personal treatment on the part of the workman should be a change of underclothing after work, a bath at least three times a week in hot water with plenty of soap, and at the same time the vigorous application of a flesh brush to the skin. The object here is twofold—to keep the pores free and to remove any particles that may have lodged there, and hence lessen the danger of absorption, while at the same time helping the pores to eliminate that which has been absorbed. The bowels should be kept open by the use of such simple laxatives as sweet oil, castor oil, calomel and soda, etc. An electro-typer who has been in the business for some forty years, and who is now the chief of the largest foundry in the world, informed the writer that it was his custom to take a teaspoonful of sweet oil every other day and that he had never suffered from any ill effects of plumbism.

So far as compositors are concerned the preventive treatment just described would apply to them. The principal danger here is the bad ventilation, insanitary surroundings, and the dust (principally graphite and minute particles of type metal) which becomes detached by the abrasion of the pieces against each other while being handled. To offset this, "cases" should be blown out by a) at least once each week; if possible, in the oper) the bot) different

boxes, instead of being flat and square cornered and covered with paper, should be slightly concave at the bottom, with the corners rounded, somewhat like a cash till, the idea being to keep the dust from lodging in the corners, where it is difficult to remove even with a bellows. In cases constructed in this manner the dust is, by its own weight, constantly working its way toward the center of each box, where it can easily be removed.

A practical method of removing the caked dust is in vogue in the Government Printing Office at Washington. The type forms after leaving the electrotype foundry are placed on a raised rack which drains into a shallow tank some 6 inches in depth, a pipe connecting this with a sewer. The forms are placed in a horizontal position—that is to say, the side of the chase rests on the rack. Steam under pressure is conducted by a rubber hose and the face of the type is thoroughly “blown,” as is the reverse of the form. Later, when the forms are unlocked, the pages are tied up and placed in the “boiling chamber.” This chamber consists of a zinc-lined box about 6 feet in length, 4 feet wide, and 4 feet high, a trapdoor at the top being the only opening. In the bottom is placed a coil of steam pipe which covers the entire floor of the box, one end of the pipe being left open. The pages of type are placed on shallow perforated trays somewhat like a “galley,” each tray fitting in a copper rack, consisting simply of two loops of copper, somewhat like an inverted U, with pins attached on which the trays set. Each rack holds eight pages, or a “signature,” on eight trays. After the box is filled, steam is turned on and the type is thoroughly boiled for an hour or more. The pages are lifted in and out by means of hooks. This method not only removes the graphite, but disintegrates the type and “loosens” it, permitting easy distribution. It also leaves the type very clean and aseptic, lessening the chances of infection by the absence of germs. The method of letting cold water run on the forms and thus cleansing them is not so thorough, because the graphite “cakes” and clings to the type and the dust is thrown into the compositor’s case with the type, making the cases very dusty and dirty. Each compositor should supply himself with a small brush, suitable for the hands, to be used each time he washes.

In acute cases of lead poisoning the treatment consists in the administration of alkaline carbonates, soap, soluble sulphates, sodium chloride, etc., washing out the stomach with large drafts of water, etc. Alum has been given, and at one time was considered almost a specific. Sweet oil and castor oil will be found useful. Milk should be taken in large quantities. The idea is first to combat the symptoms and then eliminate the lead. Opium can be given for pain. Warm sulphureted baths are very beneficial. They can be made by *dissolving 4 ounces of potassium sulphide in 30 gallons of water in a*

wooden tub. These baths discolor the skin, from the formation of lead sulphide, and should be repeated every few days until this effect ceases. During each bath the patient should be well washed with soap and water to remove discoloration.

A melting pot is attached to each of the various kinds of typesetting machines, and where many machines are in use, unless there is plenty of pure air constantly entering the room and perfect ventilation provided, the fumes from each pot should be conducted by pipes to a chamber in which there is a vacuum, so that the fumes may be instantly removed and carried out into the atmosphere. The virtue of the machine, so far as health is concerned, lies in the fact of the absence of dust, with the additional advantage that the operator does not lay himself open to exposure in handling the metal to so great a degree as in the case of the hand compositor.

There are other alloys that would take the place of lead in type metal, but owing to the excessive cost and high fusing point their use is not practical.

From a sanitary point of view the collection, cleaning, and disinfection of the spittoons in the Government Printing Office is a matter of considerable importance. This will be readily understood when it is remembered that there are over 4,500 persons engaged during the 24 hours, all working in eight-hour shifts, and that no fewer than 1,200 cuspidors must be cleaned at the end of each shift.

The method now being installed under Doctor Manning's direction effects this without direct digital contact. It consists in a central sterilizing chamber situated in the basement of the Printing Office, with a cement floor, graded toward the center and made up of two inclines and one shallow gutter, i. e., concavity or semilunar groove, in the cement floor under each of six movable iron longitudinal racks extending lengthwise of the room. These racks consist simply of 1-inch angle-iron strips $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch in thickness, arranged in tiers, 13 inches apart, from which hang suspended at intervals of 9 inches steel-wire spring clutches, secured by a nut and bolt through the eye of the clutch and bolted firmly to the underside of the angle iron. All edges, angles, corners, and returns of the floor are well rounded and each of the four walls has a 12-inch "sanitary base" in order that all parts of the room may be self cleansing and draining. The walls of the sterilizing chamber are composed of white, glazed, vitrified brick.

The wire clutch is shaped somewhat like an inverted letter U, and grasps the cuspidor around the constricted portion or neck when the latter is pressed against the orifice or bell-shaped opening at the bottom of the spring. This spring permits both expansion and contraction around the neck of the cuspidor, and has a sufficient grasp to hold the cuspidor firmly in place while it is subjected to internal and

external washing with a stream of hot water from a hose. After thorough cleansing, the cuspidors are subjected to the action of superheated steam, by which all forms of vegetable and organic life are killed, even the most resistant spore-bearing disease germs.

The cuspidors are collected in the workrooms by a mechanical device or holder so designed as to clutch and "nest" at one time five of the soiled cuspidors, one above the other, and are carried directly, by means of the holder, to specially designed wooden, zinc-lined box trucks with detachable sides. Each truck is capable of holding 175 cuspidors for transmission to the sterilizing chamber. As five soiled cuspidors are taken to the truck they are replaced by five sterilized cuspidors picked up and distributed by the same mechanism, all of which is accomplished by the operator by the use of one hand only.

After the trucks are filled they are transmitted from the respective floors to the basement on a freight elevator and wheeled directly into the sterilizing chamber. Here one of the sides of the box truck is removed, and the operator, by the use of another specially designed forceps, reaches out and grasps the lip of a cuspidor, lifts it free, and with a pronation or twist of the wrist empties the vessel. At the same time, with an upward movement, still grasping the forceps, he brings the constricted part of the cuspidor against the bottom of the wire clutch, which receives and holds it in the manner already described.

When the racks have been thus filled the operator faces the front of the racks or mouths of the cuspidors and directs a stream of boiling hot water into and against the cuspidors. The same method is pursued from the rear of each respective rack, and thus a large number of cuspidors are quickly cleaned in a thorough and absolutely sanitary manner.

As soon as this operation has been completed the floor is thoroughly flushed with hot water and all foreign matter is carried into the sewer by means of two centrally located waste outlets protected by a back-pressure valve.

The door of the sterilizing chamber is built on the order of a bulkhead door of a steamer; it is closed with a swivel "keeper" and is steam tight.

For economic reasons an exhaust steam pipe is tapped and a branch carried into the top of the sterilizing chamber. This pipe has a number of apertures on the underside and quickly fills the room with steam, coming from above downward.

The sterilization is continued for one hour at a temperature of about 100° centigrade. At the expiration of this period the steam is turned off and the air shaft leading to the roof opened for the escape of steam and to aid condensation, thus quickly ridding the room of all vapor. The door of the chamber is then opened, and the operator,

after the cuspidors have cooled, plucks them from the rack with his hands and proceeds to place layer after layer in trucks until the latter are full.

When a layer is laid in a truck, he pours in a solution made up of bichloride of mercury, 7.3 grains; citric acid, 7.7 grains, to each liter (1.06 quart) of water, colored with fuchsine to differentiate the solution. This gives a strength, approximately, of 1 part of the chemicals to 2,000 parts of water, sufficient to destroy whatever infectious germs may find their way into the cuspidors through expectoration or otherwise.

The bichloride is used for its germicidal power, while the citric acid is added to retard the coagulation of the albumin in the saliva and expectoration and thus render the action of the bichloride of mercury more potent.

The entire cost of the chemical disinfectants named amounts to less than \$12 per annum.

The cuspidors are specially designed to permit of easy cleaning and self-draining. Angles which would interfere with the cleaning process have been avoided, and the stream of water will readily reach all the internal surfaces. The constriction or neck is sufficiently wide to permit the stream of the hose to enter with full force. A certain amount of constriction at the neck seemed desirable to hide the contents of cuspidor when in use. They were designed, however, with the special object of easy cleaning and without direct digital contact, because it would seem almost inhuman to ask a cleaner to place his hand, containing even a sponge, in the ordinary stock cuspidor and wash the interior in a thorough and sanitary manner. All of this repulsive work has been avoided, so that by the new method the operator does not touch the cuspidor with his hands until he plucks the washed and sterilized vessel from the rack and places it in the truck.

Hard vitrified china ware has been used to construct the cuspidors, as this is the only material that will withstand the corrosive action of bichloride of mercury and at the same time present a smooth surface for sanitary cleansing.

Approximately about 3,800 barrels of sawdust have been used each year for spitboxes in the Government Printing Office, at a cost of about \$100 per month. While, of course, this item will be saved, together with the cost of handling and carting away the foul and polluted sawdust, the main object has been to reduce to a minimum the danger of infection through tuberculous sputa among the employees.^(a)

^a All the mechanical devices mentioned above were designed by Doctor Manning.

The table following shows the number of cases, both surgical and medical, receiving treatment at the emergency room of the Government Printing Office during the period of 26 months from January 1, 1906, to February 29, 1908:

NUMBER OF CASES RECEIVING TREATMENT AT THE GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE EMERGENCY ROOM FROM JANUARY 1, 1906, TO FEBRUARY 29, 1908.

Character of case.	Year 1906.			Year 1907.			January and February, 1908.		
	Number of cases.	Re-summed work.	Sent home.	Number of cases.	Re-summed work.	Sent home.	Number of cases.	Re-summed work.	Sent home.
SURGICAL.									
Poisoned wounds:									
Right hand.....	4	4		6	6		2	2	
Left hand.....	5	5		6	6		7	7	
Left leg.....	2	2		3	3				
Right leg.....	1	1							
Right forearm.....	2	2					2	2	
Left forearm.....				1	1				
Left foot.....							2	2	
Sprain:									
Back.....	2	1	1	4	2	2	2	1	1
Left wrist.....	3	3		4	4		2	2	
Right wrist.....	3	3		2	2		3	3	
Ankle.....	2	1	1	7	4	3	1	1	
Thumb.....	1	1		1	1				
Injured wounds:									
Left arm.....				1	1		1	1	
Left hand.....	16	14	2	22	18	4	15	14	1
Right hand.....	7	7		15	14	1	8	8	
Right forearm.....	1	1		1	1				
Forehead.....				1	1				
Burn, first degree:									
Left hand.....	1	1		5	5		3	3	
Right hand.....	4	4		2	2		2	2	
Chest.....	1	1							
Forehead.....	2	2		1	1				
Right arm.....	3	3		2	2				
Left forearm.....							1	1	
Both hands.....							1	1	
Forehead, scalp, and ear.....							1	1	
Left foot.....							1	1	
Burn, second degree:									
Left hand.....	1	1		3	3				
Right hand.....	3	3		4	4				
Right arm.....	1	1		3	3				
Left foot.....				1	1				
Burn, third degree:									
Left hand.....				1		1			
Punctured wounds:									
Right forearm.....	1	1							
Right foot.....	2	2		2	2				
Left foot.....	1	1							
Left hand.....	8	8		3	3		1	1	
Right hand.....	9	9		3	3		3	3	
Forehead.....				1	1				
Scalp.....							1	1	
Lower lip.....				1	1				
Contused wounds:									
Ribs.....	1	1							
Left forearm.....	3	3		1	1		1	1	
Right forearm.....	2	2		1	1		2	2	
Left hand.....	16	14	2	12	10	2	4	4	
Right hand.....	13	13		13	13		1	1	
Right foot.....	8	8		8	8		2	2	
Left foot.....				2	2		3	3	
Left leg.....	4	4		4	4				
Both legs.....				1	1				
Left shoulder.....	1	1							
Left elbow, right hand, left knee.....	1	1							
Face.....	1	1							
Forehead.....	2	2		2	2		2	2	
Scalp.....	5	4	1	4	4				
Lacerated wounds:									
Forehead.....	2	2		4	4		1	1	
Scalp.....	2	2		4	4		1	1	
Left hand.....	13	11	2	20	17	3	11	10	

NUMBER OF CASES RECEIVING TREATMENT AT THE GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE EMERGENCY ROOM FROM JANUARY 1, 1906, TO FEBRUARY 29, 1908—Cont'd.

Character of case.	Year 1906.			Year 1907.			January and February, 1908.		
	Number of cases.	Re-summed work.	Sent home.	Number of cases.	Re-summed work.	Sent home.	Number of cases.	Re-summed work.	Sent home.
SURGICAL—concluded.									
Lacerated wounds—Concluded.									
Right hand.....	14	10	4	18	16	2	1	1	
Left leg.....	4	4		2	1	1			
Right leg.....	1	1		2	2				
Right forearm.....	7	7		4	4				
Left forearm.....				2	2				
External canthus eye.....							1	1	
Removal foreign body:									
Spiculae lead from hand.....							1	1	
Splinters, wood, from hand.....				2	2				
Splinters, wood, from sole of foot.....	1	1							
Fractures:									
Left patella.....	1		1						
Third toe, right foot.....	1	1							
Lower third radius (Colles's) right hand.....							1		1
Dislocations:									
Left shoulder.....	1		1						
Right thumb.....	1	1					1	1	
Left hip.....							1		1
Strangulated hernia.....	1		1	1		1			
Burn, cornea, right eye.....	1	1		2	2				
Burn, cornea, left eye.....	1	1							
Foreign body in larynx.....	2	2					1	1	
Acid burn, eye.....				1	1				
Ochritis (injury).....				1	1				
Foreign body in eye.....	26	26		15	15		10	10	
Total.....	222	206	16	232	212	20	104	99	5
MEDICAL.									
Diarrhea.....	27	27		16	16		4	4	
Vertigo.....	5	5		5	5		3	2	1
Heart failure.....	8	5	3	15	3	2	3	1	2
Intestinal colic.....	28	28		23	23		10	9	1
Ptomaine poisoning.....	2		2	1		1	1		1
Apoplexy.....	3		3	1		1	1		1
Acute indigestion.....	9	9		7	7		3	3	
Trifacial neuralgia.....	17	17		10	10		4	4	
Syncope.....	24	22	2	16	15	1	10	10	
Cephalgia.....	15	15		16	16		6	6	
Renal colic.....	2	2					1		1
Hepatic colic.....	4		2	4	2	2			
Epistaxis.....	5	5							
Hysteria.....	6	6		9	9		6	6	
Odontalgia.....	4	4		8	8				
Acute gastritis.....	4	1	3	3		3	2		2
Conjunctivitis.....	4	4		5	5		3	3	
Asthenia.....	2		2				2	1	1
Dysmenorrhœa.....	21	21		18	18		5	5	
Menorrhagia.....	9	7	2	5	4	1	2	2	
Acute myalgia or muscle spasm.....	5	5		8	8		3	3	
Otagia.....	2	2		2	2		2	2	
Acute phlebitis.....				2	1	1	1	1	
Bronchial asthma (acute paroxysm).....	1	1		3	2	1	1	1	
Extreme nervousness.....	5	4	1	12	10	2	7	7	
Heat exhaustion.....	5	3	2	3	3				
Retention of urine.....				1	1				
Nervous prostration.....	2	1	1						
Convulsions.....	2	1	1	3	1	2			
Malingering.....	3	3							
Pseudo angina pectoris.....	3	1	2	1	1				
Enteritis.....	4	1	3	2		2			
Intercostal neuralgia.....	8	8		3	3		1	1	
Tonsillitis (no treatment).....	1		1						
Tachycardia.....	3	3		1		1			
Influenza (no treatment).....	3	1	2				3		3
Migraine.....	4	4		2	2				
Nervous chill.....	3	3		2	2		2	2	
Nervous collapse.....	4	2	2	2	2		3	3	
Congestion of lungs.....				1			1		
Lead colic.....	4	2	2	5	3	2			

* Not including 3 persons who dropped dead from heart failure in 1907.

NUMBER OF CASES RECEIVING TREATMENT AT THE GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE EMERGENCY ROOM FROM JANUARY 1, 1906, TO FEBRUARY 29, 1908—Concl'd.

Character of case.	Year 1906.			Year 1907.			January and February, 1908.		
	Number of cases.	Re-summed work.	Sent home.	Number of cases.	Re-summed work.	Sent home.	Number of cases.	Re-summed work.	Sent home.
MEDICAL—concluded.									
Acute pharyngitis.....	5	5		5	5		1		1
Acute pleurisy.....	1		1						
Synovitis.....	2	2					1		1
Gastralgia.....	7	7		4	4		6	6	
Bursitis.....				1	1				
Epileptic fit.....							1	1	
Poisoning.....							1		1
Uncertain diagnosis.....	2	2		1	1				
Total.....	278	240	38	216	193	23	99	83	16

^a Not including 3 persons who dropped dead from heart failure in 1907.

The above table shows 558 surgical and 593 medical cases, a total of 1,151 cases receiving treatment. There were 4,556 employees in the building.

ARSENICAL DUST.

Arsenic is used in the manufacture of green pigments such as arsenite of copper (Scheele's green) and aceto-arsenite of copper (Schweinfurt or Paris green). These pigments are used in connection with wall paper, box, and card factories, the cretonne industry, and artificial flowers, possibly also in other occupations. White arsenic is also used in the manufacture of shot, preservation of furs, and in taxidermy, and for many other purposes.

In the manufacture of arsenate of lead in Massachusetts no objectionable features were observed. (^a) Reference has already been made on page 493 to cases of poisoning with Paris green.

One of the factory inspectors of East London reported last year a number of cases of arsenical poisoning in persons engaged in the manufacture of a powder used in a "dip" for scabby sheep. The powder contained arsenic in large amounts and was packed in a dry state in paper boxes. Arsenical dust may be inhaled, but more frequently absorption takes place through the skin, and causes a train of symptoms, characterized by derangements of the stomach, sore mouth, dry tongue, thirst, and a burning sensation in the throat. In the majority of instances the symptoms become chronic, lasting for months and years, and terminating in a general breakdown of the system, preceded by skin eruptions, obstinate ulcers, and inflammation of the peripheral nerves.

In the prevention of injurious effects, special attention must be paid to wet processes; so, for example, the dusting of green pigments in the

^a Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon the Sanitary Condition of Factories, Workshops, etc., 1907, p. 104.

manufacture of artificial leaves and flowers from a dredging box is wholly unjustifiable. As a matter of fact the use of arsenical pigments should be dispensed with by the substitution of coal-tar colors. The hands should always be protected with rubber gloves and the air passages with respirators, and strict cleanliness of the skin and clothing should be observed.

OCCUPATIONS INVOLVING EXPOSURE TO IRRITATING OR POISONOUS GASES OR VAPORS.

A large number of occupations involve the inhalation of irritating and even poisonous gases and fumes. The danger may be very much reduced by proper factory sanitation, such as (1) condensation; (2) absorption by water or chemicals; (3) destructive distillation by heat in a closed vessel; (4) combustion of gases that can be burned; (5) forced ventilation and the discharge of gases into the air at a great height. In addition to these precautions much attention must be paid on the part of the operatives themselves to personal hygiene and the use of respirators. Many of the employees in so-called dangerous trades do not always avail themselves of the safeguards offered and are opposed to the use of respirators. Mention is first made of the less injurious but nevertheless irritating gases and fumes, like sulphur dioxide, hydrochloric acid and nitrous fumes, ammonia, and chlorine, which in small amounts cause more or less irritation of the air passages and a tickling cough, while in a more concentrated form they are productive of acute and chronic catarrhs and constitutional symptoms.

SULPHUR DIOXIDE.

This gas is believed to be a blood poison, on account of its affinity for oxygen. It is evolved in smelting works, match factories, and in the manufacture of sulphuric acid. It is also used as a bleaching agent for cotton goods and straw hats and in the preparation of hops and dried fruit. The employees, if not primarily in good health, are said to suffer from respiratory and digestive disorders, heartburn, and pain in the stomach, and are frequently sallow and anæmic. A gradual tolerance may be established, and the danger is very slight if free ventilation is provided. When evolved in the open air, and hence largely diluted, it does not produce any injurious effects, except in very susceptible persons; indeed the people around Vesuvius told Doctor De Chaumont that the sulphur fumes are good for their health.

The Massachusetts Board of Health found that in the straw-hat factories visited in Massachusetts "the employees are exposed to the sulphur fumes only when the doors are opened for the removal of the stock, but they do not enter until the fumes have escaped or have been driven out." The men do not wear respirators in this or the other process of bleaching, which is done by immersion of the stock.

chemical water bath. "The men who were interviewed state that neither process causes anything more than a temporary irritation of the throat, and that many of them have worked in this department for many years."^(a)

HYDROCHLORIC ACID.

Hydrochloric-acid vapors are evolved from alkali works and in the pickling process of galvanizing works or otherwise, and, apart from being destructive to vegetation around the immediate vicinity, are also very irritating, and even in small volumes may produce inflammation of the eyes and of the respiratory passages. In a more concentrated form they have produced caustic effects on the tips and edges of the tongue, ulcerations of the nasal wall and throat, bronchial catarrh, pneumonia, difficult breathing, and stupor. Lehmann^(b) considers the extreme limit to which these vapors may be contained in the air as 1/10 of volume per 1,000. Pettenkoffer,^(c) on the other hand, states that as much as 1 part per 1,000 can be borne by those accustomed to it. The workmen in galvanizing works are also subjected to fumes arising from the sal ammoniac thrown upon the molten zinc. These fumes are to some more insupportable than the acid fumes. Persons with bronchial troubles are often obliged to discontinue the work. In an investigation of three galvanizing establishments in Boston, the Massachusetts Board of Health found that in two the ventilation was efficient and the fumes are rapidly carried off. "The workmen in all three, about 60 in all, appeared to enjoy good health, and asserted that, beyond sneezing and coughing at times, they suffered no inconvenience or discomfort."

SULPHURIC AND NITRIC ACIDS.

The fumes of sulphuric and nitric acids probably produce similar effects. Eulenberg^(d) believes, however, that the fumes of sulphuric acid produce no special bad effects, because they sink very readily and have a great affinity for the water in the air, so that they reach the system in a highly diluted form. He also points out that the nitrous fumes generated by contact of nitric acid with metals are more injurious, in that they produce a special predisposition to bronchitis, while pneumonia and diseases of the eye have also been attributed to these gases.

^a Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon the Sanitary Condition of Factories, Workshops, etc., Boston, 1907, p. 114.

^b Lehmann: *Archiv. für Hygiene*, vol. 5.

^c Cited by Harrington, *Practical Hygiene*, 1901, p. 656.

^d *Handbuch der Gewerbehygiene*, Berlin, 1876, p. 143.

The workmen should be instructed to avoid the fumes as much as possible and to moisten the lips and nose within and without several times a day. Protection should be afforded by ample ventilation, and all processes involving the evolution of irritating or poisonous fumes should be carried on in the open air or in open sheds.

According to the Massachusetts Board of Health the corrosive acids are made in such a way that practically no fumes whatever escape, the work being inclosed from beginning to end. In one of the largest chemical factories in Massachusetts, where 300 men are employed, it is said that the workmen "are exposed very little to poisonous or irritating fumes and dust or contact with poisonous or irritating substances. At certain points in the building acid fumes in considerable strength are constantly present, but at these points there is good overhead ventilation, and the workmen are rarely obliged to approach very near."^(a)

Among the products of the above-mentioned factory may be mentioned hydrochloric, sulphuric, nitric, and acetic acids, ammonia, sodium sulphite, sodium sulphate, alum, potassium cyanide, ferrous sulphate, and other iron and sodium salts; also various salts of tin, arsenic, antimony, zinc, copper, etc.

AMMONIA.

Ammonia rarely causes any serious disturbance, except a temporary irritation of the respiratory tract, unless present in very large volumes. The amount which may be present, according to Lehmann, should not exceed 0.5 per 1,000. A large volume has been known to cause inflammation of the eyes and bronchial catarrh, while still greater concentrations, which fortunately are rare, may produce difficult breathing and emphysema.

CHLORINE GAS.

Chlorine gas is generally present in the manufacture of chlorinated lime, glazed bricks, and in bleaching operations, and is very apt to produce, when present in the proportion of 1 to 5 parts in 100,000 of air, a cachectic condition, asthma, bronchitis, caries of the teeth, and acne or pimples upon the face, while in a more concentrated form—40 to 60 parts in 100,000—it produces a violent cough and extreme difficulty in breathing.

Hirt describes these attacks as follows: "In spite of the aid of the auxiliary respiratory muscles the entrance of the air to the lungs is insufficient, and the staring eyes, the livid lips, and the cold, clammy perspiration plainly show the mortal agony of the patient. The

^a Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon Sanitary Conditions of Factories, Workshops, etc., 1907, p. 103.

pulse is small and temperature decreased. These phenomena disappear upon removal to the fresh air, and a few hours later the workman is found enveloped in chlorine and hydrochloric acid vapors in his accustomed place in the factory. The attacks seem to be but rarely fatal, unless the volume exceeds 60 parts per 100,000."

BLEACHING ESTABLISHMENTS.

The Massachusetts Board of Health, in its summary of five bleachingeries, with about 1,200 employees, speaks approvingly of the general arrangements for ventilation and says: "The odors of bleaching powders, although observable in each of the rooms where that substance is employed, were in no case so strong as to be disagreeable or to cause discomfort." In one of the establishments the persons exposed to the lint dust which escapes during unbalancing and stitching together of the cotton cloth all looked pale and sickly.^(a)

IODINE AND BROMINE VAPORS.

Iodine and bromine vapors may produce toxic symptoms. The fumes of iodine are liable to cause catarrhal conditions of the nose, eyes, and air passages, and frequent headaches, while chronic iodine poisoning produces a cachectic condition, wasting of the testicles, and loss of sexual power. Persons engaged in the manufacture of bromine are said to suffer quite frequently with a form of bronchial asthma, dizziness, and general weakness, while concentrated vapors have been known to produce spasm of the glottis and suffocation.

Bromine preparations are used to a considerable extent in photography. Schuler^(b) describes three cases, one of which proved fatal, in men who prepared "brommetyl" from wood alcohol and sulphuric acid. In all of these three cases there were pronounced symptoms of nausea, spasms, and trembling of the extremities and diminished bodily temperature.

TURPENTINE.

Turpentine vapors in excess may produce gastric and pulmonary catarrh, slow and painful micturition and bloody urine, headache, roaring in the ears, and other nervous symptoms. Schuler observed among the workers in calico printing marked emaciation, loss of appetite, rapid pulse, and more or less headache, which he attributed to the turpentine vapors. Small quantities of the vapor produce no unpleasant symptoms. The odor of violets in the urine is one of the remarkable effects. The use of impure turpentine for cleaning purposes has been known to produce obstinate eczema of the hands.

^a Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon Sanitary Conditions of Factories, Workshops, etc., 1907, pp. 108, 109.

^b Deutsche Viertelj. f. öff. Gesundheitspflege, Bd. 31, p. 698.

PETROLEUM.

Concentrated vapors of coal oil are said to produce loss of sensation, and the workmen in refineries occasionally show symptoms like those observed in drunken persons, fall into a profound sleep, or suffer from loss of memory, dizziness, headache, and chronic bronchial catarrhs. Pustular, furuncular, and eczematous affections of the hands are also quite common in persons handling this and paraffin oil. The latter is also true of persons handling creosote and tar, unless protected by impermeable gloves. The dangers from explosions in the petroleum industry must also be guarded against.

BENZINE VAPORS.

Dr. Neisser, in 1907, reports an instance where three laborers in a carpet-cleaning establishment in which large quantities of benzine had been used were found unconscious upon the floor and had to be restored by oxygen inhalation. The toxic symptoms are similar to those produced by concentrated petroleum vapors, and the danger from explosions and fire are of course even greater.

CARBON MONOXIDE.

Carbon monoxide, or coal gas, when present in sufficient amount paralyzes, so to speak, the red corpuscles by depriving them of their oxygen and, by combining with the hæmoglobin, results in deficiency of oxygen in the blood and serious toxic symptoms, which may end in death by producing a rapid parenchymatous degeneration of the liver, spleen, and heart. This gas is often present in gas and smelting works and around coke or charcoal furnaces; 0.4 per cent by volume in the air will produce toxic symptoms, and more than 1 per cent is rapidly fatal to animal life. The workmen sometimes, though not so often as is supposed, suffer from the chronic form of poisoning, such as headache, dizziness, slow pulse, anæmia, general debility, and diseases of the respiratory and digestive organs. The acute symptoms of coal-gas poisoning are increased respiration and pulse, violent headache, dizziness, and roaring in the ears. These are soon followed by symptoms of depression, nausea and vomiting, numbness, drowsiness, muscular relaxation, paralysis, sighing respiration, slowness of the pulse and feeble heart action, dilation of the pupils, diminished bodily temperature, and, if continued, convulsions, stertorous breathing, and death by suffocation. If death does not occur, the patient is apt to suffer for some time from headache, physical and mental depression, paralysis of speech and of the sphincters, convulsive twitching, and general muscular weakness, while pleurisy and pneumonia are also frequent.

CARBONIC-ACID GAS.

The chronic effect of carbonic-acid gas has already been alluded to. Well sinkers and miners are occasionally suffocated owing to the presence of a large volume of this gas evolved from the soil and which has collected in deep shafts. It is one of the constituents of the "choke damp" in the mines and also present in cellars. It is also a product of fermentative processes, and the anæmic and debilitated conditions of miners, vintners, distillers, brewers, and yeast makers is believed to be partly due to an excess of carbonic acid, which diminishes the amount of oxygen in the air. The acute symptoms are loss of consciousness and locomotion, generally preceded by difficulty in breathing, headache, depression, drowsiness or mental excitement, and sometimes convulsions. Prompt removal of the patient into fresh air will lead to rapid recovery.

CARBON DISULPHIDE.

Carbon disulphide is used in certain processes in the manufacture of vulcanized india rubber and also in the extraction of fats, and may produce in those constantly exposed to it headache, dizziness, impaired vision, pains in the limbs, formication, sleeplessness, nervous depression, loss of appetite, etc. Sometimes, according to Delpesch and Hirt, there is cough, febrile attacks, deafness, difficult breathing, loss of memory, paralysis of the legs and lower part of the body, and loss of sexual power, which has been preceded by increased sexual appetite and mental exaltation.

NAPHTHA.

Naphtha is used in the same industries, and it is not improbable that the symptoms are produced by the combined influence of the two fumes. At all events, there are a number of authenticated cases of acute naphtha poisoning characterized by dyspnœa, dizziness, and mental confusion, with vomiting, palpitation of the heart, and hemorrhages in the fatal cases. Necropsies reveal evidence of fatty degeneration of the heart, liver, kidneys, and other parts. The cleaners of woolen goods, etc., with naphtha not infrequently suffer from dizziness, nausea, vomiting, headache, sleeplessness, hysteria, and symptoms resembling alcoholic intoxication. (See also page 515.)

NITROBENZOL.

Nitrobenzol, which is used in making aniline and in the manufacture of roburite and other explosives, produces headache, dyspnœa, drowsiness, dizziness, nausea and vomiting, great depression, and stupor, and often causes death.

The majority of workers in dinitro compounds in Great Britain^(a) are anæmic and suffer from difficulty in breathing and general weakness. They are subject to a biweekly medical inspection and are enjoined (1) not to touch these compounds with bare hands; (2) to keep the feet in good condition, (a) by bathing, (b) by shoes in good repair; (3) to avoid alcoholic beverages, and (4) to thoroughly wash their hands before eating and to change their clothing upon quitting work.

DYEING AND CLEANSING.

Among the chemical substances employed are naphtha, gasoline, wood alcohol, ammonia, various acids, bleaching agents, iron, copper, and other salts, aniline dyes and other dyestuffs.

The Massachusetts Board of Health reported of one large establishment investigated:

"In the naphtha-cleansing department, * * * [in spite of mechanical ventilation], there is a strong odor of naphtha, and all of the men here employed are pale and some of them very markedly sick looking. In the room in which the naphtha-cleansed goods are dried, at a temperature of about 120° F., the naphtha fumes are very strong. Although the men who bring in the goods remain but a few minutes, some have occasionally been temporarily overcome by the fumes and have shown the characteristic excitement and hysterical symptoms of naphtha intoxication. At the time of visit, the man who does most of this work had been engaged thereat for three months and had experienced no ill effects."^(b)

RUBBER INDUSTRY.

Fourteen rubber factories with about 9,000 employees, also, were investigated by the board. It appears that naphtha has to a great extent replaced the more dangerous carbon disulphide as a vulcanizing agent, and in 11 of the factories visited the odor of naphtha was noted as only slight. "In two factories it was stated that a few girls, new to the work, show the effects of naphtha and suffer from headache and sometimes nausea and vomiting, but that such girls do not long continue at the work. Naphtha fumes sometimes bring about a condition which much resembles alcoholic intoxication, and which occurs most often in the room where rubber is spread upon cloth. New men are especially susceptible, but even old hands have sometimes to leave their work at times for a breath of fresh air." In six factories litharge is handled, but there could be obtained no history of any case of lead poisoning. It was stated that cases

^a Cited by Neisser, 1907, p. 79.

^b Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon the Sanitary Condition of Factories, Workshops, etc., 1907, p. 110.

occur in two of the factories, but not often. All of the establishments, with one exception, were found to be well lighted and adequately ventilated.^(a)

PATENT-LEATHER INDUSTRY.

The fumes of naphtha, amyl acetate, and wood alcohol which are given off in the manufacture of patent leather are dangerous. While no exact data are available, it is admitted by those in authority that many employees can not do the work on account of inability to withstand their influences.

ANILINE VAPOR.

Aniline vapor is dangerous to health when present in the air to the extent of 0.1 per cent. Hirt thus describes an acute form of poisoning from aniline vapor, which usually results fatally: "The workman falls suddenly to the ground, the skin is cold and pale, the face is cyanotic (bluish discoloration of the skin), the breath has the odor of aniline, the respiration is slowed, and the pulse increased. The sensation diminished from the beginning of the attack, gradually entirely disappears, and death follows in a state of profound stupor."

The milder forms are characterized by laryngeal irritation, loss of appetite, headache, giddiness, and weakness, with a rapid, small, and irregular pulse, and diminished sensibility of the skin. In some instances short convulsions have occurred. Prompt fresh-air treatment is absolutely essential.

The chronic form of aniline poisoning may affect the central nervous system and cause lassitude, headache, roaring in the ears, motor or sensory disturbance, or it may produce digestive derangements such as eructations, nausea, and vomiting, or it may affect the skin by causing eczematous or pustular eruptions and even well-defined ulcers. Doctor Neisser (1907) reports a number of such cases in aniline factories and in dyeing works.

The medical inspector of Clayton, England, has presented a very interesting report^(b) on the effects of aniline oil in black aniline dyeing works, and also the effects upon the skin of chromic acid and the bichromates of potassium and sodium in these establishments. He visited 20 establishments and examined 200 employees, many of whom suffered from anæmia, headache, digestive derangements, heartburn, dizziness, palpitation of the heart, loss of will power, and excessive mucous secretions, all of which were attributed to the toxic effects of aniline. He recommends as safeguards: (1) Mechanical, suctional ventilation (*a*) at the machines where the cloth is being dyed, (*b*) at

^a Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon the Sanitary Condition of Factories, Workshops, etc., 1907, p. 113.

^b Internationale Übersicht über Gewerbehygiene, Berlin, 1907, p. 75.

the machines where the cloth passes through the bichromate solution, and (c) at such points where there is danger from the chromate dust; (2) protective clothing, and the frequent cleansing of the same, the provision of lockers, and dressing rooms for street clothing; (3) special lunch rooms; (4) suitable wash rooms.^(a)

WOOD ALCOHOL.

Vapors from varnishes have been known to produce blindness, due to inflammation of the nerves behind the eyeball, and partial atrophy of the optic nerve. Similar effects follow the internal use of wood alcohol, and even fatal cases have been reported in consequence of its substitution for the pure alcohols. Doctor Neisser (1907) reports a large number of eczematous affections of the hands, arms, and face in furniture polishers ("polisher's itch"), which may possibly be caused by some of the impure alcohols.

CHROME PIGMENTS.

In the manufacturing and handling of chrome pigments, as in tanneries and various leather industries, a dust or vapor is evolved which causes inflammation of the eyes and even ulceration of the nasal septum and elsewhere.

QUININE.

Quite a large percentage of the persons employed in the manufacture of quinine suffer from a dry form of eczema of the hands and face, which is claimed to be directly due to emanations from the boiling solution, since the disease disappears if the work is given up.

In the so-called "polisher's itch" and in the effects produced by chrome and quinine the use of rubber gloves and the anointment of the skin with some clean oil or grease have been found most useful.

MANGANESE.

According to Doctor Neisser (1907) a small percentage of the workers in manganese mills and in the manufacture of dry pigments are affected with headache, dizziness, loss of appetite, constipation, loosening of the teeth, muscular pains, and general debility.

BRASS FOUNDERS.

The workers in brass foundries inhale a metallic dust or vapor of zinc or copper, or perhaps of both, which has given rise to a train of symptoms described as "brass founders' ague." The illness attacks about 75 per cent of those who are new to the work, or who resume work after an absence of a month or even a fortnight. There are

^a *Internationale Übersicht über Gewerbehygiene*, Bv

more or less severe pains in the back, and general lassitude, which compels the patient to seek his bed. Usually after he has taken to his bed chilliness comes on, increasing to a decided rigor and lasting 15 minutes or longer. In the course of an hour or less the pulse beats from 100 to 120 per minute, accompanied by a tormenting cough, corresponding headache, and soreness in the chest. After the lapse of a few hours free perspiration indicates the disappearance of the fever and the patient falls into a deep sleep, from which he awakens with perhaps only a slight headache and lassitude. In England the men who suffer this way drink freely of milk and promote vomiting—perhaps the best treatment for copper or zinc poisoning. A chronic form of zinc or copper poisoning, characterized by oversensibility, formication, and burning of the skin of the lower extremities, tactile and motor disturbance, anæmia, cough, headache, neuralgia, digestive disturbance, and progressive emaciation, is said to occur among men who have worked for a number of years in brass foundries. At present it is not possible to say whether the symptoms of brass founders' ague are due to the copper, zinc, or arsenic, or to a combination of all three. Some authors believe it to be a specific infection.

ARSENICAL FUMES.

Arsenical fumes are frequently given off in smelting processes, especially copper works, and, like those of arseniureted hydrogen, may give rise to jaundice, headache, nausea, stiffness of the joints, general anæmia, discomfort, and malnutrition. When inhaled in concentrated form the fumes produce symptoms of nausea, vomiting, languor, drowsiness, rapid pulse, frequent micturition, and bloody urine. In serious cases the pulse becomes small and thready, the skin cold and clammy, and death ensues with evident signs of cardiac paralysis.

MERCURY.

The most important of the poisonous vapors in connection with dangerous trades are mercury and phosphorus. Workers in mercury suffer greatly from the effects of mercurial poisoning, such as salivation, tremor, and nervous symptoms, and many fall victims to pulmonary tuberculosis. Miscarriages among the female employees are very common. These effects, according to Renk,^(a) are due to the inhalation of mercurial vapors in badly ventilated workshops, while Wollner attributes them to the inhalation and swallowing of fine mercurial dust. Of 7,221 mirror makers at Furth during the year 1883 no fewer than 2,457, or 34 per cent, were taken sick, and of these 60 per cent suffered from mercurial poisoning. This danger has been practically eliminated in the mirror industry, but it is still

^a *Arbeiten aus dem kaiserlichen. Gesundheitsamte, V, p. 113.*

pronounced in the manufacture of felt, thermometers, barometers, dry electric batteries, and bronzing. In Europe persistent efforts are being made to reduce the danger in these industries to a minimum, and some of the felt establishments no longer use the preliminary treatment of the hair with mercuric nitrate. The 64 cases reported in Great Britain in 1906 from May, 1899, to December 31, 1905, and cited by Neisser, occurred as follows: Manufacturers of electric meters, 17; thermometers, etc., 16; felt and fur industry, 13; gilding, 7; chemical works, 7; powder works, 3; lithography, 1.

As preventive measures may be mentioned the following: (1) Change of clothing before and after work; (2) weekly washing of the working clothes; (3) systematic and frequent washing of the hands, weekly sulphur baths or frequent general baths, and at the close of work gargling with a solution of permanganate of potassium; (4) limit of work to eight hours per day and thorough ventilation of the rooms—open doors and windows; (5) frequent cleaning of floors with damp sawdust and sprinkling with a solution of ammonia.

PHOSPHORUS.

In the manufacture of phosphorus matches white and red phosphorus have been used. The danger consists in the inhalation of the fumes when the white substance is used, while the red or amorphous phosphorus is neither poisonous nor easily inflammable. The gas smells like garlic. The toxic symptoms in the acute form are difficult breathing and a feeling of intense anxiety. The fumes are given off only when the air contains moisture. The milder effects of phosphorus consist of gastric and bronchial catarrhs, anæmia, and malnutrition, followed occasionally by a painful inflammation of the bones of the lower or upper jaws, due to the local action of the phosphorus, and often beginning in carious teeth or in the alveolar process of missing teeth. The disease may develop during the first months, but generally not until four or five years after the beginning of the employment, and carious teeth, with toothache, are among the first symptoms, followed by swelling of the glands of the neck, alveolar abscesses, and necrosis of the jaws. Formerly from 11 to 12 per cent of the employees suffered. Since the use of red or amorphous phosphorus the danger has been greatly reduced. Only about 2 per cent of the operatives are now attacked.

Doctor Neisser reports that during the year 1906 several cases of phosphorus necrosis occurred in German match factories, in which the use of white phosphorus was promptly stopped.

The medical inspectors of Great Britain, from October 1, 1900, to October 1, 1905, reported only 11 cases of phosphorus necrosis, the reduction being attributed to improved factory sanitation.

The medical inspector of Belgium (quoted by Doctor Neisser, page 71) reports that during the last six years only one case of necrosis occurred, and the morbidity of the employees in match factories has also decreased coincident with factory sanitation, as shown by the following figures:

EMPLOYEES EXAMINED AND CASES OF SICKNESS AND DEATH IN MATCH FACTORIES OF BELGIUM, 1903 TO 1905.

	1903.	1904.	1905.
Number of employees examined.....	1,144	1,182	1,226
Number of monthly examinations.....	7,051	8,511	9,005
Number of apparently healthy employees.....	757	1,055	1,061
Number of sick employees.....	387	127	165
Number of deaths.....	401	132	(a)

^a Not reported.

The use of respirators, thorough ventilation, the disengagement of turpentine vapors to promote rapid drying, and strict cleanliness, such as ablution of the hands, change of clothing, and gargling with weak alkaline solutions before eating and drinking, are still in order as preventive measures.

BEET-SUGAR INDUSTRY.

In the beet-sugar industry, especially when the diffusion method is employed, an explosive mixture containing probably carbureted hydrogen has proved a source of danger to the operatives, and the waste waters are believed to be also a menace to public health.

OCCUPATIONS INVOLVING EXPOSURE TO EXTREMES OF HEAT, SUDDEN CHANGES, AND ABNORMAL ATMOSPHERIC PRESSURE.

Exposure to extremes of heat and sudden changes is injurious and predisposes to a number of diseases. Stokers, cooks, bakers, blacksmiths, firemen, etc., are very apt to suffer from heat exhaustion and thermic fever (sunstroke). The duration of life is low, and rheumatism, eczema, catarrhal affections, pneumonia, and diseases of the heart are quite common. Sailors, farmers, motormen, conductors, teamsters, coachmen, and many others are often exposed to sudden changes in the weather, and suffer frequently from rheumatism, catarrhal affections, pneumonia, and Bright's disease.

The effects of both heat and cold are intensified by extreme humidity in the atmosphere, and special precautions are necessary upon hot and sultry days and in cold, raw weather. Occupations involving exposure to dampness, especially when performed indoors, are injurious, because a cold, damp air abstracts an undue amount of

animal heat from the body, lowers the power of resistance, and predisposes to catarrhal and rheumatic diseases. It is a well-known fact that damp houses favor the development of consumption. (See pages 543, 550.)

CAISSON DISEASE.

The effects of compressed air on workmen in tunnels, caissons, deep mines, and diving bells were formerly attributed solely to increased atmospheric pressure, in consequence of which it was believed that the blood received not only an excess of oxygen, but by reason of the abnormal pressure was driven from the surface to the internal organs, causing congestion, especially of the central nervous system. It is now held that, while increased atmospheric pressure is capable of producing characteristic effects upon the circulation, such as pallor of the skin, ringing in the ears, bulging and possibly rupture of the ear drums, the most serious symptoms are produced when the pressure is too rapidly increased or removed by a faulty method of "locking in" and "locking out."

A commission of Belgian medical experts examined 166 caisson workers before and after their work, the shift lasting from 8 to 12 hours, and found (1) that the blood-making function, as shown by the hæmoglobin contents, was actually increased during their work; (2) that so long as the pressure does not increase beyond 3 atmospheres (45 pounds) the men feel perfectly well and perform their labor with more ease and even less fatigue than under normal atmospheric pressure; (3) that men of temperate habits, with a sound heart, lungs, and nervous system, suffer no injurious effects, and none others should be employed; (4) the real injury is done by a sudden removal of atmospheric pressure in a hasty "locking-out" process, for which the workmen are often to blame.

The general rule in "locking out" should be to allow at least one minute for each 6 pounds of pressure within the chamber.

The symptoms of so-called caisson disease are rarely observed until the pressure equals 20 pounds, and usually do not appear for some minutes or hours after emerging. In addition to the symptoms already mentioned, there may be hemorrhage from the nose, mouth, and ears; headache, dizziness, rapid pulse, sweating, severe pain in the back, extremities, or region of the stomach, and vomiting. Partial deafness and symptoms of motor paralysis, more or less general, but most frequently confined to the lower extremities, are frequently observed. Cases with pronounced head and spinal symptoms usually prove fatal. The milder cases, as a rule, recover sooner or later, although the muscular pains and paralytic symptoms may persist weeks or even longer.

OCCUPATIONS INVOLVING CONSTRAINED ATTITUDES.

The effects of a constrained position, combined with a sedentary life, are very injurious. This is especially seen in weavers, shoemakers, engravers, watchmakers, tailors, lithographers, etc., all of whom are obliged to assume a more or less constrained attitude, which interferes with a proper distribution of the blood supply and is liable to be followed by internal congestions. But perhaps the greatest harm results from deficient movement of the chest and consequent interference with normal respiration. As a matter of fact, many of these artisans suffer from phthisis, constipation, dyspepsia, and hemorrhoids, and all have a low average duration of life.

Among the apprentices of bakers, deformities such as "flat foot" and "knock-knee" and varicose veins of the lower extremity are frequently seen, as the result of being on their feet too long. Varicose veins and ulcers are quite common among motormen and conductors, while bakers, cabinetmakers, and others are also very liable to develop abnormal curvature of the spine.

OCCUPATIONS INVOLVING OVEREXERCISE OF PARTS OF THE BODY.

Among the diseases due to the excessive use of certain muscles may be mentioned the affection called "writer's cramp," which is a convulsive affection of the fingers. Similar fatigue neuroses, characterized by localized paralysis and twitching, are observed in copyists, typewriters, telegraph operators, pianists, violinists, engravers, seamstresses, cigar makers, etc.

Pulmonary emphysema is quite common among performers on wind instruments. Boiler makers' deafness and mill operatives' deafness may also be mentioned. The former is believed to be due to constant exposure to an atmosphere in a state of violent vibration, while the latter affection is characterized by an inability to hear distinctly except during a noise. Public speakers and singers are apt to suffer from chronic affections of the throat and paralysis of the vocal cords, and watchmakers, engravers, and seamstresses, as well as all others who use their eyes upon minute objects, are liable to suffer from nearsightedness and other visual defects.

Tobacco testers frequently suffer from nervous symptoms and serious visual defects, and tea tasters soon become the victims of muscular tremblings and other nervous symptoms, the result of a chronic "their intoxication."

OCCUPATIONS INVOLVING EXPOSURE TO MACHINERY, ETC.

Life insurance and accident statistics plainly indicate the danger of occupations which involve contact with machinery. This may

be the result of individual carelessness or the negligence of others. Not infrequently accidents are the result of boiler explosions, circular saws, belting, and flying fragments, and are due to a lack of proper safety devices. As might be expected, many of the accidents befall children and inexperienced persons and take place at night or in badly lighted establishments. According to Rubner,^(a) of 100 accidents, 41 befall children under 15 years of age, 36.4 befall persons between 15 and 25 years of age, 13.1 befall persons between 25 and 40 years of age, and 9.5 befall persons between 40 and 60 years of age. The upper extremities were involved in 87 per cent of the cases, the lower extremities in 7.5 per cent, and the head and trunk in 5.5 per cent. During the year 1899 there were in English factories "301 fatal and 19,321 nonfatal accidents, all attributable to machinery moved by mechanical power."^(b)

According to Swiss statistics the number of accidents per 1,000 workingmen in various occupations were as follows:^(c) Cotton spinners, 22.2; millers, 28.0; paper manufacturers, 31.1; carpenters, 35.2; locksmiths, 46.9; brewers, 66.7; masons, 80.5; blacksmiths, 93.1; metal workers, 102.1; molders, 132.2.

Many of the accidents to metal workers, masons, miners, weavers, etc., befall the eye, and Magnus attributes 8.5 per cent of all cases of blindness to accidents.

Of 48,262 accidents among British miners from 1884 to 1898, not less than 2,506, or 5.19 per cent, affected the eye.^(d)

COAL MINING.

The mining of coal is, even under the best conditions, one of the most dangerous industries. A report of the United States Geological Survey^(e) shows the number of men killed for each 1,000 employed in the United States and in the four leading European countries, the figures being averages for five years:

AVERAGE NUMBER OF MEN KILLED FOR EACH 1,000 MEN EMPLOYED, BY COUNTRIES, FOR FIVE-YEAR PERIODS.

Country.	Period.	Number.
United States	1902 to 1906	3.39
Prussia	1900 to 1904	2.06
Great Britain	1902 to 1906	1.28
Belgium	1902 to 1906	1.00
France	1901 to 1905	.91

^aLehrbuch der Hygiene, 6th Edit. Leipzig and Wien, 1899-1900, p. 701.

^bDangerous Trades, Oliver, p. 203.

^cBergey's Principles of Hygiene, 1904, p. 276.

^dDangerous Trades, Oliver, p. 776.

^eCoal-Mine Accidents: Their Causes and Prevention. A Preliminary Statistical Report. United States Geological Survey, 1907.

The following table from the same report shows the number of deaths from accident for every million tons of coal mined:

NUMBER OF MEN KILLED IN COAL MINES PER MILLION TONS OF COAL PRODUCED, BY COUNTRIES, 1902 TO 1906.

Year.	United States.	Great Britain.	Belgium.	France.
1902.....	6.79	6.29	4.80
1903.....	5.62	^a 4.70	6.68	4.30
1904.....	6.24	4.41	5.66	4.35
1905.....	5.97	4.64	5.64	4.17
1906.....	5.57	4.31	4.96	(^b)

^a Average, 1894 to 1903.

^b Not reported.

The fatal and nonfatal accidents in the coal mines of the United States in 1906 for which causes were reported were as follows:

NUMBER OF PERSONS KILLED OR INJURED BY COAL-MINE ACCIDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES, BY CAUSES, 1906.

Accidents due to—	Persons killed.	Persons injured.
Gas and dust explosions.....	228	307
Powder explosions.....	80	215
Falls of roof and coal.....	1,008	1,863
Other causes.....	732	2,192

An exhaustive analysis of mining accidents in the German Empire will be found in the Statistik der Knappschafts-Berufsgenossenschaft für das Deutsche Reich, Berlin, 1897. The total number of persons insured for one year during the period covered (October 1, 1885, to December 31, 1894) by the work was 3,623,175; the total number of accidents of all kinds notified was 278,371, distributed as follows:

TOTAL NUMBER OF ACCIDENTS OF ALL KINDS REPORTED IN THE GERMAN EMPIRE, OCTOBER 1, 1885, TO DECEMBER 31, 1894.

Class of accidents.	Number.	Per 1,000 persons employed.
Fatal accidents.....	7,721	2.13
Accidents causing total permanent disability.....	1,427	.39
Accidents causing partial permanent disability.....	14,367	3.97
Accidents causing temporary disability.....	8,164	2.25
Minor accidents.....	246,692	8.74 68.09
Total.....	278,371	76.83

The causes of the fatal and serious accidents as calculated per 1,000 employees are given as follows:

Falls of rock, coal, falling bodies, etc.....	3.44
Transport, haulage, winding, loading, etc.....	2
Falls from ladders, steps, or other heights.....	

Explosions.....	. 78
Machinery in motion, motors, etc.....	. 51
Molten metal, hot and corrosive fluids, poisonous gases.....	. 12
Miscellaneous.....	. 74
Total.....	8. 74

Mr. Henry Louis, in commenting upon these statistics in Oliver's *Dangerous Trades*, page 516, says, "41.6 per cent, or two-fifths, of all the accidents could have been avoided by proper care and intelligent thought on the part of all concerned, and, in the second place, fully one-third of the accidents can be ascribed to the faults of the victims themselves."

According to the *Revue Scientifique* for 1875^(a) there had been during 50 years 503 mine explosions in Europe, with a loss of over 5,000 lives.

The number of men killed in the coal mines of the United States is appalling, amounting to 22,840 during the 17 years ending with 1906. In 1906 the total number killed was 2,061 and the number injured was 4,800.

In the introduction to the preliminary statistical report of the United States Geological Survey, already cited, Mr. Joseph A. Holmes says: "The figures given in this report indicate that during the year 1906 nearly 7,000 men were killed or injured in the coal mines of this country, and that the number of these accidents caused directly or indirectly by mine explosions has been steadily increasing. * * * The increase both in the number and in the seriousness of mine explosions in the United States during past years may be expected to continue unless, through investigations made in the United States such as have proved effective in other coal-producing countries, information can be obtained and published concerning the explosives used, the conditions under which they may be used safely in the presence of coal dust or gas, and the general conditions which make for health and safety in coal-mining operations."^(b)

According to English data, cited by Frederick L. Hoffman (*Quarterly Publications of the American Statistical Association*, December, 1902, page 178, note), "for the period 1890-1892, at ages 45-54, the general death rate of all miners was 19.6 per 1,000, and of quarrymen 25.3 per 1,000. For coal miners alone the death rate at this age period was 19.4; for copper miners, 24.3; for tin miners, 33.2, and for lead miners, 23.9 per 1,000—indications of quite considerable differences in the mortality and specific disease liability of men engaged in the mining of coal and the different metals."

While tuberculosis is comparatively rare among coal miners, anthracosis (a lung disease produced by coal dust—"black lung"), miner's asthma, which is really a chronic bronchitis with emphysema, and simple chronic bronchitis are common affections. These diseases are

^a II, page 765.

^b Page 4.

largely influenced by defective ventilation, for Greenhow has shown that among the operatives of well-ventilated mines there is no excess of pulmonary diseases.^(a)

Apart from large quantities of dust, the air of mines contains putrefactive gases from decomposing excrementitious matter and products of combustion, especially carbonic-acid gas, which is also one of the constituents of the "choke damp." In addition to all this, the "fire damp" (an explosive mixture of carbureted hydrogen with atmospheric air in the proportion of 6 to 10 volumes per 100) and the excessive temperature, real hard work, constrained attitude, and careless use of explosives add very greatly to the danger of miners.

Much can be done to prevent accidents by the introduction of safe hoisting cages, proper engineering, the use of suitable explosives, and adequate inspection laws, while Davy's safety lamps, incandescent electric lights, and copious ventilation will serve to prevent explosions of fire damp and aid in the purification of the air.

RAILWAY SERVICE.

Employees of the railway service, owing to a life full of hardships, exposures, and responsibilities, together with irregular habits, not only suffer from accidents, but also experience more or less sickness, especially from rheumatic affections, diseases of the digestive and respiratory organs, and injuries and disturbances of the nervous system. Forty-eight per cent of the German railway employees in 1885 were taken sick, as follows: Rheumatism, 8.18 per cent; digestive diseases, 11.12 per cent; respiratory diseases, 8.53 per cent; nervous diseases, 2.73 per cent. The train hands suffered most, and the office employees, of course, the least. The percentage of the different classes of sick employees was as follows:

PER CENT OF GERMAN RAILWAY EMPLOYEES TAKEN SICK, 1885 AND 1886, BY OCCUPATIONS.

Occupation.	1885.	1886.
Train arrangers.....	81	89
Train hands, engineers, conductors, brakemen, etc.....	65	66
Gate keepers, etc.....	54	56
Switch tenders.....	50	53
Track watchmen.....	40	42
Station employees.....	33	36
Office employees.....	23	26

Hedinger (^b) has called attention to the fact that only 8 per cent of the German locomotive engineers have normal hearing, while 67 per cent of the engineers and 30 per cent of the firemen have very defec-

^a Greenhow, third and fourth report of the medical officer of the Privy Council, London, 1860-1861.

^b *Zeitschrift des Vereins d. Eisenbahnverwaltungen*, 27, p. 25.

tive hearing; 14.5 per cent of the track walkers also had defective hearing. The percentage in all increased with the length of the service. The most common affection was catarrh of the internal and middle ear, probably due to abrupt changes in temperature.

RAILWAY ACCIDENTS.

The reports of the Interstate Commerce Commission indicate a constant increase in the number of injuries from railway accidents. The number of employees killed by accidents arising from the movement of trains, locomotives, or cars, as distinct from those of other causes, for the year ending June 30, 1906, was 3,709, of whom 2,310 were trainmen, and the number injured was 42,962, of whom 34,989 were trainmen. "The number of fatalities to trainmen in this class of accidents is nearly equally distributed among collisions, falling from trains, locomotives, or cars, and being struck by trains, locomotives, or cars. When all classes of employees are taken into account the last-named cause is responsible for the greatest number of fatalities."

"Of the fatalities to passengers, collisions account for more than any other single cause, although the number due to jumping on or off trains, locomotives, or cars is nearly as great. In the matter of injuries, however, collisions are far ahead, being responsible for more than 35 per cent of the total injuries to passengers. Taking both passengers and employees into account, it is seen that collisions are responsible for a much higher number of deaths and injuries than any other one class of accidents." (a)

RAILWAY ACCIDENTS FOR THE YEARS 1888 TO 1906.

[From the Nineteenth Annual Report of the Interstate Commerce Commission on the Statistics of Railways in the United States, page 109.]

Year ending June 30—	Employees.		Passengers.		Other persons.		Total.	
	Killed.	Injured.	Killed.	Injured.	Killed.	Injured.	Killed.	Injured.
1888.....	2,070	20,148	315	2,138	2,897	3,602	5,282	25,888
1889.....	1,972	20,028	310	2,146	3,541	4,135	5,823	26,309
1890.....	2,451	22,396	286	2,425	3,598	4,306	6,335	29,027
1891.....	2,690	26,140	293	2,972	4,076	4,709	7,029	33,881
1892.....	2,554	28,267	376	3,227	4,217	5,158	7,147	36,652
1893.....	2,727	31,729	299	3,229	4,320	5,435	7,349	40,303
1894.....	1,823	23,422	324	3,034	4,300	5,433	6,447	31,889
1895.....	1,811	25,096	170	2,375	4,155	5,677	6,136	33,748
1896.....	1,861	29,969	181	2,873	4,406	5,845	6,448	38,187
1897.....	1,693	27,667	222	2,795	4,322	6,209	6,437	36,731
1898.....	1,958	31,761	221	2,945	4,680	6,176	6,859	40,882
1899.....	2,210	34,923	239	3,442	4,674	6,255	7,123	44,630
1900.....	2,530	39,643	249	4,128	5,066	6,549	7,665	50,320
1901.....	2,675	41,142	282	4,988	5,498	7,209	8,455	53,339
1902.....	2,969	50,324	345	6,683	5,274	7,435	8,888	64,662
1903.....	3,606	60,481	355	8,231	5,879	7,841	9,840	76,333
1904.....	3,632	67,067	441	9,111	5,973	7,977	10,046	84,155
1905.....	3,361	66,833	337	10,457	5,805	8,718	9,703	86,008
1906.....	3,929	70,701	359	10,704	6,330	10,241	10,618	97,706

^a Nineteenth Annual Report of the Interstate Commerce Commission on the Statistics of Railways in the United States, p. 112.

In 1899 the English Government appointed a commission composed of members of the House of Lords and Commons, representatives of the railway companies, railway employees, experts, and Government officials, with a view of determining whether the accidents to railway employees were so numerous as to constitute it a dangerous trade. The following table indicates that the employment of shunters (switchmen) is far more dangerous than any other occupation save seamen, and that the average work on railways is almost as dangerous as mining. ^(a)

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES KILLED AND INJURED FROM ALL CAUSES PER 1,000 EMPLOYED IN VARIOUS OCCUPATIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN, 1898.

Industry.	Number killed.	Number injured.
Railway servants in general, excluding contractors' men, clerks, and mechanics.	1.24	31.0
Goods guards and brakemen.	2.92	61.9
Permanent-way men or platelayers.	1.90	16.8
Shunters.	5.08	78.0
Men porters (railways).	1.15	62.0
Seamen (merchant service).	5.20	Unknown.
Coal miners (underground).	1.37	Unknown.
Coal miners (surface).	.92	Unknown.
Metalliferous mines (underground).	1.34	Unknown.
Metalliferous mines (surface).	.43	Unknown.
Factories, textile (males).	.10	6.2
Factories, textile (females).		2.7
Factories, nontextile (males).	.30	13.8
Factories, nontextile (females).		2.0
Factories, extraction of metals (males).	1.10	16.4
Factories, shipbuilding (males).	.50	30.3
Factories, dock laborers.	1.40	57.0

ACCIDENTS AND INJURIES.

The total number of deaths reported during the census year of 1900 was 57,513, of which 43,414 were males and 14,099 were females, and the proportion of deaths from these causes in 1,000 deaths from all known causes was 57.6. In 1890 the corresponding proportion was 53.7. In the registration area the rate was 96 per 100,000 of population. In 1890 the death rate was 91.9. The rate in the cities was somewhat higher than in rural districts, and the rate for males was about three times as high (125.4) as it was among females (42.2). This is due simply to the more sheltered position of females and because males alone are generally engaged in the more dangerous operations.

The following table shows for the registration area and its subdivisions the death rates from accidents and injuries per 100,000 population, in each of three age groups.

^a Dangerous Trades, Oliver, p. 199.

DEATH RATES FROM ACCIDENTS AND INJURIES DURING THE CENSUS YEAR IN EACH OF THREE AGE GROUPS PER 100,000 OF POPULATION.

[From Report on Vital Statistics, Twelfth Census of the United States, 1900.]

Registration area.	Under 15.	15 to 44.	45 or over.
Cities in registration States	68.2	78.1	109.7
Males	86.1	122.4	206.7
Females	50.3	35.9	77.9
Rural in registration States	37.2	73.9	122.6
Males	72.7	122.1	199.5
Females	42.3	35.1	75.5
Total in registration States	65.7	73.4	131.2
Males	80.6	122.3	187.8
Females	46.7	24.9	71.8
Cities having registration, in other States	72.0	113.4	186.9
Males	92.6	186.6	291.0
Females	51.5	40.0	82.4
Total, registration area	67.0	89.5	180.5
Males	85.4	148.7	223.8
Females	48.6	31.1	78.0
Cities, total in registration area	70.2	94.3	163.8
Males	89.5	180.6	280.7
Females	50.9	33.3	80.1

From this table we learn that the highest death rates from accidents were for persons 45 years or over, and the lowest for children under the age of 15, which indicates that employment in factories, mines, and workshops influences to a great extent the number of accidents and injuries. The rates for females are the lowest in all three age groups, for reasons already assigned. Females, even in childhood, occupy a more favorable position than males, on account of the more reckless disposition of boys, whose rates are probably increased by deaths from drowning, falls, burns, gunshot wounds, etc.

An attempt to determine the number of persons injured per 1,000 employed in the factories was made in the State of New York during 1899. The data are based upon three months' observations in a selected list of factories, and are not regarded by the commissioner of labor and chief factory inspector of the State as absolutely accurate.

NUMBER OF PERSONS INJURED PER 1,000 EMPLOYED IN NEW YORK FACTORIES, 1899.

Industry.	Number.
Clothing, millinery, laundering, etc.	1.38
Leather, rubber, pearl, etc.	3.21
Textiles	8.01
Printing and allied trades	9.19
Food, tobacco, and liquors	13.51
Stone and clay products	15.18
Wood	18.42
Building industry	20.30
Metals, machinery, and apparatus	26.57
Public utilities	27.28
Pulp, paper, and cardboard	41.46
Chemicals, oils, and explosives	44.00

OCCUPATIONS INVOLVING THE INHALATION OF ORGANIC GASES AND VAPORS.

Whether the effluvia from sewers, stables, stock yards, slaughtering and packing houses; glue, candle, and soap factories; hide *monstra*,

tanneries, fertilizer-works, etc., are injurious to health remains an open question. Many authors insist that the olfactory organs are alone offended, and point to the mortality statistics, which indicate that the average age of such employees is quite high. Others hold that weaklings rarely engage in such occupations, and that the effluvia, consisting, as they do, of ammonia and sulphureted gases, are fully as injurious as the inhalation of sewer air, which, judging from experiments with animals, would appear to increase the susceptibility to infectious diseases by diminishing the power of resistance. Stiff maintains that hydrogen and ammonium sulphides, chiefly derived from decomposition of animal matter and usually present in privy vaults, cesspools, and sewers, are blood poisons when present to the extent of about 1/4,000 volumes per hundred. The same author believes that the inhalation of sulphureted hydrogen affects directly the terminal filaments of the pneumogastic nerve, and through these sets up an irritation of the respiratory and cardiac centers—in fact, of the entire medulla oblongata—and if continued sufficiently long induces paralysis of this function.

In sewer air the danger is intensified by the excess of carbonic-acid gas and deficiency of oxygen, and special precaution should be taken to exhaust the foul air before sewer employees or scavengers are allowed to descend.

The general effects of the foul odors upon those unaccustomed to work in the so-called "offensive trades" are nausea, vomiting, headache, loss of appetite, diarrhea, a general depression, and weakness. It is true the workmen become gradually accustomed to these emanations without any apparent injury, but even this does not justify the assumption that the odors are not harmful.

Every community provides for the collection and disposal of dead animals, which is usually done by contract, and the animals are taken to some point beyond the town limits, flayed, and worked up, so as to utilize the skin, hair, bones, fats, horns, etc. There is, however, a certain element of danger from the transmission of infectious diseases like anthrax, glanders, and tuberculosis, and hence all such work should be done under strict sanitary control.

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN.

In the face of the many adverse circumstances under which labor is often performed, it is but natural that the immature employees and females should suffer most. The former not infrequently inherit a weak constitution, or acquire it by insanitary homes and deficient food, and a number of them are obliged to enter upon active work long before their bodies are sufficiently developed. Quite apart from the fact that child labor is a menace to education, morals, and good citizenship, the effects of premature and involuntary labor upon the *health and physical welfare* of the child are extremely detrimental.

Quetelet, in his *Physique Sociale*, as early as 1869 demonstrated that the muscles of the average child attain only at the age of 13 or 14 a certain amount of strength and capacity for work. Up to this time the muscular fibers contain a larger percentage of water, and in consequence are very tender and immature. Demetjef, cited by Rubner, (a) determined the lifting power of the arms and trunk at different ages of the working classes to be as follows:

LIFTING POWER OF THE ARMS AND TRUNK OF THE WORKING CLASSES AT DIFFERENT AGES.

Age.	Pounds	Age.	Pounds
14 years.....	180.8	30 to 35 years.....	330.7
16 years.....	222.7	35 to 40 years.....	352.7
18 years.....	282.2	40 to 50 years.....	326.3
20 to 29 years.....	308.6	50 to 60 years.....	295.4

These figures clearly indicate that the average boy at the age of 14 possesses about one-half the muscular strength of an average adult between 35 and 40 years of age.

As a consequence of imperfect muscular development, it is not surprising that a large percentage of young persons engaged in workshops, factories, or even at the writing desk or merchant's counter, develop lateral curvature of the spine and other muscular deformities, not to mention general weakness and predisposition to rickets or tuberculosis and other pulmonary diseases. All of the bad effects are naturally intensified by insanitary environment, especially when the occupations are attended by the inhalation of dust, injurious gases, and impure air. The report of the commission on child labor, 1833-1834, appointed by the English Parliament, contains many interesting facts; but in spite of legislative efforts Dr. Charles W. Roberts (b) has occasion to refer to the prevalence of "flat feet," "knock-knee," and the premature aged condition of youthful employees.

Doctor Roberts says: "In general conformation of body the factory children do not compare favorably with the agricultural. In the manufacturing towns the children are short of stature, have thick limbs and large feet and hands, and are muscular and in tolerable condition as to fat. They produce the impression on the mind of having bodies too old for their heads (and ages). 'Flat foot,' with a general disposition to 'knock-knee,' is very common among the factory children, while both are rare among the agricultural, among whom there is a disposition to the opposite state, of bowleg."

Doctor Roberts (c) examined 19,846 English boys and men. Of these, 5,915 belonged to the nonlaboring classes, school boys, naval

a Lehrbuch d. Hygiene, Leipzig and Wien, 1906, p. 709.

b London Lancet, 1875, p. 274.

c Cited by John Spargo, *Bitter Cry of the Children*, 1906, p. 96.

and military cadets, medical and university students; 13,931 belonged to the artisan class. The difference in height, weight, and chest measurement from 13 to 16 years of age was as follows:

DIFFERENCE IN HEIGHT, WEIGHT, AND CHEST MEASUREMENT OF 19,846 ENGLISH BOYS AND MEN AT SPECIFIED AGES.

Class.	At 13 years.	At 14 years.	At 15 years.	At 16 years.
Average height in inches:				
Nonlaboring.....	58.79	61.11	63.47	66.40
Artisan.....	55.93	57.76	60.58	62.92
Difference.....	2.66	3.35	2.89	3.47
Average weight in pounds:				
Nonlaboring.....	88.60	99.21	110.42	128.34
Artisan.....	78.27	84.61	93.79	108.70
Difference.....	10.33	14.60	13.63	19.64
Average chest girth in inches:				
Nonlaboring.....	28.41	29.65	30.72	33.08
Artisan.....	25.24	26.28	27.51	28.97
Difference.....	3.17	3.37	3.21	4.11

Child labor differs in degree as well as in kind. The ordinary messenger or newsboy may not sacrifice his health, but his morals and his education must inevitably suffer. And so we see different gradations until some of the most injurious forms of child labor are encountered.

Women, on account of their imperfectly developed muscular system and more delicate physique, are unfitted for hard work; nor should they be obliged to work steadily in a sedentary position, especially at the sewing machine or other occupations involving the use of the lower extremities. Special protection should be extended to them during the child-bearing period. It is a matter of constant observation that women who have to deny themselves proper rest and care during the last six weeks of pregnancy and the first six weeks after confinement are very liable to suffer from hemorrhages and chronic uterine diseases, while miscarriages and premature births are not infrequent results of overwork. Recent statistics collected by Doctor Neisser (1907) indicate that such accidents are frequent among farmers' wives and women employed in the jewelry industry, where the motor power is supplied by the feet.

INFANT MORTALITY IN RELATION TO THE OCCUPATION OF WOMEN.

The subject of infant mortality has received careful attention, especially in England. The investigations made by Sir John Simon and his colleagues into the sanitary condition of England between 1859 and 1865 showed "that in proportion as adult women were taking part in factory labor or in agriculture the mortality of their infants rapidly increased." Among other causes, Simon attributes the excessive mortality of infants under 1 year, which in some registration

districts was from two and a quarter to nearly three times as high as in standard districts, "to occupational differences among inhabitants: there being certain large towns where women are greatly engaged in branches of industry away from home, where, consequently, these houses are ill-kept, where the children are little looked after, and where infants who should be at the breast are improperly fed or starved, or have their cries of hunger and distress quieted by those various fatal opiates which are in such request at the centers of our manufacturing industry." (a)

Fifty years have elapsed since Simon declared "infants perish under the neglect and mismanagement which their mothers' occupation implies." The subject has since been studied by the medical officers of the home office, the local government board, and 1,800 local health boards in England. Doctor Newman has carefully surveyed the facts concerning the number of females employed in gainful occupations, and the percentage of married women so employed, as well as the infant-mortality rate in towns having a low percentage of women employed in gainful occupations, as compared with textile towns, where the percentage of female employees is high. He has given careful consideration to the character and condition of the work, the length of working hours, employment before and after childbirth, and the sanitation of workshops. He dwells very justly upon the evil effects of the added strains of factory life, such as piecework, hard physical labor, injurious trade processes, fatigue, etc.

Doctor Newman tells how in some trades, like brickmaking, tinsplate works, iron hollow ware, certain hardware trades, jam and sauce factories, and mat works, women are not infrequently employed in carrying or lifting weights which can not fail to be injurious to some. He emphasizes the various dangers to which the female employees are exposed, and summarizes the direct injuries as follows: (a) Accidents from machinery, materials, and other external agents; (b) injury or poisoning from toxic substances, or injury from excessive dust, fumes, vapor, or extremes of temperature (he refers also to anthrax infections in horsehair factories, tetanus in jute works, lung diseases in dusty trades, and abortion in lead works); (c) injury through fatigue and strain, long hours, insufficient periods of rest for food; (d) injury derived from defective sanitary conditions, such as bad ventilation, dampness, insufficiency or unsuitability of sanitary conveniences; and (e) too short a period of rest at the time of childbirth. (b)

He declares that the official reports of factory inspectors and of medical officers of health reveal ample evidences of these injuries, and adds: "Where the conditions resulting in these evils, coupled

^a Papers Relating to the Sanitary State of the People of England, 1858.

^b *Infant Mortality*, George Newman, M. D., New York, 1907.

with the absence of the mother from home, are present, the infant mortality is high; where they are not present it is usually low." He describes the general effects of the factory system at Dundee, where 24,879 women and girls are employed in the jute and hemp factories, and 3,000 women are employed in other textile works. One-quarter of the women, or about 6,000, are married, and about 16 per cent of all the girls in Dundee between the ages of 10 and 14 are employed in these trades.

The infant mortality rate for Dundee "is exceptionally high, and for the decennial period 1893-1902 was 176 per 1,000 births." In 1904 there were 788 infant deaths, 129 of which occurred within the first week, and all but four of these were medically certified as due to "prematurity and immaturity." Nearly one-half of the total number occurred in the first three months of life. Inquiry was made into the social conditions of the home life of 364 of these infant deaths and it was learned that "the occupations, or former occupations, of the mothers were as follows: 84 weavers, warpers, or winders; 105 spinners, piecers, or shifters; 88 preparers; 12 sack machinists or sack sewers; 27 miscellaneous; 20 unoccupied, and 25 concerning which there was no return obtainable. Of the cases inquired into 13.2 per cent of these mothers worked at the factory to within a week of childbirth. Fifteen women worked to within a few hours of childbirth."

Doctor Newman's final conclusion on the subject of infant mortality in relation to the occupation of women is as follows:^a

"No doubt the factory plays a part, but the home plays a vastly greater part, in the causation of infant mortality in the towns where women are employed at the mills. There are two influences at work—first, the direct injury to the physique and character of the individual caused by much of the factory employment of women; and, secondly, the indirect and reflex injury to the home and social life of the worker. We can not afford to forget either of these points in attempting to estimate the operations of the factory in infant mortality. It is because they have not been sufficiently correlated together that fallacy has arisen in the past. But even yet we have not finished. 'Infantile mortality in Lancashire,' writes an experienced medical officer of health for a town in that county with an infant mortality in 1904 of 222, 'is, I am sorry to say, as much a financial as a hygienic question.' Why do married women work in the mills? is the question this medical officer has reached. His answer is that 'a weaver's wages will not allow of the wife's remaining at home, considering the high rents and rates, and so both go—which is the rule—and a hand-to-mouth existence results even for themselves, let alone the little ones, who are left in the intervals to the

^a Infant Mortality, Newman, pp. 137, 138.

mercies of the nurse, who, as a rule, takes in the babies to eke out her own husband's wages. Much good may be done by hygienic tuition, but I am certain that the root of the whole matter with us is, as I have said, comparatively low wages and high rents and rates.' "

In the discussion of infant mortality it would be unfair not to emphasize other facts, such as impure and dirty milk and one-room tenements. Of 54,047 infantile deaths which were investigated both in the Old and the New World as to the character of feeding, it was found that 86 per cent had been artificially fed. Neumann, in investigating 2,711 infantile deaths in Berlin, found that 1,792 occurred in one-room apartments, 754 in two-room apartments, 122 in three-room apartments, and 43 in apartments of four rooms and over.⁽⁹⁾

SPECIAL MEASURES FOR THE PREVENTION OF TUBERCULOSIS AMONG WAGE-EARNERS.

There is abundant statistical evidence to show that industrial workers pay a very heavy tribute to the so-called "white plague;" nor is this surprising when the many unfavorable factors to which the workers are subjected are considered, such as crowded and insanitary workshops, deficient light, overwork, long hours in a bad air, dampness, exposure to extremes of heat and cold, sudden changes in temperature, and the inhalation of irritating dust, vapors, etc. All of these factors are calculated to lower the power of resistance and favor the spread of the disease, especially when some of the workmen are already afflicted and are careless in expectorating.

Still it would be manifestly unfair not to consider the influence of home environment, such as unclean and crowded or otherwise insanitary dwellings, insufficient or improper food, and last, but not least, the bad effects of the abuse of alcohol. It has been shown that alcohol not only affects the digestive and nervous functions, in consequence of which the general nutrition of the body is markedly reduced, but the habit of visiting and remaining in saloons for hours, sometimes till midnight, deprives the individual of proper rest and also exposes him to the poisonous fumes of tobacco, coal and carbonic-acid gases, and other injurious agents. The preventive measures are partly the duty of the state, which should regulate the air space and ventilation of the workshops and dwellings and improve the working conditions by forced ventilation and "wet processes," in order to diminish dust production and exposure to irritating gases. On the other hand, it is clearly the duty of the workmen and the community at large to improve social and housing conditions. In view of the undue prevalence of consumption among file cutters, metal

Deutsche Med. Wochenschrift, Leipzig, 1904, p. 1723.

grinders, stonecutters, and cotton, flax, and tobacco operatives, persons predisposed to this disease should be cautioned against engaging in such occupations. Simple printed instructions should be given as to the part expectoration plays in the spread of consumption. Cuspidors in sufficient number and properly disinfected should be provided, preferably one for each workman, and promiscuous expectoration should be forbidden.

MEASURES FOR THE PROTECTION OF WAGE-EARNERS.

One of the important predisposing causes to disease is overwork or fatigue, because the accumulation of waste products in the blood, from muscular wear and tear, together with the expended nervous energy, combine to render the system more susceptible to disease. Excessive work is inimical to health, and long hours and hard work are calculated to diminish the general power of resistance, and thus bring about physical deterioration. Hence the necessity of laws regulating the hours of labor and the enforcement of a day of rest as contemplated by the Sunday laws.

From the standpoint of the physician no child under the age of 14 should be permitted to work in factories and wage-earning occupations. Children over 14 years of age should be permitted to engage in such occupations only upon the presentation of a medical certificate showing that they are free from physical defects, and should not be obliged to work longer than six hours with a two-hour interval of rest after the first three hours, so that they may be able to enjoy their noonday meal. Under no circumstances should they be permitted to perform night work or engage in the so-called dangerous occupations. The same may be said of individuals between the ages of 16 and 18 years, who, however, may be permitted to work eight hours a day, with proper intervals for meals and rest.

Women, from a moral standpoint alone, should not be permitted to work in factories or shops after sundown. The laws of some countries prescribe for females one hour for nooning, if they have their own households, and their exclusion from factories six weeks before and after confinement, while in other countries hard labor for women is strictly forbidden.

SANITATION OF WORKSHOPS AND QUARTERS FOR EMPLOYEES.

Many writers contend that the protection of wage-earners should extend to the work and workshops, and, in case the employees are housed by the employer, also to the living and sleeping quarters.

A sanitary workshop demands sufficient air space for each inmate, a suitable temperature, proper ventilation and illumination, general cleanliness, and suitable opportunities for personal cleanliness. The

necessity for abundant ventilation is apparent when it is recalled that men at work give out more carbonic-acid gas than individuals at rest, and that in the majority of occupations the air is further vitiated by the presence of dust and gases.

The question of illumination is not only important for the prevention of defective vision and accidents, but when recourse is had to artificial illumination the additional vitiation of the air must be considered. Such matters, which, after all, are largely questions of public health, should not be left to the individual employer, but the principles of industrial hygiene which ought to be adopted should be embodied in suitable laws and enforced by competent inspectors. Among the most dangerous forms of workshops is one class which most State laws entirely ignore. For example, under the law of the State of New York relating to manufacturing in tenement houses, 33 distinct industries may be carried on in the living rooms of the workers, because they involve hand work or simple machinery. There are over 23,000 licensed "home factories" in the city of New York alone. Dr. Annie S. Daniel, who made a special investigation of manufacturing in tenements, says that "every garment worn by a woman is found being manufactured in tenement rooms"; (^a) and that the same is true of clothing worn by infants and young children. In addition to wearing apparel for men, women, and children, including adornments of woman's dress, the flowers and feathers for her hats, the hats themselves, and neckwear of every description, Doctor Daniel found that paper boxes, cigars, pocketbooks, jewelry, clocks, watches, wigs, fur garments, paper bags, etc., were being made and that the articles were frequently handled and stored in infected rooms. According to Doctor Daniel, among the 150 families tabulated by her, 66 continued at work during the entire course of the contagious disease for which she attended the family, and the question naturally arises, How many germs of tuberculosis, measles, scarlet fever, diphtheria, and other infectious diseases may be sewed in the garments made in the tenement "sweat shops?" And last, but not least, the greatest danger falls upon the workers—it means, physically, the loss of health; morally, the loss of home, because home life is impossible in a tenement workroom.

Apart from the occupations referred to, numerous bakeries; candy, ice-cream, and milk shops; butcher shops and sausage factories; bottling establishments; tailor, cobbler, and other repair shops are carried on in basements under the most insanitary surroundings as regards workrooms and sleeping quarters.

^a Charities, April 1, 1905.

CUBIC AIR SPACE AND AMOUNT OF FRESH AIR PER HOUR.

Reference has been made to the baneful effects of vitiated air, which are of course intensified when the occupation is attended with the production of dust and irritating fumes or gases. It is known that carbonic acid is not itself a toxic agent, but an excess of this gas in the air of rooms leads to a deficiency of oxygen, and also to defective elimination of carbonic acid from the system, which can not be excreted whenever the pressure of carbonic acid in the air exceeds that of the carbonic acid in the blood. In order that the respiratory impurities may not exceed certain limits (6 volumes of carbonic acid per 10,000), it has been found that an average adult requires 3,000 cubic feet of fresh air per hour, and this amount should be supplied without discomfort to the occupants. Experience has shown that the air of a room can not be changed oftener than three times in one hour in winter without causing a disagreeable draft; hence every occupant should have a cubic air space of 1,000 feet. This is the ideal standard, and section 100 of the factory laws of New York of 1901 (as amended by chapter 129, Acts of 1906), relating to certain manufactures in tenements, provides "that the whole number of persons therein shall not exceed one to each 1,000 cubic feet of air space." Such an ideal standard, however, is not always attainable in workshops, and it is believed that for practical purposes an air space from 400 to 500 feet per capita will suffice.

New York, Indiana, Maryland, Michigan, New Jersey, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin appear to be the only States which make definite provision as to air space in factories and workshops. In five of the States the air space must not be less than 250 cubic feet for each employee between the hours of 6 a. m. and 6 p. m., and, unless by written consent of the factory inspector, not less than 400 cubic feet for each employee between the hours of 6 p. m. and 6 a. m., provided such room is lighted by electricity, etc. This is a step in the right direction, but it would be extremely desirable to place the minimum amount of cubic air space at 400 feet for day work and 500 feet for night work, unless electricity is used, in which case a uniform standard of 400 feet might be prescribed. At all events the question of sufficiency ought not to be left to the discretion of the factory inspector. Either the cubic air space should be specified or the carbonic acid limited to 12 volumes per 10,000.

VENTILATION.

Ventilation, which means the removal and dispersion of bad air and the introduction of fresh air, is accomplished either by natural or artificial means. Natural ventilation is usually sufficient when each occupant has 1,000 feet of cubic air space, when the walls of the

building are porous or contain numerous crevices near the doors and windows, when the difference between the indoor and outdoor temperature is considerable, and when the winds strike the walls directly or pass with great velocity over chimney flues or other openings. But as the direction and force of the winds can not be controlled and if the other factors referred to are absent, other means should be provided. For this purpose open windows, doors, and revolving fans answer well in summer. The objection to this method are the cold drafts in winter. In rooms heated with direct radiation the fresh air should therefore be admitted above the heads of the occupants, either by fresh-air register inlets in the walls or by the insertion of louvered or swinging windows, an upward direction being thus given to the air, so that it may impinge on the ceiling, mix with and be warmed by the heated air in this situation, fall gently into all parts of the room, and be gradually removed by means of foul-air outlets, aided by exhaust fans. Another simple plan is to bore slanting holes in the bottom rail of the window sash, or to insert a piece of board 4 inches wide across the window sill.

Artificial ventilation may be secured by providing (1) suitable inlets and outlets, (2) by extraction by heat, or the creation of a decided difference between the inner and outer temperature, and (3) by propulsion and aspiration. Space will not permit to enter into details except to say that, besides the contrivances already mentioned, any of the ordinary registers in which the air passes through the walls by means of a perforated iron plate and is then directed upward by a valved plate with side checks will prove of service. One class of ventilators consists of two cylinders, one inside the other and of different lengths; the longer tube, projecting above and below, serves to conduct the impure air, while the outer cylinder, having a larger sectional area, serves as an inlet. The outlet is protected on the top with a cowl, and both tubes can be regulated by valves. They are especially useful in the ventilation of one-story buildings or the upper story of any building. If gas is used as an illuminant, the burners may be placed immediately under the extracting tube. As the warm air escapes through the inner tube a corresponding volume is admitted through the interspace between the two cylinders.

Another class consists of openings through the ceiling and roof with louvered sides and ends, protected with a small roof, the opening of the air shaft in the ceiling usually being provided with suitable registers. The fresh air is admitted by the means already referred to, or by registers placed behind radiators. If the building is heated by stoves, the fresh air may be admitted by inlets running underneath the floor between the joists and discharging through a register near the stove.

Extraction of foul air by heat is usually accomplished by placing a separate flue next to the chimney flue; the latter, if in use for firing purposes, creates an upward current. If this is not sufficient it may be promoted by gas jets or a steam coil placed in the flue.

The propulsion and aspiration system is especially adapted for all large buildings and factories, and consists of mechanical devices by which the fresh air is forced into and distributed throughout the building by the use of fans or air propellers, the foul or objectionable air being removed by so-called exhaust fans. A number of States have made statutory provisions for the ventilation of workshops, and quite a number, including California, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Maryland, Massachusetts, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, South Dakota, Washington, and Wisconsin, require mechanical devices for the removal of injurious dust or gases. Of these States several lay down specific rules concerning the construction of workbenches and hoods. The latter empty into air shafts connected with exhaust fans, and thus extract all dust and fumes without material injury to the operatives from drafts. The provisions apply especially to operations in which emery wheels or belts or other buffing processes are employed. The laws of the State of Michigan, Acts of 1899, furnish a good example of regulations of this character:

ACTS OF 1899.

Act No. 202.—*Factories and workshops—Blowers for emery wheels, etc.*

SECTION 1. All persons, companies or corporations, operating any factory or workshop, where wheels or emery belts of any description are in general use, either leather, leather covered, felt, canvas paper, cotton or wheels or belts rolled or coated with emery or corundum, or cotton, wheels used as buffs, shall provide the same with fans or blowers, or similar apparatus, when ordered by the commissioner of labor, which shall be placed in such a position or manner as to protect [protect] the person or persons using the same from the particles of the dust produced and caused thereby, and to carry away the dust arising from, or thrown off by such wheels, or felts, while in operation, directly to the outside of the building or to some other receptacle placed so as to receive and confine such dust, and the same shall be placed in such factory or workshop within three months after this act shall take effect, in the manner and according to the directions and specifications as herein, in this act set forth: *Provided*, That grinding machines upon which water is used at the point of grinding contact shall be exempt from the conditions of this act: *And provided further*, That this act shall not apply to solid emery wheels used in sawmills or planing mills or other woodworking establishments.

SEC. 2. It shall be the duty of any person, company or corporation operating any such factory or workshop to provide or construct such appliances, apparatus, machinery or other things necessary to carry out the purpose of this act, as set forth in the preceding section, as follows: Each and every such wheel shall be fitted with a sheet or cast-iron hood or hopper of such form and so applied to such wheel or wheels that the dust or refuse therefrom will fall from such wheels or will be thrown into such hood or hopper by centrifugal force and be carried off by the current of air into a suction pipe attached to same hood or hopper.

SEC. 3. Each and every such wheel six inches or less in diameter shall be provided with a three-inch suction pipe; wheels six inches to twenty-four inches in diameter with four-inch suction pipe; wheels from twenty-four inches to thirty-six inches in diameter with a five-inch suction pipe; and all wheels larger in diameter than those stated above shall be provided each with a suction pipe, not less than six inches in

diameter. The suction pipe from each wheel, so specified, must be full sized to the main trunk suction pipe, and the said main suction pipe to which smaller pipes are attached shall, in its diameter and capacity, be equal to the combined area of such smaller pipes attached to the same; and the discharge pipe from the exhaust fan, connected with such suction pipe or pipes, shall be as large or larger than the suction pipe.

SEC. 4. It shall be the duty of any person, company or corporation operating any such factory or workshop, to provide the necessary fans or blowers to be connected with such pipe or pipes, as above set forth, which shall be run at such a rate of speed as will produce a velocity of air in such suction or discharge pipes of at least nine thousand feet per minute or an equivalent suction or pressure of air equal to raising a column of water not less than five inches high in a U-shaped tube. All branch pipes must enter the main trunk pipe at an angle of forty-five degrees or less. The main suction, or trunk pipe, shall be below the polishing or buffing wheels and as close to the same as possible and to be either upon the floor or beneath the floor on which the machines are placed to which such wheels are attached. All bends, turns or elbows in such pipes must be made with easy smooth surfaces having a radius in the throat of not less than two diameters of the pipe on which they are connected.

SEC. 5. It shall be the duty of any factory inspector, sheriff, constable or prosecuting attorney of any county in this State, in which any such factory or workshop is situated, upon receiving notice in writing, signed by any person or persons, having knowledge of such facts, that such factory or workshop, is not provided with such appliances as herein provided for, to visit any such factory or workshop and inspect the same and for such purpose they are hereby authorized to enter any factory or workshop in this State during working hours, and upon ascertaining the facts that the proprietors or managers of such factory or workshops have failed to comply with the provisions of this act, to make complaint of the same in writing before a justice of the peace, or police magistrate having jurisdiction, who shall thereupon issue his warrant directed to the owner, manager or director in such factory or workshop, who shall be thereupon proceeded against for the violation of this act as hereinafter mentioned, and it is made the duty of the prosecuting attorney to prosecute all cases under this act.

TEMPERATURE.

It is a well-known fact that the welfare and capacity for work of individuals are to a great extent influenced by the surrounding temperature. Reference has been made (p. 520) to occupations involving exposure to extremes of heat and cold, dampness, and sudden changes. The human organism possesses the faculty of maintaining a uniform temperature; i. e., it so regulates and harmonizes the production and the loss of animal heat that the normal temperature of the blood, 98.2 Fahrenheit, is not materially affected, and in this the skin doubtless plays the most important rôle. Whenever cold acts upon the skin the irritation is primarily exerted upon the nerves, which transmit it to the central organs of the nervous system (the heat-regulating center), and from there it is reflected to the nerves of the cutaneous vessels and muscular fibers, which promptly contract, and in consequence of a diminished blood supply there is less loss of heat. If, on the other hand, heat instead of cold plays upon the skin, we have dilatation instead of contraction of the vessels, with an increased surface blood supply and corresponding loss of heat by radiation and conduction. At the same time the perspiratory glands are stimulated to greater activity, more sweat is excreted and evaporated, and still more heat is dissipated. One of the bad effects of profuse perspiration is that the blood is deprived of some of its constituents. The blood is taken away too long from the internal organs; the proper distribution

of the blood supply is interfered with, and in consequence the tone and nutrition of the stomach, lungs, heart, and other internal organs is lowered. There is loss of appetite and indigestion ensues; the red corpuscles are decreased; languor and general enervation is experienced, and the system in consequence is rendered more susceptible to disease.

While the human organism endeavors to adapt itself to extremes of heat and cold, the faculty of the body to maintain the equilibrium is by no means unlimited, and the heat-regulating center is liable to fail or become paralyzed if imposed upon too long or too frequently. This is especially the case during sudden changes of temperature. It is the abruptness which offends the peripheral nerves, and the greater the abruptness the more intensive will be the irritation which is transmitted by reflex action to other parts of the body, usually the weakest parts; it may result in driving the blood to internal organs, causing congestions and other mischief. Then again a cold draft playing on the cheek may cause neuralgia, paralysis, sore throat, bronchitis, or pneumonia, showing that cold applied locally may excite disease in the neighborhood of its application or in distant organs, and finally it may produce disease by checking the secretions of the skin.

The most agreeable temperature for average healthy adults properly clothed and performing light work is between 65 and 70 degrees Fahrenheit, and every effort should be made to avoid extremes of heat and cold. Much may be done to reduce the temperature of workshops by forced ventilation and a supply of cool, fresh air. The windows should be kept open during the summer nights, so that the rooms may be thoroughly flushed with fresh and cool air.

HUMIDITY OF THE AIR.

The atmosphere always contains a certain amount of water in the state of vapor, which varies from 30 per cent to complete saturation, or, according to temperature, from 1 to 12 grains in a cubic foot of air. The degree of atmospheric humidity is of special hygienic importance, as it influences to a great extent the cutaneous and pulmonary exhalation of vapor, and in consequence also affects the animal temperature. The average daily amount of water eliminated by the skin is 2½ pounds, and about 10 ounces by the lungs. It is evident that when the air is damp evaporation is lessened, because damp air possesses little drying power, and the water from the skin and lungs is with difficulty evaporated. The evaporation of perspiration, by which much heat is rendered latent, is one of the chief sources of cooling of the body. Consequently when the air is hot and moist the humidity tends to increase the effects of the heat, the blood is with difficulty kept at its proper temperature, and all the disagreeable effects of a

high temperature are intensified. This condition may be so aggravated that the temperature of the body exceeds the normal degree and causes the so-called heat stroke or heat exhaustion, which occurs especially on hot, sultry days.

A damp, cold, or chilly air also produces mischief, because it abstracts an undue amount of animal heat, lowers the general vitality of the system, and favors the development of diseases of the respiratory passages and of neuralgic and rheumatic affections, and aggravates the severity of such attacks. We may conclude, therefore, that excessive humidity tends to intensify the effects of both heat and cold. On the other hand, excessive dryness of the air is also harmful; it increases evaporation, the skin becomes dry and chapped, and the mucous membranes of the mouth, eyes, and respiratory passages are irritated, causing so-called catarrhal conditions. For all these reasons an average relative humidity between 65 and 75 per cent has been found most healthful, and efforts should be made to maintain such a standard whenever practicable. Apart from methods calculated to accomplish these results, reliable thermometers and hygrometers are required to secure efficient control. Instead of making a general provision for sufficient heat, moisture, etc., State legislators would do well to prescribe a standard, at least in industries where such a standard is practicable and can be reasonably enforced.

LIGHTING.

The natural light in workshops should be sufficient so that the eyes need not to be strained even on cloudy days. When the light is defective the objects have to be brought too near. The eyes in consequence converge, and the muscular strain thus induced causes a gradual elongation of the anterior-posterior axis of the eyeball, and nearsightedness results. In addition, it is believed by specialists that 80 to 90 per cent of the headaches are caused by eye strain. It has been found by Putzeys^(*) that the natural lighting in temperate climates will usually come up to hygienic requirements when the area of windows, exclusive of sash frames, equals one-sixth of the floor space. In order that the light may penetrate the deeper portions of the room, the windows should reach almost to the ceiling and the glass should be either pure white, ribbed or prismatic, and kept clean. Wisconsin is apparently the only State which has undertaken to legislate specifically upon this point, as section 3 of chapter 79, Acts of 1899, provides: "Every window shall have not less than 12 square feet in superficial area, and the entire area of window surface shall not be less than 12 per cent of the floor space of such room."

^{*}Cited by Munson, *Military Hygiene*, 1901, p. 521.

The difficulty of securing a sufficient amount of daylight in buildings located on narrow streets surrounded by tall buildings has been partly overcome by glass building blocks, 8 by 6 by 2½ inches, with an air chamber in the center, used instead of brick or stone, in connection with steel-frame construction, but more particularly by the introduction of prismatic glass, which refracts and diffuses the light.

ARTIFICIAL LIGHT.

No matter how obtained, artificial light differs from daylight in this, that it does not furnish a pure white light, the prevailing rays being red, yellow, or violet. Whatever difference of opinion there may be as to the color best suited to our eyes, we know that our vision is most perfect under the influence of a white light, and this ought to be a good criterion. One of the disadvantages of all low-power illuminants is that the light is never so bright as daylight, involving, therefore, closer application of the eyes and consequent strain of the muscles of the eyeball. These remarks are hardly applicable to the electric arc light and the Welsbach gas-burner, the rays of which, like the direct solar rays, may indeed be so glaring as to cause undue irritation of the retina.

Another harmful effect of artificial illumination is the unsteady or flickering character, especially seen in the electric arc light, and which on account of the abrupt changes is likely to irritate the retina. Another disadvantage is that the ordinary illuminants, except the electric light, tend to vitiate the air by the products of combustion, and also affect the temperature and humidity of the air by the heat evolved.

The requirements of a hygienic light are that it should be as near as possible the color of the sunlight, sufficiently ample but not too glaring; it should be steady, and instead of deteriorating the air it should as far as practicable be utilized to promote ventilation; nor should the heat evolved be sufficiently intense to be a source of discomfort to the inmates in warm weather. The most common methods of lighting now employed are the electric incandescent lamps, arc lights, mercury-vapor lights and electric bulbs, gaslight, and kerosene lamps. Of these, the electric lights, especially the mercury-vapor lights, are superior to gas or other illuminants because there is little or no danger from fire, there are no products of combustion, hence no pollution of the air, nor are the temperature and humidity of the room affected to any perceptible extent. These advantages over gas or kerosene are of special importance to the inmates of the buildings where the question of fresh air and temperature plays an important rôle; hence many industrial plants find it profitable to install the very best type of electric lighting, and thereby save time and money by the prevention of sickness and accidents among their

employees. Next to the electric light, gas, especially in connection with a Welsbach or Siemen's burner, or the acetylene gas, offers the next best choice. In the absence of either electric or gas light, kerosene with a high flashing point should be preferred over other illuminants. In all such instances suitable outlets for the products of combustion should be provided.

White, clean ceilings and walls will be of great service not only in solving the question of light, but also in general sanitation, and a number of States, notably Indiana, Kentucky, Missouri, New Jersey, and New York, require the walls to be limewashed or painted.

The sufficiency of artificial lighting may be approximately determined by observation, and quite accurately by the employment of Bunsen's method and his photometer. In this country and England, according to Munson, "the unit adopted for the measurement and comparison of lights is a No. 6 sperm candle burning 8 grams per hour and giving out a light known as '1 candlepower.'" Such a candle contains on analysis carbon, 80 per cent; hydrogen, 13 per cent; oxygen, 6 per cent, and in combustion yields equal volumes of carbonic acid and watery vapor to the air, namely, 0.41 cubic foot.

PREVENTION OF ACCIDENTS.

Twenty-one States have taken steps to reduce accidents to a minimum. For this purpose they have enacted laws concerning employers' liability if they fail to provide safety devices for the movable and dangerous parts of machinery. Apart from proper screening, belting, etc., the use of respirators, wire masks, and goggles are absolutely essential for the prevention of accidents or injuries in many employments. At least 29 States require some form of protection in case of fire, by means of fire escapes and doors swinging outwardly, while a respectable number also insist upon inspection and registration of steam boilers.

A careful inspection of steam boilers and examination of engineers have materially lessened the dangers from boiler explosions, so that in England there is only about 1 explosion in 6,200 registered boilers.

It has been suggested that employees who come in contact with moving machinery should provide themselves with suitable clothing, so fitted and arranged as to reduce the dangers to a minimum. There is an endless variety of suitable patterns in the market, of which the snug-fitting duck union suits properly buttoned and adjusted are the best. Asbestos clothing has been recommended for firemen and furnace operators; but as it is rather heavy, light leather suits or aprons are preferable, while even ordinary clothing may be rendered practically noninflammable by chemical treatment.

MISCELLANEOUS SANITARY PROVISIONS.

A number of States have enacted laws concerning general cleanliness of factories and workshops. Most of the factory laws make provisions for the necessary sanitary conveniences, such as privies, water-closets, and urinals, and where men and women are employed separate dressing rooms and water-closets are called for. Some of the States, like Wisconsin, for example, specify "that when the number employed is more than 25 of either sex there shall be provided an additional water-closet for such sex up to the number of 50 persons, and above that number in the same ratio."

A large number of States make wash rooms, dressing rooms, and seats for female employees obligatory, and not a few insist upon separate provisions for the sexes. The importance of personal cleanliness has been pointed out. In certain occupations the washing of the hands before eating is important, and in occupations involving exposure to poisonous dust or agents the employment of a general bath should be encouraged by insisting upon the introduction of suitable shower baths.

A few States, notably Massachusetts and Rhode Island, make provisions for "fresh drinking water, of good quality." The former State also regulates the spitting habit by insisting upon suitable spittoons. These and other questions, like clothes lockers and lunch rooms, and the time allowed for the noonday meals, which is already regulated in a number of States, should receive universal attention. Much industrial legislation has been enacted by State legislatures during the past ten years. Commendable progress has been made in the provision of ventilation, heating, lighting, removal of dust, and general sanitation of workshops. The need for additional improvement is shown by the Massachusetts Board of Health's survey of the work in that State, which has generally been in the lead in factory laws.

The Report of the State Board of Health, on page 4, reads:

"In many [industries] the conditions were found to be satisfactory. In the emery and corundum, sandpaper and certain other industries more attention should be given to keeping the dust away from the mouth and nostrils of the workmen. In the rag dusting, sorting and cutting rooms of some paper mills very objectionable amounts of dust were found, with some pale and sickly appearing operatives; but there are mills using the same kind of stock where the dust is kept away from the employees in a satisfactory manner, and much improvement is practicable in the former class."

The same remarks are applicable to the textile industries, and the hope is expressed that the unsatisfactory conditions found in the minority of establishments will be raised to those which are now found to be good.

Reference has already been made in these pages to the conditions found in machine shops, the cutlery and tool industry, cigar, rubber, boot and shoe, and other industries examined. In the boot and shoe industry comment is made upon "four conditions which can be and ought to be remedied. These are: poor ventilation, inadequate removal of dust from machines; the conditions of water-closets; and spit upon the floors. In the majority of factories visited the ventilation was found to be poor, and in many of them distinctly bad. Of the rooms not especially dusty, 102 were badly ventilated and 26 were overcrowded. * * * Of 84 of the many dusty rooms reported, 40 were also overcrowded, 35 were dark, 21 were overheated, and 18 were overcrowded, dark, and overheated.

"In more than one-third of the factories visited the conditions of water-closets were not commendable; most of them were dark and dirty to very dirty. In 50 establishments no spitting was noticed, in 173 there was some, in 115 considerable, and in 35 much.

"In some establishments lunch rooms are provided, where employees may eat the luncheon they have brought or may buy one; in much the larger number the employees eat in the workrooms. * * * In 85 factories, or 23 per cent of those visited, a considerable proportion of the employees are noticeably pale and unhealthy."^(a)

In discussing the following provisions in the Massachusetts laws, "All factories shall be kept clean," the State board of health very properly points out that "what is clean in an ax-grinding factory would not be clean in a silk mill; but the law makes no distinction, and the judgment of the officer can not be received as law." The board considers it impossible to specify in any law a standard of cleanliness applicable to all industries, and advises "that the officer should be authorized to hold all factories in any industry up to the standard of cleanliness which he finds maintained in the factories in the same industry and using the same grade of stock which are the cleanest." The same method is recommended for the enforcement of standards in other directions, subject to an appeal to the State board of health.^(b)

LODGING HOUSES AND SLEEPING QUARTERS.

It not infrequently happens that large industrial plants and contractors provide board and lodging for their unmarried employees. Again, in a number of the smaller industries the employees not infrequently board with the family and are obliged to sleep in objectionable rooms. All such provisions should come up to a reasonable standard

^a Report of the State Board of Health of Massachusetts upon the Sanitary Condition of Factories, Workshops etc., 1907, p. 6.

^b *Ibid.*, pp. 7, 8.

as regards salubrity, air space, light, heat, and ventilation, and separate provisions should be required for males and females and youthful employees. Lodging houses should come up to a certain standard, and wash and bath rooms and suitable toilet facilities should be provided. Special attention should be paid to general cleanliness within and without quarters for working parties, and to the character and preparation of food.

PERMANENT EXPOSITIONS DEVOTED TO INDUSTRIAL AND SOCIAL BETTERMENT OF WAGE-EARNERS.

It will require time and patience to bring employers and workers to a full realization of the dangers incident to the various occupations and to a thorough appreciation of the methods which have been proposed in the way of factory sanitation, safety devices, etc. Good results abroad have been accomplished by a permanent exposition devoted to social and industrial betterment for wage-earners. Such an exposition was provided for by the German Government a few years ago, and a similar effort is now being made in the city of New York. The German exposition occupies a building specially erected for the purpose at Charlottenburg, a suburb of Berlin, and here every safety appliance which inventive genius has devised can be seen in practical operation. The different labor unions appear to profit immensely by the special lectures and demonstrations which are given on Sundays or, upon request, at any convenient time, by men formerly employed in "dangerous occupations." Apart from safety devices for machinery and appliances for removal of dust and injurious gases, all improved methods calculated to diminish danger, as, for example, in the manufacture of white lead, etc., are illustrated by models and descriptive text, printed leaflets being distributed free of charge. Here, too, may be seen the best and most recent types of respirators, wire masks, goggles, illuminating appliances, and safety working suits. Inventors and designers esteem it a great honor to have their products admitted for exposition. Only meritorious objects are displayed, and they are replaced by the newer and more satisfactory types. One of the most interesting collections consists of a series of bottles containing different varieties of dust, a series of photographs showing the microscopical character of this dust, and, last but not least, anatomical specimens and microscopical slides showing the effects of dust upon the air passages and lungs of the human subject. Models, plans, and photographs of tenements and model homes for wage-earners, exterior and interior decorations, literature and charts concerning industrial betterment, all find a prominent place in the exhibit. The display of food stuffs, their nutritive and economic value, together with instructive leaflets, form part of this interesting exposition. A popular pamphlet seen at the exposition in September, 1907, was compiled by Professor Kalle and Doctor

Schellenberg, entitled "How to keep well and capacitated for work," which is sold by the Society for Popular Education, at 2½ cents a copy, over 470,000 having so far been sold.

EVIL EFFECTS OF INSANITARY HOUSES AND OVER-CROWDING.

The primary object of habitations is to secure protection from the influence of heat, cold, rain, sunshine, and storms, and thus promote the health and happiness and indirectly also the morals and culture of the human race.

The influence of sanitary houses can not be overestimated. Doctor Villermé, in an investigation in France from 1821 to 1827, found that among the inhabitants of arrondissements containing 7 per cent of badly constructed dwellings 1 person out of every 72 died, of inhabitants of arrondissements containing 22 per cent of badly constructed dwellings 1 out of 65 died, while of the inhabitants of arrondissements containing 38 per cent of badly constructed dwellings 1 out of every 15 died.

With the present rapid-transit facilities in nearly every city individual homes should be possible to most workers, and when this is impracticable broad streets and deep yards should be insisted upon. No more than 68 per cent of the lot should be covered by the house, and the height of the building should not exceed the width of the street. The baneful effects of tenement houses should be avoided, as infectious diseases are more liable to spread in consequence of aerial infection and the more intimate contact of the occupants.

Apart from the structural defects, there is no doubt that the death rate is largely determined by the number of occupants to a room. Russell has shown that in Aberdeen, where the average number of persons to each room was only 1.51 the mortality was 21.7 per 1,000, and in Glasgow, where the number of occupants amounted to 2.05 for each room the mortality reached 28.6 per 1,000.

According to Kőrösi the mortality from infectious diseases at Budapest is only 20 when the number of occupants to each room does not exceed 2, but is 29 per 1,000 with 3 to 5 occupants, 32 per 1,000 with 6 to 10 occupants, and 79 per 1,000 when there are more than 10 occupants to each apartment.

The death rate at Berlin in 1885 among the 73,000 one-room tenants was 163.5 per 1,000, against 5.4 per 1,000 among 398,000 residents occupying four or more room apartments. The analysis of 2,711 infantile deaths in Berlin during 1903 investigated by Neumann has been presented.

Insanitary dwellings are to be found everywhere, and particularly in older cities erected at a time when the principles of sanitation were comparatively unknown. One of the most important municipal

problems is to correct existing evils by the enactment and enforcement of suitable laws. It requires, however, a strong public sentiment to bring about a complete and satisfactory reformation, as evidenced by the housing movement elsewhere, for in spite of the excellent tenement-house laws in New York, according to Homer Folks, of 370,000 dark rooms reported in existence by the tenement-house department in 1903, some 20,000 only have been opened to the light during the past three and one-half years. The prohibition against the use of cellar and basement rooms partly underground can not be enforced owing to the lack of a sufficient number of inspectors.⁽⁴⁾

HOUSE DISEASES.

It has long been known that rickets, scrofula, and chronic forms of tuberculosis are far more prevalent in dark, damp, and insanitary houses. The children are anemic and as puny as plants reared without the stimulating effects of sunlight. Add to this the fact that dampness abstracts an undue amount of animal heat, lowers the power of resistance, and favors the development of catarrhal conditions, which render the system more vulnerable to tuberculosis, and we have a reasonable explanation why these diseases prevail especially in basements or houses below grade and otherwise unfit for human habitation. The death rate is often double or treble that of other localities, and while there are doubtless other factors which determine the frightful mortality the most potent are insufficient sunlight and defective ventilation. Diphtheria, cerebro-spinal meningitis, acute and chronic rheumatism, and bronchial affections are also more frequent in insanitary dwellings.

That the same is true of infantile diarrhea is doubtless due to the fact that the construction of the buildings does not protect from the heat of summer, and the enervating effects of heat and the more speedy decomposition of food (especially of milk) in such an atmosphere combine to carry on the slaughter of the innocents.

The history of improved dwellings reveals everywhere a lessened death rate, and the experience of the Washington Sanitary Improvement Company is equally gratifying. During the year ending December 31, 1906, the apartments were occupied by 778 adults and 380 children, total 1,158; the births during the year numbered 39, and there were only 16 deaths, 10 adults and 6 infants; a death rate of 13.8 per 1,000, which, with all due allowance for the average age of the occupants, shows a remarkably low mortality when compared with the general death rate among the white population of the city of 16.9 per 1,000.

The regeneration of the housing conditions for the least resourceful people is the great sanitary and social problem of the twentieth century.

⁴ *Charities*, November 30, 1907.

Take away the hovels and filthy places, let sunshine and pure air circulate through their homes, and teach them habits of cleanliness and responsibility, and the first step toward the elevation of the degraded and the education of the ignorant will be taken, not only in the warfare against tuberculosis and other diseases engendered by insanitary surroundings, but also in the battle for higher moral and social standards.

WHAT THE EMPLOYEE MAY DO TO CONTRIBUTE TO HIS OWN WELFARE.

Sufficient has been said in the preceding pages to indicate the dangers to which the workers are exposed in many industrial pursuits, and the methods proposed to alleviate the effects have also been pointed out. Wage-earners must show a willingness to avail themselves of the various "safety devices" and not underrate their importance in the protection of life and limb. While it is criminal for employers not to provide suitable protection, it is equally culpable on the part of the operatives to disregard all such preventive measures. So, for example, it is not a pleasing reflection to be told by Doctor Harrington, professor of hygiene at the Harvard Medical School, in speaking of respirators, that, "aside from the discomfort caused, the operatives have another, a senseless, objection to their use, women complaining that they are made to look ridiculous, and men being moved to discard them by the gibes of their more reckless fellows." The writer recently visited Frankford Arsenal and found men working in high explosives without rubber gloves and respirators, although provided by the Government with these articles. Doctor Farrand, secretary of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, also spoke of the great difficulties he and others have encountered in New York and New Jersey to induce the operatives to give safety devices a fair trial.

APPENDIX.—REGULATION OF DANGEROUS TRADES IN ENGLAND.

[In addition to the general provisions regarding ventilation, etc., which apply to all manufacturing establishments, the English Factory and Workshop Act (1901) contains a chapter of Special Provisions for dangerous and unhealthy industries, which is reprinted below, together with the Special Rules and Regulations issued by the government officials in accordance with the grant of authority therein made.]

FACTORY AND WORKSHOP ACT, 1901.

PART IV.—DANGEROUS AND UNHEALTHY INDUSTRIES.

(i) *Special provisions.*

SECTION 73. (1) Every medical practitioner attending on or called in to visit a patient whom he believes to be suffering from lead, phosphorus, arsenical or mercurial poisoning, or anthrax, contracted in any factory or workshop, shall (unless the notice required by this subsection has been previously sent) send to the chief inspector of factories at the home office, London, a notice stating the name and full postal address of the patient and the disease from which, in the opinion of the medical practitioner, the

patient is suffering, and shall be entitled in respect of every notice sent in pursuance of this section to a fee of two shillings and sixpence, to be paid as part of the expenses incurred by the secretary of state in the execution of this act.

(2) If any medical practitioner, when required by this section to send a notice, fails forthwith to send the same, he shall be liable to a fine not exceeding forty shillings.

(3) Written notice of every case of lead, phosphorus, arsenical or mercurial poisoning, or anthrax, occurring in a factory or workshop, shall forthwith be sent to the inspector and to the certifying surgeon for the district; and the provisions of this act with respect to accidents shall apply to any such case in like manner as to any such accident as is mentioned in those provisions.

(4) The secretary of state may, by special order, apply the provisions of this section to any other disease occurring in a factory or workshop, and thereupon this section and the provisions referred to therein shall apply accordingly.

Sec. 74. If in a factory or workshop where grinding, glazing, or polishing on a wheel, or any process is carried on by which dust, or any gas, vapor, or other impurity, is generated and inhaled by the workers to an injurious extent, it appears to an inspector that such inhalation could be to a great extent prevented by the use of a fan or other mechanical means, the inspector may direct that a fan or other mechanical means of a proper construction for preventing such inhalation be provided within a reasonable time, and if the same is not provided, maintained and used, the factory or workshop shall be deemed not to be kept in conformity with this act.

Sec. 75. (1) In every factory or workshop where lead, arsenic or any other poisonous substance is used, suitable washing conveniences must be provided for the use of the persons employed in any department where such substances are used.

(2) In any factory or workshop where lead, arsenic, or other poisonous substance is so used as to give rise to dust or fumes, a person shall not be allowed to take a meal or to remain during the times allowed to him for meals, in any room in which any such substance is used, and suitable provision shall be made for enabling the persons employed in such rooms to take their meals elsewhere in the factory or workshop.

(3) A factory or workshop in which there is a contravention of this section shall be deemed not to be kept in conformity with this act.

Sec. 76. (1) A woman, young person or child must not be employed in any part of a factory in which wet-spinning is carried on, unless sufficient means are employed and continued for protecting the workers from being wetted, and where hot water is used for preventing the escape of steam into the room occupied by the workers.

(2) A factory in which there is a contravention of this section shall be deemed not to be kept in conformity with this act.

Sec. 77. (1) In the part of a factory or workshop in which there is carried on—

(a) the process of silvering of mirrors by the mercurial process; or

(b) the process of making white lead,

a young person or child must not be employed.

(2) In the part of a factory in which the process of melting or annealing glass is carried on a female, young person, or a child must not be employed.

(3) In a factory or workshop in which there is carried on—

(a) the making or finishing of bricks or tiles not being ornamental tiles; or

(b) the making or finishing of salt,

a girl under the age of sixteen years must not be employed.

(4) In the part of a factory or workshop in which there is carried on—

(a) any dry grinding in the metal trade; or

(b) the dipping of lucifer matches,

a child must not be employed.

(5) Notice of a prohibition contained in this section must be affixed in the factory or workshop to which it applies.

Sec. 78. (1) A woman, young person or child must not be allowed to take a meal, or to remain during the time allowed for meals in the following factories or workshops, or parts of factories or workshops; that is to say,—

(a) in the case of glass works, in any part in which the materials are mixed; and

(b) in the case of glass works where flint glass is made, in any part in which the work of grinding, cutting, or polishing is carried on; and,

(c) in the case of lucifer-match works, in any part in which any manufacturing process or handicraft (except that of cutting the wood) is usually carried on; and

(d) in the case of earthenware works, in any part known or used as dippers house, dippers drying room, or china scouring room.

(2) If a woman, young person, or child is allowed to take a meal or to remain during the time allowed for meals in a factory or workshop or part thereof in contravention of this section, the woman, young person, or child shall be deemed to be employed contrary to the provisions of this act.

(3) Notice of the prohibition of this section shall be affixed in every factory or workshop to which it applies.

(4) Where it appears to the secretary of state that by reason of the nature of the process in any class of factories or workshops or parts thereof not named in this section the taking of meals therein is specially injurious to health, he may, if he thinks fit, by special order, extend the prohibition in this section to the class of factories or workshops or parts thereof.

(5) If the prohibition in this section is proved to the satisfaction of the secretary of state to be no longer necessary for the protection of the health of women, young persons, and children, in any class of factories or workshops or parts thereof to which it has been so extended, he may, by special order, rescind the order of extension, without prejudice to the subsequent making of another order.

(ii) *Regulations for dangerous trades.*

SEC. 79. Where the secretary of state is satisfied that any manufacture, machinery, plant, process, or description of manual labor, used in factories or workshops, is dangerous or injurious to health or dangerous to life or limb, either generally or in the case of women, children, or any other class of persons, he may certify that manufacture, machinery, plant, process, or description of manual labor, to be dangerous; and thereupon the secretary of state may, subject to the provisions of this act, make such regulations as appear to him to be reasonably practicable, and to meet the necessity of the case.

SEC. 80. (1) Before the secretary of state makes any regulations under this act, he shall publish, in such manner as he may think best adapted for informing persons affected, notice of the proposal to make the regulations, and of the place where copies of the draft regulations may be obtained, and of the time (which shall be not less than twenty-one days) within which any objection made with respect to the draft regulations by or on behalf of persons affected must be sent to the secretary of state.

(2) Every objection must be in writing and state—

(a) the draft regulations or portions of draft regulations objected to;

(b) the specific grounds of objection; and

(c) the omissions, additions, or modifications asked for.

(3) The secretary of state shall consider any objection made by or on behalf of any persons appearing to him to be affected which is sent to him within the required time, and he may, if he thinks fit, amend the draft regulations, and shall then cause the amended draft to be dealt with in like manner as an original draft.

(4) Where the secretary of state does not amend or withdraw any draft regulations to which any objection has been made, then (unless the objection either is withdrawn or appears to him to be frivolous) he shall, before making the regulations, direct an inquiry to be held in the manner hereinafter provided.

SEC. 81. (1) The secretary of state may appoint a competent person to hold an inquiry with regard to any draft regulations, and to report to him thereon.

(2) The inquiry shall be held in public, and the chief inspector and any objector and any other person who, in the opinion of the person holding the inquiry, is affected by the draft regulations, may appear at the inquiry either in person or by counsel, solicitor, or agent.

(3) The witnesses on the inquiry may, if the person holding it thinks fit, be examined on oath.

(4) Subject as aforesaid, the inquiry and all proceedings preliminary and incidental thereto shall be conducted in accordance with rules made by the secretary of state.

(5) The fee to be paid to the person holding the inquiry shall be such as the secretary of state may direct, and shall be deemed to be part of the expenses of the secretary of state in the execution of this act.

SEC. 82. (1) The regulations made under the foregoing provisions of this act may apply to all the factories and workshops in which the manufacture, machinery, plant, process, or description of manual labor, certified to be dangerous is used (whether existing at the time when the regulations are made or afterwards established) or to any specified class of such factories or workshop. They may provide for the exemption of any specified class or factories or workshops either absolutely or subject to conditions.

(2) The regulations may apply to tenement factories and tenement workshops, and in such case may impose duties on occupiers who do not employ any person, and on owners.

(3) No person shall be precluded by any agreement from doing, or be liable under any agreement to any penalty or forfeiture for doing, such acts as may be necessary in order to comply with the provisions of any regulation made under this act.

SEC. 83. Regulations made under the foregoing provisions of this act may, among other things—

(a) prohibit the employment of, or modify or limit the period of employment of, all persons or any class of persons in any manufacture, machinery, plant, process, or description of manual labor certified to be dangerous; and

(b) prohibit, limit, or control the use of any material or process; and

(c) modify or extend any special regulations for any class of factories or workshops contained in this act.

SEC. 84. Regulations made under the foregoing provisions of this act shall be laid as soon as possible before both Houses of Parliament, and if either House within the next forty days after the regulations have been laid before that House, resolve that all or any of the regulations ought to be annulled, the regulations shall, after the date of the resolution, be of no effect, without prejudice to the validity of anything done in the meantime thereunder, or to the making of any new regulations. If one or more of a set of regulations are annulled, the secretary of state may, if he thinks fit, withdraw the whole set.

SEC. 85. (1) If any occupier, owner, or manager, who is bound to observe any regulation under this act, acts in contravention of or fails to comply with the regulation, he shall be liable for each offense to a fine not exceeding ten pounds [\$48.67] and, in the case of a continuing offense, to a fine not exceeding two pounds [\$9.73] for every day during which the offense continues after conviction therefor.

(2) If any person other than an occupier, owner, or manager, who is bound to observe any regulation under this act, acts in contravention of, or fails to comply with, the regulation, he shall be liable for each offense to a fine not exceeding two pounds [\$9.73]; and the occupier of the factory or workshop shall also be liable to a fine not exceeding ten pounds [\$48.67], unless he proves that he has taken all reasonable means by publishing, and to the best of his power enforcing, the regulations to prevent the contravention or noncompliance.

SEC. 86. (1) Notice of any regulations having been made under the foregoing provisions of this act, and of the place where copies of them can be purchased, shall be published in the London, Edinburgh, and Dublin Gazettes.

(2) Printed copies of all regulations for the time being in force under this act in any factory or workshop shall be kept posted up in legible characters in conspicuous places in the factory or workshop where they may be conveniently read by the persons employed. In a factory or workshop in Wales or Monmouthshire the regulations shall be posted up in the Welsh language also.

(3) A printed copy of all such regulations shall be given by the occupier to any person affected thereby on his or her application.

(4) If the occupier of any factory or workshop fails to comply with any provision of this section as to posting up or giving copies, he shall be liable to a fine not exceeding ten pounds [\$48.67].

(5) Every person who pulls down, injures, or defaces any regulations posted up in pursuance of this act, or any notice posted up in pursuance of the regulations, shall be liable to a fine not exceeding five pounds [\$24.33].

(6) Regulations for the time being in force under this act shall be judicially noticed.

SPECIAL RULES AND REGULATIONS.

White lead factories.
 Red and orange lead works.
 Yellow lead works.
 Lead smelting works.
 Factories using yellow chromate of lead.
 Earthenware and china works.
 Electric accumulator factories (regulations).
 Iron-plate enameling works (using lead, arsenic, or antimony).
 Tinning and enameling works (using lead or arsenic).
 Paint and color works (extraction of arsenic).
 Brass and compound metal mixing or casting shops.
 Chemical works.
 Bichromate or chromate of potassium or sodium works.
 Explosive works (using di-nitro-benzole).
 Vulcanized india-rubber works (using bisulphide of carbon).
 Lucifer match factories using white or yellow phosphorus.

Felt hat factories (regulations).
 Handling of dry and drysalted hides and skins imported from Asia.
 Wool and hair sorting (regulations).
 Flax and tow spinning and weaving (regulations).
 File cutting by hand (regulations).
 Bottling of aerated water.
 Spinning by self-acting mules (regulations).
 Loading goods on docks and wharves (regulations).
 Use of factory engines and cars (regulations).

WHITE LEAD FACTORIES.

(Form 247—February, 1903.)

In these rules "person employed in a lead process" means a person who is employed in any work or process involving exposure to white lead, or to lead or lead compounds used in its manufacture, or who is admitted to any room or part of the factory where such process is carried on.

Any approval given by the chief inspector of factories in pursuance of rules 2, 4, 6, 9, or 12 shall be given in writing, and may at any time be revoked by notice in writing signed by him.

Duties of occupiers.

1. On and after July 1st, 1899, no part of a white lead factory shall be constructed, structurally altered, or newly used, for any process in which white lead is manufactured or prepared for sale, unless the plans have previously been submitted to and approved in writing by the chief inspector of factories.

2. (a) Every stack shall be provided with a standpipe and movable hose, and an adequate supply of water distributed by a hose.

(b) Every white bed shall, on the removal of the covering boards, be effectually damped by the means mentioned above.

Where it is shown to the satisfaction of the chief inspector of factories that there is no available public water service in the district, it shall be a sufficient compliance with this rule if each white bed is, on the removal of the covering boards, effectually damped by means of a watering can.

3. Where white lead is made by the chamber process, the chamber shall be kept moist while the process is in operation, and the corrosions shall be effectually moistened before the chamber is emptied.

4. (a) Corrosions shall not be carried except in trays of impervious material.

(b) No person shall be allowed to carry on his head or shoulder a tray of corrosions which has been allowed to rest directly upon the corrosions, or upon any surface where there is white lead.

(c) All corrosions before being put into the rollers or washbecks, shall be effectually damped, either by dipping the tray containing them in a trough of water or by some other method approved by the chief inspector of factories.

5. The flooring round the rollers shall either be of smooth cement or be covered with sheet lead, and shall be kept constantly moist.

6. On and after January 1st, 1901, except as hereinafter provided—

(a) Every stove shall have a window, or windows, with a total area of not less than 8 square feet, made to open, and so placed as to admit of effectual through ventilation.

(b) In no stove shall bowls be placed on a rack which is more than 10 feet from the floor.

(c) Each bowl shall rest upon the rack and not upon another bowl.

(d) No stove shall be entered for the purpose of drawing until the temperature at a height of 5 feet from the floor has fallen either to 70° F., or to a point not more than 10° F. above the temperature of the air outside.

(e) In drawing any stove or part of a stove there shall not be more than one stage or standing place above the level of the floor.

Provided that if the chief inspector approves of any other means of ventilating a stove, as allowing of effectual through ventilation, such means may be adopted, notwithstanding paragraph (a) of this rule; and if he approves of any other method of setting and drawing the stoves, as effectually preventing white lead from falling upon any worker, such method may be followed, notwithstanding paragraphs (b) and (e) of this rule.

7. No person shall be employed in drawing Dutch stoves on more than two days in any week.

8. No dry white lead shall be deposited in any place that is not provided either with a cover or with a fan effectually removing the dust from the worker.

9. On and after January 1st, 1900, the packing of dry white lead shall be done only under conditions which secure the effectual removal of dust, either by exhaust fans or by other efficient means approved in each case by the chief inspector of factories.

This rule shall not apply where the packing is effected by mechanical means entirely closed in.

10. The floor of any place where packing of dry white lead is carried on shall be of cement, or of stone set in cement.

11. No woman shall be employed or allowed in the white beds, rollers, washbeds, or stoves, or in any place where dry white lead is packed, or in other work exposing her to white lead dust.

12. (a) A duly qualified medical practitioner (in these rules referred to as the "appointed surgeon") shall be appointed by the occupier for each factory, such appointment to be subject to the approval of the chief inspector.

(b) No person shall be employed in a lead process for more than a week without a certificate of fitness granted after examination by the appointed surgeon.

(c) Every person employed in a lead process shall be examined once a week by the appointed surgeon, who shall have power to order suspension from employment in any place or process.

(d) No person after such suspension shall be employed in a lead process without the written sanction of the appointed surgeon.

(e) A register in a form approved by the chief inspector of factories shall be kept, and shall contain a list of all persons employed in lead processes. The appointed surgeon will enter in the register the dates and results of his examinations of the persons employed, and particulars of any directions given by him. The register shall be produced at any time when required by H. M. inspectors of factories or by the certifying surgeon or by the appointed surgeon.

13. Upon any person employed in a lead process complaining of being unwell, the occupier shall, with the least possible delay, give an order upon a duly qualified medical practitioner.

14. The occupier shall provide and maintain sufficient and suitable respirators, overalls, and head-coverings, and shall cause them to be worn as directed in rule 29.

At the end of every day's work they shall be collected and kept in proper custody in a suitable place set apart for the purpose.

They shall be thoroughly washed or renewed every week; and those which have been used in the stoves, and all respirators, shall be washed or renewed daily.

15. The occupier shall provide and maintain a dining-room and a cloakroom in which workers can deposit clothing put off during working hours.

16. No person employed in a lead process shall be allowed to prepare or partake of any food or drink except in the dining-room or kitchen.

17. A supply of a suitable sanitary drink, to be approved by the appointed surgeon shall be kept for the use of the workers.

18. The occupier shall provide and maintain a lavatory for the use of the workers, with soap, nailbrushes, and at least one lavatory basin for every five persons employed. Each such basin shall be fitted with a waste pipe. There shall be a constant supply of hot and cold water laid on, except where there is no available public water service, in which case the provision of hot and cold water shall be such as shall satisfy the inspector in charge of the district.

The lavatory shall be thoroughly cleaned and supplied with clean towels after every meal.

There shall, in addition, be means of washing in close proximity to the workers of each department, if required by notice in writing from the inspector in charge of the district.

There shall be facilities, to the satisfaction of the inspector in charge of the district, for the workers to wash out their mouths.

19. Before each meal, and before the end of the day's work, at least ten minutes in addition to the regular meal times, shall be allowed to each worker for washing.

A notice to this effect shall be affixed in each department.

20. The occupier shall provide and maintain sufficient baths and dressing rooms for all persons employed in lead processes, with hot and cold water, soap and towels, and shall cause each such person to take a bath once a week at the factory.

A bath register shall be kept, containing a list of all persons employed in lead processes, and an entry of the date when each person takes a bath.

This register shall be produced at any time when required by H. M. inspectors of factories or by the certifying surgeon or by the appointed surgeon.

21. The dressing rooms, baths, and water-closets shall be cleaned daily.

22. The floor of each workroom shall be cleaned daily, after being thoroughly damped.

Duties of persons employed.

23. No person shall strip a white bed or empty a chamber without previously effectually damping as directed in Rules 2 and 3.

24. No person shall carry corrosions, or put them into the rollers or washbecks, otherwise than as permitted by Rule 4.

25. No person shall set or draw a stove otherwise than as permitted by Rules 6 and 7.

26. No person shall deposit or pack dry white lead otherwise than as permitted by Rules 8 and 9.

27. Every person employed in a lead process shall present himself at the appointed times for examination by the appointed surgeon, as provided in Rule 12.

28. No person, after suspension by the appointed surgeon, shall work in a lead process without his written sanction.

29. Every person engaged in [stripping] white beds, emptying chambers, rollers, washbecks or grinding, setting or drawing stoves, packing, paint mixing, handling dry white lead, or in any work involving exposure to white-lead dust, shall, while so occupied, wear an overall suit and head covering.

Every person engaged in stripping white beds, or in emptying chambers, or in drawing stoves, or in packing, shall in addition wear a respirator while so occupied.

30. Every person engaged in any place or process named in Rule 29 shall, before partaking of meals or leaving the premises, deposit the overalls, head coverings, and respirators in the place appointed by the occupier for the purpose, and shall thoroughly wash face and hands in the lavatory.

31. Every person employed in a lead process shall take a bath at the factory at least once a week, and wash in the lavatory before bathing; having done so, he shall at once sign his name in the bath register, with the date.

32. No person employed in a lead process shall smoke or use tobacco in any form, or partake of food or drink, elsewhere than in the dining room or kitchen.

33. No person shall in any way interfere, without the knowledge and concurrence of the occupier or manager, with the means and appliances provided for the removal of dust.

34. The foreman shall report to the manager, and the manager shall report to the occupier, any instance coming under his notice of a worker neglecting to observe these rules.

35. No person shall obtain employment under an assumed name or under any false pretense.

ARTHUR WHITELEGGE,
Chief Inspector of Factories.
M. W. RIDLEY,

One of Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State.

1st JUNE, 1899.

NOTE.—These rules must be kept posted up in conspicuous places in the factory to which they apply, where they may be conveniently read by the persons employed. Any person who is bound to observe these rules and fails to do so, or acts in contravention of them, is liable to a penalty; and in such cases the occupier also is liable to a penalty unless he proves that he has taken all reasonable means by publishing, and to the best of his power, enforcing the rules, to prevent the contravention or noncompliance. (Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, sections 85 and 86.)

RED AND ORANGE LEAD WORKS.

(Form 261—February, 1904.)

Duties of occupiers.

In drawing charges of massicot, or of red lead, or of orange lead, from the furnace they shall not allow the charges of massicot, or of red lead, or of orange lead, to be discharged on to the floor of the factory or workshop, but shall arrange that it be shoveled, not raked, into wagons.

They shall arrange that no red or orange lead shall be packed in the room or rooms where the manufacture is actually carried on.

They shall arrange that no red or orange lead shall be packed in casks or other receptacles except in a place provided with a hood connected with a fan, or shall provide other suitable means to create an effective draft.

They shall provide sufficient bath accommodation for all persons employed in the manipulation of red and orange lead, and lavatories, with a good supply of hot water, soap, nailbrushes, and towels for the use of such persons.

They shall arrange for a monthly visit by a medical man who shall examine every worker individually, and who shall enter the result of each examination in a register book to be provided by the said occupiers.

They shall provide a sufficient supply of approved sanitary drink for the workers.

Duties of persons employed.

In cases where the cooperation of the workers is required for carrying out the foregoing rules, and where such cooperation is not given, the workers shall be held liable in accordance with the Factory and Workshop Act, 1891, section 9, which runs as follows:

"If any person who is bound to observe any special rules established for any factory or workshop under this act, acts in contravention of, or fails to comply with, any such special rule, he shall be liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding two pounds [\$9.73]."

YELLOW LEAD.

(Form 263—February, 1904.)

Duties of occupiers.

They shall provide washing conveniences, with a sufficient supply of hot and cold water, soap, nailbrushes, and towels.

They shall provide respirators and overall suits for the persons employed in all dry processes.

They shall provide fans or other suitable means of ventilation wherever dust is generated in the process of manufacture.

They shall provide a sufficient supply of epsom salts and of an approved sanitary drink.

Duties of persons employed.

In cases where the cooperation of the workers is required for carrying out the foregoing rules and where such cooperation is not given, the workers shall be held liable, in accordance with the Factory and Workshop Act, 1891, section 9, which runs as follows:

"If any person who is bound to observe any special rules established for any factory or workshop under this act, acts in contravention of, or fails to comply with, any such special rule, he shall be liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding two pounds [\$9.73]."

Respirators: A good respirator is a cambric bag with or without a thin flexible wire made to fit over the nose.

Sanitary drink suggested: Sulphate of magnesia, 2 ozs.; water, 1 gallon; essence of lemon, sufficient to flavor.

LEAD SMELTING WORKS.

(Form 264—January, 1906.)

Duties of occupiers.

They shall provide respirators and overall suits for the use of all persons employed in cleaning the flues, and take means to see that the same are used.

They shall arrange that no person be allowed to remain at work more than two hours at a time in a flue. (A rest of half an hour before reentering will be deemed sufficient.)

They shall provide sufficient bath accommodation for all persons employed in cleaning the flues, and every one so employed shall take a bath before leaving the works.

They shall provide washing conveniences, with a sufficient supply of hot and cold water, soap, nailbrushes and towels.

Duties of persons employed.

In cases where the cooperation of the workers is required for carrying out the foregoing rules, and where such cooperation is not given, the workers shall be held liable, in accordance with the Factory and Workshop Act, 1891, section 9, which runs as follows:

"If any person who is bound to observe any special rules established for any factory or workshop under this act, acts in contravention of, or fails to comply with, any such special rule, he shall be liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding two pounds [\$9.73]."

SPECIAL RULES FOR FACTORIES OR WORKSHOPS IN WHICH YELLOW CHROMATE OF LEAD IS USED, OR IN WHICH GOODS DYED WITH IT UNDERGO THE PROCESSES OF BUNDLING OR NODDLING, WINDING, REELING, WEAVING OR ANY OTHER TREATMENT.

(Form 270—February, 1904.)

Duties of occupiers.

They shall provide washing conveniences, with a sufficient supply of hot and cold water, soap, nailbrushes, and towels.

They shall provide respirators and overall suits for the persons employed in all dry processes.

They shall provide fans or other suitable means of ventilation wherever dust is generated in the process of manufacture.

They shall provide a sufficient supply of epsom salts and of the sanitary drink mentioned below or some other approved by H. M. inspector of factories.

Respirators: A good respirator is a cambric bag with or without a thin flexible wire made to fit over the nose.

Sanitary drink: Sulphate of magnesia, 2 ozs.; water, 1 gallon; essence of lemon, sufficient to flavor.

Duties of persons employed.

Every person to whom is supplied a respirator or overall suit shall wear the same when at the special work for which such are provided.

Every person shall carefully clean and wash hands and face before meals and before leaving the works.

No food shall be eaten in any part of the works in which yellow chromate of lead is used in the manufacture.

ARTHUR WHITELEGGE,
H. M. Chief Inspector of Factories.

Under section 9, Factory Act, 1891, any person who is bound to observe any special rules is liable to penalties for noncompliance with such special rules.

AMENDED SPECIAL RULES FOR THE MANUFACTURE AND DECORATION OF EARTHENWARE AND CHINA.

As established, after arbitration, by the awards of the umpire, Lord James of Hereford, dated 30th of December, 1901, and 28th of November, 1903.

(Form 923—October, 1905.)

Duties of occupiers.

1. Deleted.

2. After the 1st day of February, 1904, no glaze shall be used which yields to a dilute solution of hydrochloric acid more than five per cent of its dry weight of a soluble lead compound calculated as lead monoxide when determined in the manner described below.

A weighed quantity of dried material is to be continuously shaken for one hour, at the common temperature, with 1,000 times its weight of an aqueous solution of hydrochloric acid containing 0.25 per cent of HCl. This solution is thereafter to be allowed to stand for one hour and to be passed through a filter. The lead salt contained in an aliquot portion of the clear filtrate is then to be precipitated as lead sulphide and weighed as lead sulphate.

If any occupier shall give notice in writing to the inspector for the district that he desires to use glaze which does not conform to the above-mentioned conditions, and to adopt in his factory the scheme of compensation prescribed in Schedule B and shall affix and keep the same affixed in his factory, the above provisions shall not apply to his factory but instead thereof the following provisions shall apply.

All persons employed in any process included in Schedule A other than china scouring shall be examined before the commencement of their employment or at the first subsequent visit of the certifying surgeon, and once in each calendar month by the certifying surgeon of the district.

The certifying surgeon may at any time order by signed certificate the suspension of any such person from employment in any process included in Schedule A other than china scouring, if such certifying surgeon is of opinion that such person by continuous work in lead will incur special danger from the effects of plumbism, and no person after such suspension shall be allowed to work in any process included in Schedule A other than china scouring without a certificate of fitness from the certifying surgeon entered in the register.

Any workman who, by reason of his employment being intermittent or casual, or of his being in regular employment for more than one employer, is unable to present himself regularly for examination by the certifying surgeon, may procure himself at his own expense to be examined once a month by a certifying surgeon, and such examination shall be a sufficient compliance with this rule. The result of such examination shall be entered by the certifying surgeon in a book to be kept in the possession of the workman. He shall produce and show the said book to a factory inspector or to any employer on demand, and he shall not make any entry or erasure therein.

If the occupier of any factory to which this rule applies fails duly to observe the conditions of the said scheme, or if any such factory shall by reason of the occurrence of cases of lead poisoning appear to the secretary of state to be in an unsatisfactory condition, he may, after an inquiry, at which the occupier shall have an opportunity of being heard, prohibit the use of lead for such time and subject to such conditions as he may prescribe.

All persons employed in the processes included in Schedule A other than china scouring shall present themselves at the appointed time for examination by the certifying surgeon, as provided in this rule.

In addition to the examinations at the appointed times, any person so employed may at any time present himself to the certifying surgeon for examination, and shall be examined on paying the prescribed fee.

All persons shall obey any directions given by the certifying surgeon.

No person after suspension by the certifying surgeon shall work in any process included in Schedule A other than china scouring without a certificate of fitness from the certifying surgeon entered in the register. Any operative who fails without reasonable cause to attend any monthly examination shall procure himself, at his own expense, to be examined within 14 days thereafter by the certifying surgeon, and shall himself pay the prescribed fee.

A register, in the form which has been prescribed by the secretary of state for use in earthenware and china works, shall be kept, and in it the certifying surgeon shall enter the dates and results of his visits, the number of persons examined, and particulars of any directions given by him. This register shall contain a list of all persons employed in the processes included in Schedule A, or in emptying china biscuit ware, and shall be produced at any time when required by His Majesty's inspector of factories or by the certifying surgeon.

3. The occupier shall allow any of His Majesty's inspectors of factories to take at any time sufficient samples for analysis of any material in use or mixed for use.

Provided that the occupier may at the time when the sample is taken, and on providing the necessary appliances, require the inspector to take, seal, and deliver to him a duplicate sample.

But no analytical result shall be disclosed or published in any way except such as shall be necessary to establish a breach of these rules.

4. No woman, young person, or child shall be employed in the mixing of unfritted lead compounds in the preparation or manufacture of frits, glazes, or colors.

5. No person under 15 years of age shall be employed in any process included in Schedule A, or in emptying china biscuit ware.

Thimble-picking, or threading-up, or looking-over biscuit ware shall not be carried on except in a place sufficiently separated from any process included in Schedule A.

6. All women and young persons employed in any process included in Schedule A shall be examined once in each calendar month by the certifying surgeon for the district.

The certifying surgeon may order by signed certificate in the register the suspension of any such women or young persons from employment in any process included in Schedule A, and no person after such suspension shall be allowed to work in any process included in Schedule A without a certificate of fitness from the certifying surgeon entered in the register.

7. A register, in the form which has been prescribed by the secretary of state for use in earthenware and china works, shall be kept, and in it the certifying surgeon shall enter the dates and results of his visits, the number of persons examined in pursuance of Rule 6 as amended, and particulars of any directions given by him. This register shall contain a list of all persons employed in the processes included in Schedule A, or in emptying china biscuit ware, and shall be produced at any time when required by H. M. inspector of factories or by the certifying surgeon.

8. The occupier shall provide and maintain suitable overalls and head coverings for all women and young persons employed in the processes included in the Schedule A, or in emptying china biscuit ware.

No person shall be allowed to work in any process included in the schedule, or in emptying china biscuit ware, without wearing suitable overalls and head coverings,

provided that nothing in this rule shall render it obligatory on any person engaged in drawing glost ovens to wear overalls and head coverings.

All overalls, head coverings, and respirators, when not in use or being washed or repaired, shall be kept by the occupier in proper custody. They shall be washed or renewed at least once a week, and suitable arrangements shall be made by the occupier for carrying out these requirements.

A suitable place, other than that provided for the keeping of overalls, head coverings, and respirators, in which all the above workers can deposit clothing put off during working hours, shall be provided by the occupier.

Each respirator shall bear the distinguishing mark of the worker to whom it is supplied.

9. No person shall be allowed to keep, or prepare, or partake of any food, or drink, or tobacco, or to remain during meal times in a place in which is carried on any process included in Schedule A.

The occupier shall make suitable provision to the reasonable satisfaction of the inspector in charge of the district for the accommodation during meal times of persons employed in such places or processes, with a right of appeal to the chief inspector of factories. Such accommodation shall not be provided in any room or rooms in which any process included in Schedule A is carried on, and no washing conveniences mentioned hereafter in Rule 13 shall be maintained in any room or rooms provided for such accommodation.

Suitable provision shall be made for the deposit of food brought by the workers.

10. The processes of the towing of earthenware, china scouring, ground laying, ware cleaning after the dipper, color dusting, whether on-glaze or under-glaze, color blowing, whether on-glaze or under-glaze, glaze blowing, or transfer making, shall not be carried on without the use of exhaust fans, or other efficient means for the effectual removal of dust, to be approved in each particular case by the secretary of state, and under such conditions as he may from time to time prescribe.

In the process of ware cleaning after the dipper, sufficient arrangements shall be made for any glaze scraped off which is not removed by the fan, or the other efficient means, to fall into water.

In the process of ware cleaning of earthenware after the dipper, damp sponges or other damp material shall be provided in addition to the knife or other instrument, and shall be used wherever practicable.

Flat-knocking and fired-flint-sifting shall be carried on only in inclosed receptacles, which shall be connected with an efficient fan or other efficient draught unless so contrived as to prevent effectually the escape of injurious dust.

In all processes the occupier shall, as far as practicable, adopt efficient measures for the removal of dust and for the prevention of any injurious effects arising therefrom.

11. No person shall be employed in the mixing of unfritted lead compounds, in the preparation or manufacture of frits, glazes or colors containing lead without wearing a suitable and efficient respirator provided and maintained by the employer; unless the mixing is performed in a closed machine or the materials are in such a condition that no dust is produced.

Each respirator shall bear the distinguishing mark of the worker to whom it is supplied.

12. All drying stoves as well as all workshops and all parts of factories shall be effectually ventilated to the reasonable satisfaction of the inspector in charge of the district.

13. The occupier shall provide and continually maintain sufficient and suitable washing conveniences for all persons employed in the processes included in Schedule A, as near as practicable to the places in which such persons are employed.

The washing conveniences shall comprise soap, nailbrushes and towels, and at least one wash-hand basin for every five persons employed as above, with a constant supply of water laid on, with one tap at least for every two basins, and conveniences for emptying the same and running off the waste water on the spot down a waste pipe.

There shall be in front of each washing basin, or convenience, a space for standing room which shall not be less in any direction than 21 inches.

14. The occupier shall see that the floors of workshops and of such stoves as are entered by the work people are sprinkled and swept daily; that all dust, scraps, ashes, and dirt are removed daily, and that the mangles, workbenches, and stairs leading to workshops are cleansed weekly.

When so required by the inspector in charge of the district, by notice in writing, any such floors, mangles, workbenches, and stairs shall be cleansed in such manner and at such times as may be directed in such notice.

As regards every potters' shop and stove, and every place in which any process included in Schedule A is carried on, the occupier shall cause the sufficient cleansing of floors to be done at a time when no other work is being carried on in such room,

and in the case of potters' shops, stoves, dipping houses, and majolica painting rooms, by an adult male.

Provided that in the case of rooms in which ground laying or glost placing is carried on, or in china dippers' drying room, the cleansing prescribed by this rule may be done before work commences for the day, but in no case shall any work be carried on in the room within one hour after any such cleansing as aforesaid has ceased.

15. The occupier shall cause the boards used in the dipping house, dippers' drying room, or glost placing shop to be cleansed every week, and shall not allow them to be used in any other department, except after being cleansed.

When so required by the inspector in charge of the district, by notice in writing, any such boards shall be washed at such times as may be directed in such notice.

Duties of persons employed.

16. All women and young persons employed in the processes included in Schedule A shall present themselves at the appointed time for examination by the certifying surgeon as provided in Rule 6 as amended.

No person after suspension by the certifying surgeon shall work in any process included in the schedule without a certificate of fitness from the certifying surgeon entered in the register.

17. Every person employed in any process included in Schedule A, or in emptying china biscuit ware, shall, when at work, wear a suitable overall and head covering, and also a respirator when so required by Rule 11 as amended, which shall not be worn outside the factory or workshop, and which shall not be removed therefrom except for the purpose of being washed or repaired. Such overall and head covering shall be in proper repair and duly washed.

The hair must be so arranged as to be fully protected from dust by the head covering. The overalls, head coverings, and respirators when not being worn, and clothing put off during working hours, shall be deposited in the respective places provided by the occupier for such purposes under Rule 8 as amended.

18. No person shall remain during meal times in any place in which is carried on any process included in Schedule A, or introduce, keep, prepare, or partake of any food or drink or tobacco therein at any time.

19. No person shall in any way interfere, without the knowledge and concurrence of the occupier or manager, with the means and appliances provided by the employers for the ventilation of the workshops and stoves, and for the removal of dust.

20. No person included in any process included in Schedule A shall leave the works or partake of meals without previously and carefully cleaning and washing his or her hands.

No person employed shall remove or damage the washing basins or conveniences provided under Rule 13.

20a. The persons appointed by the occupiers shall cleanse the several parts of the factory regularly as prescribed in Rule 14.

Every worker shall so conduct his or her work as to avoid, as far as practicable, making or scattering dust, dirt, or refuse, or causing accumulation of such.

21. The boards used in the dipping house, dippers' drying room, or glost placing shop shall not be used in any other department, except after being cleansed, as directed in Rule 15.

EXEMPTION FOR PROCESSES IN WHICH NO LEAD OR OTHER POISONOUS MATERIAL IS USED.

22. If the occupier of a factory to which these rules apply gives with reference to any process included in Schedule A, other than china scouring, an undertaking that no lead or lead compound or other poisonous material shall be used, the chief inspector may approve in writing of the suspension of the operation of Rules 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 15, 16, 17, and 21, or any of them in such process; and thereupon such rules shall be suspended as regards the process named in the chief inspector's approval, and in lieu thereof the following rule shall take effect, viz: No lead or lead compound or other poisonous material shall be used in any process so named.

For the purpose of this rule materials that contain no more than 1 per cent of lead shall be regarded as free from lead.

NOTE.—These rules must be kept posted up in conspicuous places in the factory to which they apply, where they may be conveniently read by persons employed. Any person who is bound to observe these rules and fails to do so, or acts in contravention to them, is liable to a penalty, and in such cases the occupier also is liable to a penalty unless he proves that he has taken all reasonable means, by publishing and to the best of his power enforcing the rules, to prevent the contravention or non-compliance.

SCHEDULE A.

Dipping or other process carried on in the dipping house,
 Glaze blowing,
 Painting in majolica or other glaze,
 Drying after dipping,
 Ware cleaning after the application of glaze by dipping or other process,
 China scouring,
 Glost placing,
 Ground laying,
 Color dusting } whether on-glaze or under-glaze,
 Color blowing }
 Lithographic transfer making,
 Making or mixing of frits, glazes, or colors containing lead.
 Any other process in which materials containing lead are used or handled in the dry state, or in the form of spray, or in suspension in liquid other than oil or similar medium.

SCHEDULE B.

NOTICE TO WORKMEN EMPLOYED IN PROCESS NAMED IN SCHEDULE A, OTHER THAN CHINA SCOURING.

Conditions of compensation.

1. Where a workman is suspended from working by a certifying surgeon of the district on the ground that he is of opinion that such person by continued work in lead will incur special danger from the effects of plumbism, and the certifying surgeon shall certify that in his opinion he is suffering from plumbism arising out of his employment, he shall, subject as hereinafter mentioned, be entitled to compensation from his employer as hereinafter provided.

(a) If any workman who has been suspended as aforesaid dies within nine calendar months from the date of such certificate of suspension, by reason of plumbism contracted before said date, there shall be paid to such of his dependants as are wholly dependent upon his earnings at the time of his death or upon the weekly compensation payable under this scheme, a sum equal to the amount he has earned during a period of three years next preceding the date of the said certificate, such sum not to be more than £300 [\$1,459.95] nor less than £150 [\$729.98] for an adult male, £100 [\$486.65] for an adult female, and £75 [\$364.99] for a young person.

(b) If the workman does not leave any dependants wholly dependent as aforesaid, but leaves any dependants in part dependent as aforesaid, a reasonable part of that sum.

(c) If he leaves no dependants, the reasonable expenses of his medical attendance and burial, not exceeding ten pounds [\$48.67].

2. With respect to such payments the following provisions shall apply—

(a) All sums paid to the workmen as compensation since the date of the said certificate shall be deducted from the sums payable to the dependants.

(b) The payment shall, in case of death, be made to the legal personal representative of the workman, or, if he has no legal personal representative, to or for the benefit of his dependants, or, if he leaves no dependants, to the person to whom the expenses are due; and if made to the legal personal representative shall be paid by him to or for the benefit of the dependants or other person entitled thereto.

(c) Any question as to who is a dependant, or as to the amount payable to each dependant, shall in default of agreement be settled by arbitration as hereinafter provided in clause 9.

(d) The sum allotted as compensation to a dependant may be invested or otherwise applied for the benefit of the person entitled thereto, as agreed, or as ordered by the arbitrator.

(e) Any sum which is agreed or is ordered by the arbitrator to be invested may be invested in whole or in part in the post-office savings bank.

3. Where a workman has been suspended and certified as provided in Condition 1, and while he is totally or partially prevented from earning a living by reason of such suspension, he shall be entitled to a weekly payment not exceeding fifty per cent of his average weekly earnings at the time of such suspension, such payment not to exceed £1 [\$4.87]. The average may be taken over such period, not exceeding twelve months, as appears fair or reasonable having regard to all the circumstances of the case.

4. In fixing these weekly payments, regard shall be had to the difference between the amount of the average weekly earnings of the workman at the time of his suspension

and the average amount, if any, which it is estimated that he will be able to earn afterwards in any occupation or employment, and to any payments (not being wages) which he may have received from the employer in respect of the suspension, and to all the circumstances of the case, including his age and expectation of life.

5. If it shall appear that any workman has persistently disobeyed the special rules or the directions given for his protection by his employers, and that such disobedience has conduced to his suspension, or has not presented himself for examination by the certifying surgeon, or has failed to give full information and assistance as provided in Condition 6, his conduct may be taken into consideration in assessing the amount of the weekly payments.

6. It shall be the duty of every workman at all times to submit to medical examination when required and to give full information to the certifying surgeon and to assist to the best of his power in the obtaining of all facts necessary to enable his physical condition to be ascertained.

7. Any weekly payment may be reviewed at the request either of the employer or of the workman, and on such review may be ended, diminished, or increased, subject to the maximum above provided, and the amount of payment shall, in default of agreement, be settled by arbitration.

8. Any workman receiving weekly payments under this scheme shall submit himself if required for examination by a duly qualified medical practitioner provided and paid by the employer.

If the workman refuses to submit himself to such examination or in any way obstructs the same, his right to such weekly payments shall be suspended until such examination has taken place.

9. If any dispute shall arise as to any certificate of the certifying surgeon or as to the amount of compensation payable as herein provided, or otherwise in relation to these provisions, the same shall be decided by an arbitrator to be appointed by the employer and workman, or in default of agreement by the secretary of state. The said arbitrator shall have all the powers of an arbitrator under the Arbitration Act, and his decision shall be final.

The fee of the arbitrator shall be fixed by the secretary of state, and shall be paid as the arbitrator shall direct.

10. No compensation shall be payable under these provisions unless notice of claim in writing is made within six weeks of the date of the certificate of suspension, or of the death, provided that the want of such notice shall not bar the claim if in the opinion of the arbitrator there was reasonable excuse for the want of it.

A claim for compensation by any workman whose employment is intermittent, or casual, or who is regularly employed by more than one employer, shall only arise against the employers for whom he has worked in a process included in Schedule A within one month prior to his suspension. The said employers shall bear the compensation among them in such proportion as in default of agreement shall be determined by an arbitrator as herein provided.

11. "Employer" includes an occupier, a corporation, and the legal representatives of a deceased employer. "Workman" includes every person, male or female, whether his agreement be one of service or apprenticeship or otherwise, and is expressed or implied, orally, or in writing, and shall include the personal representatives of a deceased workman. "Dependants" has the same meaning as in the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1897.

The terms contained in this notice shall be deemed to be part of the contract of employment of all workmen in the above-named processes.

ELECTRIC ACCUMULATORS.

Whereas the manufacture of electric accumulators has been certified in pursuance of section 79 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, to be dangerous;

I hereby, in pursuance of the powers conferred on me by that act, make the following regulations, and direct that they shall apply to all factories and workshops or parts thereof in which electric accumulators are manufactured.

In these regulations "lead process" means pasting, casting, lead burning, or any work involving contact with dry compounds of lead.

Any approval given by the chief inspector of factories in pursuance of these regulations shall be given in writing, and may at any time be revoked by notice in writing signed by him.

Duties of occupier.

1. Every room in which casting, pasting or lead burning is carried on shall contain at least 500 cubic feet of air space for each person employed therein, and in computing the air space, no height above 14 feet shall be taken into account.

These rooms and that in which the plates are formed, shall be capable of thorough ventilation. They shall be provided with windows made to open.

2. Each of the following processes shall be carried on in such manner and under such conditions as to secure effectual separation from one another and from any other process:—

- (a) Manipulation of dry compounds of lead;
- (b) Pasting;
- (c) Formation, and lead burning necessarily carried on therewith;
- (d) Melting down of old plates.

Provided that manipulation of dry compounds of lead carried on as in Regulation 5 (b) need not be separated from pasting.

3. The floors of the rooms in which manipulation of dry compounds of lead or pasting is carried on shall be of cement or similar impervious material, and shall be kept constantly moist while work is being done.

The floors of these rooms shall be washed with a hose pipe daily.

4. Every melting pot shall be covered with a hood and shaft so arranged as to remove the fumes and hot air from the workrooms.

Lead ashes and old plates shall be kept in receptacles specially provided for the purpose.

5. Manipulation of dry compounds of lead in the mixing of the paste or other processes, shall not be done except (a) in any apparatus so closed, or so arranged with an exhaust draft, as to prevent the escape of dust into the workroom; or, (b) at a bench provided with (1) efficient exhaust draft and air guide so arranged as to draw the dust away from the worker, and (2) a grating on which each receptacle of the compound of lead in use at the time shall stand.

6. The benches at which pasting is done shall be covered with sheet lead or other impervious material, and shall have raised edges.

7. No woman, young person, or child shall be employed in the manipulation of dry compounds of lead or in pasting.

8. (a) A duly qualified medical practitioner (in these regulations referred to as the "appointed surgeon") who may be the certifying surgeon, shall be appointed by the occupier, such appointment unless held by the certifying surgeon to be subject to the approval of the chief inspector of factories.

(b) Every person employed in a lead process shall be examined once a month by the appointed surgeon, who shall have power to suspend from employment in any lead process.

(c) No person after such suspension shall be employed in a lead process without written sanction entered in the health register by the appointed surgeon. It shall be sufficient compliance with this regulation for a written certificate to be given by the appointed surgeon and attached to the health register, such certificate to be replaced by a proper entry in the health register at the appointed surgeon's next visit.

(d) A health register in a form approved by the chief inspector of factories shall be kept, and shall contain a list of all persons employed in lead processes. The appointed surgeon will enter in the health register the dates and results of his examinations of the persons employed and particulars of any directions given by him. He shall on a prescribed form furnish to the chief inspector of factories on the first day of January in each year a list of the persons suspended by him during the previous year, the cause and duration of such suspension, and the number of examinations made.

The health register shall be produced at any time when required by H. M. inspectors of factories or by the certifying surgeon or by the appointed surgeon.

9. Overalls shall be provided for all persons employed in manipulating dry compounds of lead or in pasting.

The overalls shall be washed or renewed once every week.

10. The occupier shall provide and maintain—

(a) A cloakroom in which workers can deposit clothing put off during working hours. Separate and suitable arrangements shall be made for the storage of the overalls required in Regulation 9.

(b) A dining room unless the factory is closed during meal hours.

11. No person shall be allowed to introduce, keep, prepare, or partake of any food, drink, or tobacco, in any room in which a lead process is carried on. Suitable provision shall be made for the deposit of food brought by the workers.

This regulation shall not apply to any sanitary drink provided by the occupier and approved by the appointed surgeon.

12. The occupier shall provide and maintain for the use of the persons employed in lead processes a lavatory, with soap, nailbrushes, towels, and at least one lavatory basin for every five such persons. Each such basin shall be provided with a waste pipe, or the basins shall be placed on a trough fitted with a waste pipe. There shall be a constant supply of hot and cold water laid on to each basin.

Or, in the place of basins the occupier shall provide a or similar smooth impervious material, in good repair, for every five persons employed, fitted with waste pipes, and a sufficient supply of warm water constantly available.

The lavatory shall be kept thoroughly cleansed and a sufficient quantity of clean towels once every day.

13. Before each meal and before the end of the day's addition to the regular meal times, shall be allowed for has been employed in the manipulation of dry compound.

Provided that if the lavatory accommodation special exceeds that required by Regulation 12, the time allowed reduced, and that if there be one basin or two feet of trough regulation shall not apply.

14. Sufficient bath accommodation shall be provided for manipulation of dry compounds of lead or in pasting, with and a sufficient supply of soap and towels.

This rule shall not apply if in consideration of the special case, the chief inspector of factories approves the accommodation conveniently near, under the conditions (if any) named.

15. The floors and benches of each workroom shall be cleaned time when no other work is being carried on in the room.

Duties of persons employed.

16. All persons employed in lead processes shall present themselves for examination by the appointed surgeon as provided.

No person after suspension shall work in a lead process in which electric accumulators are manufactured, without the health register by the appointed surgeon.

17. Every person employed in the manipulation of dry pasting shall wear the overalls provided under Regulation 10, being worn, and clothing put off during working hours, in places provided under Regulation 10.

18. No person shall introduce, keep, prepare, or partake of any sanitary drink provided by the occupier and a surgeon, or tobacco in any room in which a lead process is carried on.

19. No person employed in a lead process shall leave his meals without previously and carefully cleaning and washing.

20. Every person employed in the manipulation of dry pasting shall take a bath at least once a week.

21. No person shall in any way interfere, without the consent of the manager, with the means and appliances provided for the removal of fumes, and for the carrying out of these regulations.

These regulations shall come into force on the 1st day of

One of His Majesty's Privy

HOME OFFICE, *Whitehall, 21st November, 1903.*

WORKS OR PARTS OF WORKS, IN WHICH LEAD, ARSENIC,
OR ZINC, IS MANIPULATED, OR THE ENAMELING OF IRON PLATE

(Form 251—January, 1906.)

Duties of occupiers.

1. They shall provide washing conveniences with a sufficient supply of water, soap, nailbrushes, and towels, and take measures to ensure that work people wash face and hands before meals and before leaving the work.

2. They shall provide suitable respirators, overall suits, and aprons for workers employed in the processes of grinding, dusting, and pasting.

3. They shall adopt measures on and after the first day of the year for dusting and brushing processes for the removal of all superfluous particles of such benches or tables, the under part of which are perforated benches or tables supplied with fans to carry off the dust.

They shall provide a sufficient supply of approved clothing for the work people to take it.

5. They shall arrange for a medical inspection of all persons employed, at least once a month.

They shall see that no female is employed without previous examination and a certificate of fitness from the medical attendant of the works.

They shall see that no person who has been absent from work through illness shall be reemployed without a medical certificate to the effect that he or she has recovered.

6. Upon any person employed in the works complaining of being unwell, the occupier shall, with the least possible delay, and at his own expense, give an order upon a doctor for professional attendance and medicine. It is to be understood that this rule will not apply to persons suffering from complaints which have not been contracted in the process of manufacture.

7. They shall provide a place or places free from dust and damp in which the operatives can hang up the clothes in which they do not work.

(It is recommended that they shall provide for each female before the day's work begins some light refreshment, such as a half pint of milk and a biscuit.)

Duties of persons employed.

8. Every person to whom is supplied a respirator or overall and head covering shall wear the same when at the work for which such are provided.

9. Every person shall carefully clean and wash hands and face before meals and before leaving the works.

10. No food shall be eaten by any person in any part of the works except in the apartment specially provided for the purpose.

11. No person may seek employment under an assumed name or under any false pretense.

Respirators: A good respirator is a cambric bag with or without a thin flexible wire made to fit over the nose.

Sanitary drink suggested: Sulphate of magnesia, 2 oz.; water, 1 gallon; essence of lemon, sufficient to flavor.

ARTHUR WHITELEGGE,
H. M. Chief Inspector of Factories.

NOTE.—These rules must be kept posted up in conspicuous places in the factory to which they apply, where they may be conveniently read by the persons employed. Any person who is bound to observe these rules and fails to do so or acts in contravention of them, is liable to a penalty; and in such case the occupier also is liable to a penalty unless he proves that he has taken all reasonable means by publishing, and to the best of his power, enforcing the rules, to prevent the contravention or non-compliance.

WORKS IN WHICH LEAD OR ARSENIC IS USED IN THE TINNING AND ENAMELING OF METAL HOLLOW WARE AND COOKING UTENSILS.

(Form 385—March, 1906.)

Duties of occupiers.

They shall provide washing conveniences with a sufficient supply of hot and cold water, soap, nailbrushes, and towels, and take measures to secure that every worker wash face and hands before meals and before leaving the works.

They shall see that no food is eaten in any room where the process of tinning or enameling is carried on.

Duties of persons employed.

Every worker shall wash face and hands before meals and before leaving the works.

No worker shall eat food in any room where the process of tinning or enameling is carried on.

ARTHUR WHITELEGGE,
H. M. Chief Inspector of Factories.

NOTE.—These rules must be kept posted up in conspicuous places in the factory to which they apply, where they may be conveniently read by the persons employed. Any person who is bound to observe these rules and fails to do so or acts in contravention of them, is liable to a penalty; and in such case the occupier also is liable to a penalty unless he proves that he has taken all reasonable means by publishing, and to the best of his power, enforcing the rules, to prevent the contravention or non-compliance.

12. In cases where the cooperation of the workers is required for carrying out the foregoing rules, and where such cooperation is not given, the workers shall be held liable in accordance with the Factory and Workshop Act, 1891, section 9, which runs as follows: "If any person who is bound to observe any special rules, established for any factory or workshop under this Act, acts in contravention of, or fails to comply with, any such special rule, he shall be liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding two pounds [\$9.73]."

ARTHUR WHITELEGGE,
H. M. Chief Inspector of Factories.

AMENDED SPECIAL RULES FOR CHEMICAL WORKS IN WHICH IS CARRIED ON THE
MANUFACTURE OF BICHROMATE OR CHROMATE OF POTASSIUM OR SODIUM.

(Form 260—January, 1906.)

In these rules "persons employed in a chrome process" means a person who is employed in any work involving contact with chromate or bichromate of potassium or sodium, or involving exposure to dust or fumes arising from the manufacture thereof.

Any approval given by the chief inspector in pursuance of Rule 10 shall be given in writing, and may at any time be revoked by notice in writing signed by him.

Duties of occupiers.

1. No uncovered pot, pan, or other structure containing liquid of a dangerous character shall be so constructed as to be less than 3 feet in height above the adjoining ground or platform.

This rule shall not apply to any pot, pan, or other structure constructed before January 1, 1899, or in which a height of 3 feet is impracticable by reason of the nature of the work to be carried on, provided in either case that the structure is securely fenced.

2. There shall be a clear space round all pots, pans, or other structures containing liquid of a dangerous character, except where any junction exists, in which case a barrier shall be so placed as to prevent passage.

3. No unfenced plank or gangway shall be placed across any pot, pan, or other structure containing liquid of a dangerous character.

4. The lighting of all dangerous places shall be made thoroughly efficient.

5. The grinding, separating, and mixing of the raw materials (including chrome ironstone, lime, and sodium and potassium carbonate) shall not be done without such appliances as will prevent, as far as possible, the entrance of dust into the work-rooms.

6. "Batches," when withdrawn from the furnaces, shall either be placed in the keaves or vats while still warm, or be allowed to cool in barrows, or other receptacles.

7. Evaporating vessels shall be covered in, and shall be provided with ventilating shafts to carry the steam into the outside air.

8. Packing or crushing of bichromate of potassium or sodium shall not be done except under conditions which secure either the entire absence of dust or its effectual removal by means of a fan.

9. No child or young person shall be employed in a chrome process.

10. The occupier shall, subject to the approval of the chief inspector, appoint a duly qualified medical practitioner (in these rules referred to as the appointed surgeon), who shall examine all persons employed in chrome processes at least once in every month, and shall undertake any necessary medical treatment of disease contracted in consequence of such employment, and shall, after the 30th day of April, 1900, have power to suspend any such person from work in any place or process.

(b) No person after such suspension shall be employed in any chrome process without the written sanction of the appointed surgeon.

(c) A register shall be kept in a form approved by the chief inspector, and shall contain a list of all persons employed in any chrome process. The appointed surgeon shall enter in the register the dates and results of his examinations of the persons employed and particulars of any treatment prescribed by him. The register shall be produced at any time when required by H. M. inspectors of factories or by the appointed surgeon.

11. Requisites (approved by the appointed surgeon) for treating slight wounds and ulcers shall be kept at hand and be placed in charge of a responsible person.

12. The occupier shall provide sufficient and suitable overall suits for the use of all persons engaged in the processes of grinding the raw materials; and sufficient and suitable overall suits or other adequate means of protection approved in writing by the appointed surgeon, for the use of all persons engaged in the crystal department or in packing.

Respirators approved by the appointed surgeon shall be provided for the use of all persons employed in packing or crushing bichromate of sodium or potassium.

At the end of every day's work they shall be collected and kept in proper custody in a suitable place set apart for the purpose.

The overalls and respirators shall be thoroughly washed or renewed every week.

13. The occupier shall provide and maintain a cloakroom in which workers can deposit clothing put off during working hours.

14. The occupier shall provide and maintain a lavatory for the use of the persons employed in chrome processes; with soap, nailbrushes, and towels, and a constant supply of hot and cold water laid onto each basin. There shall be at least one lavatory basin for every five persons employed in the crystal department and in packing. Each such basin shall be fitted with a waste pipe, or shall be placed in a trough fitted with a waste pipe.

15. The occupier shall provide and maintain sufficient baths and dressing rooms for all persons employed in chrome processes, with hot and cold water laid on, and a sufficient supply of soap and towels; and shall cause each person employed in the crystal department and in packing to take a bath once a week at the factory.

A bath register shall be kept containing a list of all persons employed in the crystal department and in packing, and an entry of the date when each person takes a bath.

The bath register shall be produced at any time when required by H. M. inspectors of factories.

16. The floors, stairs, and landings, shall be cleaned daily.

Duties of persons employed.

17. No person shall deposit a "batch" when withdrawn from the furnace upon the floor nor transfer it to the keaves or vats otherwise than as prescribed in Rule 6.

18. No person shall pack or crush bichromate of potassium or sodium otherwise than as prescribed in Rule 8.

19. (a) Every person employed in a chrome process shall present himself at the appointed times for examination by the appointed surgeon as provided in Rule 10.

(b) After the 30th day of April, 1900, no person suspended by the appointed surgeon shall work in a chrome process without his written sanction.

20. Every person engaged in the processes of grinding the raw materials shall wear an overall suit, and every person engaged in the crystal department or in packing shall wear an overall suit or other adequate means of protection approved by the appointed surgeon.

Every person employed in packing or crushing bichromate of sodium or potassium shall in addition wear a respirator while so occupied.

21. Every person employed in the processes named in Rule 20 shall before leaving the premises deposit the overalls and respirators in the place appointed by the occupier for the purpose, and shall thoroughly wash face and hands in the lavatory.

22. Every person employed in the crystal department and in packing shall take a bath at the factory at least once a week; and, having done so, he shall at once sign his name in the bath register, with the date.

23. The foreman shall report to the manager any instance coming under his notice of a workman neglecting to observe these rules.

ARTHUR WHITELEGGE,
Chief Inspector of Factories.

M. W. RIDLEY,
One of Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State.

FEBRUARY, 1900.

NOTE.—These rules must be kept posted up in conspicuous places in the factory to which they apply, where they may be conveniently read by the persons employed. Any person who is bound to observe these rules and fails to do so or acts in contravention of them, is liable to penalty; and in such cases the occupier also is liable to a penalty unless he proves that he has taken all reasonable means by publishing and, to the best of his power, enforcing the rules to prevent the contravention or non-compliance.

MANUFACTURE OF EXPLOSIVES IN WHICH DI-NITRO-BENZOLE IS USED.

(Form 257—December, 1904.)

1. No person to be employed without a medical certificate, stating that he or she is physically fit for such employment.

2. An examination of the workers at their work to be made at least once a fortnight by a certifying surgeon, who shall have power to order temporary suspension or total change of work for any person showing symptoms of suffering from the poison, or if after a fair trial he is of opinion that any person is by constitution unfit, he shall direct that such person shall cease to be employed.

3. A supply of fresh milk, and of any drug that the medical officer may consider desirable, shall be kept where the workers in his opinion may require it.

4. No meals to be taken in the work rooms.

5. There shall be provided separate lavatories for men and women, with a good supply of hot water, soap, nailbrushes, and towels, and whenever the skin has come in contact with di-nitro-benzole, the part shall be immediately washed.

6. Overall suits and head coverings shall be supplied to all workers in shops where di-nitro-benzole is used, these suits to be taken off or well brushed before meals and before leaving the works, and to be washed at least once a week.

7. Suitable respirators (capable of being washed), folds of linen, or woolen material of open texture, or other suitable material, shall be supplied to those workers liable to inhale dust, and the wearing of such respirators shall be urged where the workers derive benefit from their use.

8. Where di-nitro-benzole has to be handled, the hands shall always be protected from direct contact with it, either by the use of india-rubber gloves (kept perfectly clean, especially in the inner side), or by means of rags which shall be destroyed immediately after use.

9. Where di-nitro-benzole is broken by hand, the instrument used shall be a wooden bar, spade, or tool with a handle long enough to prevent the worker's face from coming into contact with the material.

10. In all rooms or sheds in which the process, either of purifying, grinding, mixing materials of which di-nitro-benzole forms a part, is carried on, efficient "cowls," ventilating shafts, and mechanical ventilating fans shall be provided to carry off the dust or fumes generated.

11. Drying stoves shall be efficiently ventilated, and, when possible, be charged and drawn at fixed times, and a free current of air shall be admitted for some time prior to the workers entering to draw either a part or the whole of the contents.

12. In the process of filling cartridges, the material shall not be touched by hand, but suitable scoops shall be used, and where patent ventilated cartridge filling machines are not used, there shall be efficient mechanical ventilation arranged in such a manner that the suction shall draw the fumes or dust away from and not across or over the faces of the workers.

13. A register, in a prescribed form, shall be kept, and it shall be the duty of a responsible person named by the firm to enter, at least once a week, a statement that he has personally satisfied himself that each and all of the special rules have been observed, or if not, the reason for such nonobservance. The surgeon to enter in this register the dates of his visits, the results of such visits, and any requirement made by him.

14. The "dipping" rooms to be efficiently ventilated.

ARTHUR WHITELEGGE,
H. M. Chief Inspector of Factories.

NOTE.—These rules must be kept posted up in conspicuous places in the factory to which they apply, where they may be conveniently read by the persons employed. Any person who is bound to observe these rules and fails to do so or acts in contravention of them, is liable to a penalty; and in such case the occupier also is liable to a penalty unless he proves that he has taken all reasonable means by publishing and, to the best of his power, enforcing the rules, to prevent the contravention or noncompliance.

VULCANIZING OF INDIA RUBBER BY MEANS OF BISULPHIDE OF CARBON.

(Form 24—October, 1898.)

I.—Duties of employes.

1. No child or young person shall be employed in any room in which bisulphide of carbon is used.
2. After May 1, 1898, no person shall be employed for more than five hours in any day in a room in which bisulphide of carbon is used, nor for more than two and a half hours at a time without an interval of at least an hour.
3. In vulcanizing waterproof cloth by means of bisulphide of carbon—
 - (a) The trough containing the bisulphide of carbon shall be self-feeding and covered over;
 - (b) The cloth shall be conveyed to and from the drying chamber by means of an automatic machine;
 - (c) No person shall be allowed to enter the drying chamber in the ordinary course of work;
 - (d) The machine shall be covered over and the fumes drawn away from the workers by means of a downward suction fan maintained in constant efficiency.
4. Dipping shall not be done except in boxes so arranged that a suction fan shall draw the fumes away from the workers.
5. No food shall be allowed to be eaten in any room in which bisulphide of carbon is used.
6. A suitable place for meals shall be provided.
7. All persons employed in rooms in which bisulphide of carbon is used shall be examined once a month by the certifying surgeon for the district, who shall, after May 1, 1898, have power to order temporary or total suspension from work.
8. No person shall be employed in any room in which bisulphide of carbon is used contrary to the direction of the certifying surgeon given as above.
9. A register in the form which has been prescribed by the secretary of state for use in india-rubber works shall be kept, and in it the certifying surgeon will enter the dates and result of his visits, with the number of persons examined, and particulars of any directions given by him. This register shall contain a list of all persons employed in rooms in which bisulphide of carbon is used, and shall be produced at any time when required by H. M. inspector of factories or by the certifying surgeon.

II.—Duties of persons employed.

10. No person shall enter the drying room in the ordinary course of work, or perform dipping except in boxes provided with a suction fan carrying the fumes away from the workers.
11. No person shall take any food in any room in which bisulphide of carbon is used.
12. After May 1, 1898, no person shall, contrary to the direction of the certifying surgeon, given in pursuance of Rule 7, work in any room in which bisulphide of carbon is used.
13. All persons employed in rooms in which bisulphide of carbon is used shall present themselves for periodic examination by the certifying surgeon, as provided in Rule 7.
14. It shall be the duty of all persons employed to report immediately to the employer or foreman any defect which they may discover in the working of the fan or in any appliance required by these rules.

ARTHUR WHITELEGG,
H. M. Chief Inspector of Factories.

NOTE.—These rules are required to be posted up in conspicuous places in the factory or workshop to which they apply, where they may be conveniently read by the persons employed. Any person who willfully injures or defaces them is liable to a penalty not exceeding five pounds [\$24.33]. Occupiers of factories and workshops, and persons employed therein, who are bound to observe these rules, are liable to penalties in case of non-compliance. (Factory and Workshop Act, 1891, section 9, and Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, sections 85 and 86.)

LUCIFER MATCH FACTORIES IN WHICH WHITE OR YELLOW PHOSPHORUS IS USED.

(Form 384—January, 1904.)

In these rules "phosphorous process" means mixing, dipping, drying, boxing, and any other work or process in which white or yellow phosphorus is used; and "person employed in a phosphorous process" means any person who is employed in any room or part of the factory where such a process is carried on.

"Double dipped matches" means wood splints, both ends of which have been dipped in the igniting composition.

"Certifying surgeon" means a surgeon appointed under the Factory and Workshop Acts.

Any approval or decision given by the chief inspector of factories in pursuance of these rules shall be given in writing, and may at any time be revoked by notice in writing signed by him.

Rules 5 (a), 5 (b), 6, 8, and 19, so far as they affect the employment of adult workers, shall not come into force until the 1st day of October, 1900.

Duties of employers.

1. No part of a lucifer match factory shall be constructed, structurally altered, or newly used, for the carrying on of any phosphorous process, unless the plans have previously been submitted in duplicate to the chief inspector of factories, and unless he shall have approved the plans in writing, or shall not within six weeks from the submission of the plans have expressed his disapproval in writing of the same.

2. Every room in which mixing, dipping, drying, or boxing is carried on shall be efficiently ventilated by means of sufficient openings to the outer air, and also by means of fans, unless the use of fans is dispensed with by order in writing of the chief inspector; shall contain at least 400 cubic feet of air space for each person employed therein; and in computing this air space no height above 14 feet shall be taken into account; shall be efficiently lighted; shall have a smooth and impervious floor. A floor laid with flagstones or hard bricks in good repair shall be deemed to constitute a smooth and impervious floor.

3. (a) The processes of mixing, dipping, and drying shall each be done in a separate and distinct room. The process of boxing double-dipped matches or matches not thoroughly dry shall also be done in a separate and distinct room. These rooms shall not communicate with any other part of the factory unless there shall be a ventilated space intervening; nor shall they communicate with one another, except by means of doorways with closely fitting doors, which doors shall be kept shut except when some person is passing through.

(b) Mixing shall not be done except in an apparatus so closed, or so arranged, and ventilated by means of a fan, as to prevent the entrance of fumes into the air of the mixing room.

(c) Dipping shall not be done except on a slab provided with an efficient exhaust fan, and with an air inlet between the dipper and the slab, or with a hood, so arranged as to draw the fumes away from the dipper, and to prevent them from entering the air of the dipping room.

(d) Matches that have been dipped and can not at once be removed to the drying room shall immediately be placed under a hood provided with an efficient exhaust fan, so arranged as to prevent the fumes from entering the air of the room.

(e) Matches shall not be taken to a boxing room not arranged in compliance with subsection (f) of this rule until they are thoroughly dry, and matches shall not be taken to a boxing room that is so arranged until they are dried so far as they can be before cutting down and boxing.

(f) Cutting down of double-dipped matches and boxing of matches not thoroughly dry shall not be done except at benches or tables provided with an efficient exhaust fan, so arranged as to draw the fumes away from the worker and prevent them from entering the air of the boxing room.

Provided that the foregoing rule shall not prevent the employment of any mechanical arrangement for carrying on any of the above-mentioned processes if the same be approved by the chief inspector as obviating the use of hand labor, and if it be used subject to the conditions (if any) specified in such approval.

Provided further that if the chief inspector shall, on consideration of the special circumstances of any particular case, so approve in writing, all or any of the provisions of the foregoing rule may be suspended for the time named in such approval in writing.

4. Vessels containing phosphorous paste shall, when not actually in use, be kept constantly covered, and closely fitting covers or damp flannels shall be provided for that purpose.

VULCANIZING OF INDIA RUBBER BY MEANS OF BISULPHIDE OF CARBON.

(Form 274—October, 1906.)

I.—Duties of employers.

1. No child or young person shall be employed in any room in which bisulphide of carbon is used.
2. After May 1, 1898, no person shall be employed for more than five hours in any day in a room in which bisulphide of carbon is used, nor for more than two and a half hours at a time without an interval of at least an hour.
3. In vulcanizing waterproof cloth by means of bisulphide of carbon—
 - (a) The trough containing the bisulphide of carbon shall be self-feeding and covered over;
 - (b) The cloth shall be conveyed to and from the drying chamber by means of an automatic machine;
 - (c) No person shall be allowed to enter the drying chamber in the ordinary course of work;
 - (d) The machine shall be covered over and the fumes drawn away from the workers by means of a downward suction fan maintained in constant efficiency.
4. Dipping shall not be done except in boxes so arranged that a suction fan shall draw the fumes away from the workers.
5. No food shall be allowed to be eaten in any room in which bisulphide of carbon is used.
6. A suitable place for meals shall be provided.
7. All persons employed in rooms in which bisulphide of carbon is used shall be examined once a month by the certifying surgeon for the district, who shall, after May 1, 1898, have power to order temporary or total suspension from work.
8. No person shall be employed in any room in which bisulphide of carbon is used contrary to the direction of the certifying surgeon given as above.
9. A register in the form which has been prescribed by the secretary of state for use in india-rubber works shall be kept, and in it the certifying surgeon will enter the dates and result of his visits, with the number of persons examined, and particulars of any directions given by him. This register shall contain a list of all persons employed in rooms in which bisulphide of carbon is used, and shall be produced at any time when required by H. M. inspector of factories or by the certifying surgeon.

II.—Duties of persons employed.

10. No person shall enter the drying room in the ordinary course of work, or perform dipping except in boxes provided with a suction fan carrying the fumes away from the workers.
11. No person shall take any food in any room in which bisulphide of carbon is used.
12. After May 1, 1898, no person shall, contrary to the direction of the certifying surgeon, given in pursuance of Rule 7, work in any room in which bisulphide of carbon is used.
13. All persons employed in rooms in which bisulphide of carbon is used shall present themselves for periodic examination by the certifying surgeon, as provided in Rule 7.
14. It shall be the duty of all persons employed to report immediately to the employer or foreman any defect which they may discover in the working of the fan or in any appliance required by these rules.

ARTHUR WHITELEGGE,
H. M. Chief Inspector of Factories.

NOTE.—These rules are required to be posted up in conspicuous places in the factory or workshop to which they apply, where they may be conveniently read by the persons employed. Any person who willfully injures or defaces them is liable to a penalty not exceeding five pounds [§24.33]. Occupiers of factories and workshops, and persons employed therein, who are bound to observe these rules, are liable to penalties in case of non-compliance. (Factory and Workshop Act, 1891, section 9, and Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, sections 85 and 86.)

LUCIFER MATCH FACTORIES IN WHICH WHITE OR YELLOW PHOSPHORUS IS USED.

(Form 384—January, 1904.)

In these rules "phosphorous process" means mixing, dipping, drying, boxing, and any other work or process in which white or yellow phosphorus is used; and "person employed in a phosphorous process" means any person who is employed in any room or part of the factory where such a process is carried on.

"Double dipped matches" means wood splints, both ends of which have been dipped in the igniting composition.

"Certifying surgeon" means a surgeon appointed under the Factory and Workshop Acts.

Any approval or decision given by the chief inspector of factories in pursuance of these rules shall be given in writing, and may at any time be revoked by notice in writing signed by him.

Rules 5 (a), 5 (b), 6, 8, and 19, so far as they affect the employment of adult workers, shall not come into force until the 1st day of October, 1900.

Duties of employers.

1. No part of a lucifer match factory shall be constructed, structurally altered, or newly used, for the carrying on of any phosphorous process, unless the plans have previously been submitted in duplicate to the chief inspector of factories, and unless he shall have approved the plans in writing, or shall not within six weeks from the submission of the plans have expressed his disapproval in writing of the same.

2. Every room in which mixing, dipping, drying, or boxing is carried on shall be efficiently ventilated by means of sufficient openings to the outer air, and also by means of fans, unless the use of fans is dispensed with by order in writing of the chief inspector; shall contain at least 400 cubic feet of air space for each person employed therein; and in computing this air space no height above 14 feet shall be taken into account; shall be efficiently lighted; shall have a smooth and impervious floor. A floor laid with flagstones or hard bricks in good repair shall be deemed to constitute a smooth and impervious floor.

3. (a) The processes of mixing, dipping, and drying shall each be done in a separate and distinct room. The process of boxing double-dipped matches or matches not thoroughly dry shall also be done in a separate and distinct room. These rooms shall not communicate with any other part of the factory unless there shall be a ventilated space intervening; nor shall they communicate with one another, except by means of doorways with closely fitting doors, which doors shall be kept shut except when some person is passing through.

(b) Mixing shall not be done except in an apparatus so closed, or so arranged, and ventilated by means of a fan, as to prevent the entrance of fumes into the air of the mixing room.

(c) Dipping shall not be done except on a slab provided with an efficient exhaust fan, and with an air inlet between the dipper and the slab, or with a hood, so arranged as to draw the fumes away from the dipper, and to prevent them from entering the air of the dipping room.

(d) Matches that have been dipped and can not at once be removed to the drying room shall immediately be placed under a hood provided with an efficient exhaust fan, so arranged as to prevent the fumes from entering the air of the room.

(e) Matches shall not be taken to a boxing room not arranged in compliance with subsection (f) of this rule until they are thoroughly dry, and matches shall not be taken to a boxing room that is so arranged until they are dried so far as they can be before cutting down and boxing.

(f) Cutting down of double-dipped matches and boxing of matches not thoroughly dry shall not be done except at benches or tables provided with an efficient exhaust fan, so arranged as to draw the fumes away from the worker and prevent them from entering the air of the boxing room.

Provided that the foregoing rule shall not prevent the employment of any mechanical arrangement for carrying on any of the above-mentioned processes if the same be approved by the chief inspector as obviating the use of hand labor, and if it be used subject to the conditions (if any) specified in such approval.

Provided further that if the chief inspector shall, on consideration of the special circumstances of any particular case, so approve in writing, all or any of the provisions of the foregoing rule may be suspended for the time named in such approval in writing.

4. Vessels containing phosphorous paste shall, when not actually in use, be kept constantly covered, and closely fitting covers or damp flannels shall be provided for the purpose.

5. (a) For the purposes of these rules the occupier shall appoint, subject to the approval of the chief inspector, a duly qualified and registered dentist, herein termed the appointed dentist.

It shall be the duty of the appointed dentist to suspend from employment in any phosphorous process any person whom he finds to incur danger of phosphorous necrosis by reason of defective conditions of teeth or exposure of the jaw.

(b) No person shall be newly employed in a dipping room for more than twenty-eight days, whether such days are consecutive or not, without being examined by the appointed dentist.

(c) Every person employed in a phosphorous process, except persons employed only as boxers of wax vestas or other thoroughly dry matches, shall be examined by the appointed dentist at least once in every three months.

(d) Any person employed in the factory complaining of toothache, or a pain or swelling of the jaw, shall at once be examined by the appointed dentist.

(e) When the appointed dentist has reason to believe that any person employed in the factory is suffering from inflammation or necrosis of the jaw, or is in such a state of health as to incur danger of phosphorous necrosis, he shall at once direct the attention of the certifying surgeon and occupier to the case. Thereupon such person shall at once be examined by the certifying surgeon.

6. No person shall be employed in a phosphorous process after suspension by the appointed dentist; or after the extraction of a tooth; or after any operation involving exposure of the jaw bone; or after inflammation or necrosis of the jaw; or after examination by the appointed dentist in pursuance of Rule 5 (d); or after reference to the certifying surgeon in pursuance of Rule 5 (e), unless a certificate of fitness has been given, after examination, by signed entry in the health register, by the appointed dentist or by the certifying surgeon in cases referred to him under Rule 5 (e).

7. A health register, in a form approved by the chief inspector of factories, shall be kept by the occupier, and shall contain a complete list of all persons employed in each phosphorous process, specifying with regard to each such person the full name, address, age when first employed, and date of first employment.

The certifying surgeon will enter in the health register the dates and results of his examinations of persons employed in phosphorous processes, and particulars of any directions given by him.

The appointed dentist will enter in the health register the dates and results of his examinations of the teeth of persons employed in phosphorous processes, and particulars of any directions given by him, and a note of any case referred by him to the certifying surgeon.

The health register shall be produced at any time when required by H. M. inspectors of factories, or by the certifying surgeon, or by the appointed dentist.

8. Except persons whose names are on the health register mentioned in Rule 7, and in respect of whom certificates of fitness shall have been granted, no person shall be newly employed in any phosphorous process for more than 28 days, whether such days are consecutive or not, without a certificate of fitness, granted after examination by the certifying surgeon, by signed entry in the health register.

This rule shall not apply to persons employed only as boxers of wax vestas or other thoroughly dry matches.

9. The occupier shall provide and maintain sufficient and suitable overalls for all persons employed in phosphorous processes, except for persons employed only as boxers of wax vestas or other thoroughly dry matches, and shall cause them to be worn as directed in Rule 20.

At the end of every day's work they shall be collected and kept in proper custody in a suitable place set apart for the purpose.

They shall be thoroughly washed every week, and suitable arrangements for this purpose shall be made by the occupier.

10. The occupier shall provide and maintain—

(a) A dining room, and

(b) A cloak room in which workers can deposit clothing put off during working hours.

11. No person shall be allowed to prepare or partake of any food or drink in any room in which a phosphorous process is carried on, nor to bring any food or drink into such room.

12. The occupier shall provide and maintain for the use of the workers a lavatory, with soap, nailbrushes, towels, and at least one lavatory basin for every five persons employed in any phosphorous process.

Each such basin shall be fitted with a waste pipe, or the basins shall be placed on a trough fitted with a waste pipe. There shall be a constant supply of hot and cold water laid on to each basin.

Or, in the place of basins, the occupier shall provide and maintain enamel or galvanized iron troughs, in good repair, of a total length of 2 feet for every five persons employed, fitted with waste pipes and without plugs, with a sufficient supply of warm water constantly available.

The lavatory shall be kept thoroughly cleansed, and shall be supplied with a sufficient quantity of clean towels twice in each day.

There shall, in addition, be means of washing in close proximity to the workers in any department, if so required in writing by the inspector in charge of the district.

13. The occupier shall provide for the use of every person employed in a phosphorous process an antiseptic mouth wash approved by the appointed dentist, and a sufficient supply of glasses or cups.

14. The floor of each room in which a phosphorous process is carried on shall be cleared of waste at least once a day, and washed at least once a week.

15. A printed copy of these rules shall be given to each person on entering upon employment in a phosphorous process.

Duties of persons employed.

16. No person shall work in a mixing, dipping, drying, or boxing room under other conditions than those prescribed in Rule 3.

17. No person shall allow a vessel containing phosphorous paste to remain uncovered except when actually in use.

18. All persons employed in a phosphorous process shall present themselves at the appointed times for examination by the certifying surgeon and appointed dentist, as provided in Rules 5, 6 and 8.

19. Every person employed in a phosphorous process and suffering from toothache or swelling of the jaw; or having had a tooth extracted or having undergone any other operation involving exposure of the jaw, shall at once inform the occupier, and shall not resume employment in a phosphorous process without a certificate of fitness from the appointed dentist, as provided in Rule 6.

No person, after suspension by the appointed dentist, or after reference to the certifying surgeon, shall resume employment in a phosphorous process without a certificate of fitness, as provided in Rule 6.

20. Every person employed in a phosphorous process for whom the occupier is required by Rule 9 to provide overalls shall wear while at work the overalls so provided.

21. Every person employed in a phosphorous process shall, before partaking of meals or leaving the premises, deposit the overalls in the place appointed by the occupier for the purpose, and shall thoroughly wash in the lavatory.

22. No person shall prepare or partake of food or drink in any room in which a phosphorous process is carried on, or bring any food or drink into such room.

23. No person shall in any way interfere, without the knowledge and concurrence of the occupier or manager, with the means and appliances provided for the removal of dust and fumes.

24. Foremen and forewomen shall report to the manager any instance coming under their notice of a worker neglecting to observe these rules.

ARTHUR WHITELEGGE,
Chief Inspector of Factories.

APRIL, 1900.

NOTE.—These rules must be kept posted up in conspicuous places in the factory to which they apply, where they may be conveniently read by the persons employed. Any person who is bound to observe these rules and fails to do so or acts in contravention of them is liable to a penalty; and in such cases the occupier also is liable to a penalty unless he proves that he has taken all reasonable means by publishing and, to the best of his power, enforcing the rules to prevent the contravention or noncompliance.

FELT HATS.

Whereas the manufacture of felt hats with the aid of inflammable solvent has been certified in pursuance of section 79 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, to be dangerous, I hereby, in pursuance of the power conferred on me by that act, make the following regulations, and direct that they shall apply to all factories and workshops in which any inflammable solvent is used in the manufacture of felt hats:

1. Every proofing room and every stove or drying room in which an inflammable solvent is evaporated shall be thoroughly ventilated to the satisfaction of the inspector for the district, so as to carry off as far as possible the inflammable vapor

2. The number of wet spirit-proofed hat bodies allowed to be in a proofing room at any one time shall not exceed the proportion of one hat for each 15 cubic feet of air space; and in no stove, whilst the first drying of any spirit-proofed hats is being carried on, shall the number of hat bodies of any kind exceed a proportion of one hat for each 12 cubic feet of air space.

A notice stating the dimensions of each such room or stove in cubic feet and the number of spirit-proofed hats allowed to be therein at any one time shall be kept constantly affixed in a conspicuous position.

3. Spirit-proofed hats shall be opened out singly and exposed for one hour before being placed in the stove. This requirement shall not apply in the case of a stove which contains no fire or artificial light capable of igniting inflammable vapor, and which is so constructed and arranged as, in the opinion of the inspector for the district, to present no risk of such ignition from external fire or light.

4. The above rules, in so far as they affect drying stoves, shall not apply to the process of drying hat bodies where the solvent is recovered in a closed oven or chamber fitted with safe and suitable apparatus for the condensation of the solvent.

5. No person shall smoke in any room or place in which inflammable solvent is exposed to the air.

These regulations shall come into force on the 1st day of October, 1902.

A. AKERS-DOUGLAS.

One of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State.

WHITEHALL, 12th August, 1902.

SPECIAL RULES FOR THE HANDLING OF DRY AND DRY-SALTED HIDES AND SKINS IMPORTED FROM CHINA OR FROM THE WEST COAST OF INDIA.

(Form 486—February, 1906.)

Duties of occupier.

1. Proper provision to the reasonable satisfaction of the inspector in charge of the district shall be made for the keeping of the workmen's food and clothing outside any room or shed in which any of the above-described hides or skins are unpacked, sorted, packed, or stored.

2. Proper and sufficient appliances for washing, comprising soap, basins, with water laid on, nailbrushes and towels, shall be provided and maintained for the use of the workmen, to the reasonable satisfaction of the inspector in charge of the district.

3. Sticking plaster, and other requisites for treating scratches and slight wounds, shall be kept at hand, available for the use of the persons employed.

4. A copy of the appended notes shall be kept affixed with the rules.

Duties of persons employed.

5. No workman shall keep any food, or any articles of clothing other than those he is wearing, in any room or shed in which any of the above-described hides or skins are handled.

He shall not take any food in any such room or shed.

6. Every workman having any open cut or scratch or raw surface, however trifling, upon his face, head, neck, arm, or hand shall immediately report the fact to the foreman, and shall not work on the premises until the wound is healed or is completely covered by a proper dressing after being thoroughly washed.

ARTHUR WHITELEGGE,

Chief Inspector of Factories.

CHAS. T. RITCHIE,

One of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State.

AUGUST, 1901.

NOTE 1.—These rules must be kept posted up in conspicuous places in the factory to which they apply, where they may be conveniently read by the persons employed. Any person who is bound to observe these rules and fails to do so, or acts in contravention of them, is liable to a penalty; and in such cases the occupier also is liable to a penalty unless he proves that he has taken all reasonable means by publishing and, to the best of his power, enforcing the rules, to prevent the contravention or non-compliance.

NOTE 2.—The danger against which these rules are directed is that of anthrax—a fatal disease affecting certain animals, which may be conveyed from them to man by the handling of hides of animals which have died of the disease. The germs of the

disease (anthrax spores) are found in the dust and in the substance of the hide, and may remain active for years. In this country anthrax is rare, and precautions are taken to prevent infected hides from coming into the market, consequently there is little danger in handling the hides of animals slaughtered in the United Kingdom; but in Russia, China, and the East Indies, and in many other parts of the world, the disease is common, and infected hides (which do not differ from others in appearance) are often shipped to British ports. Hence in handling foreign dry hides the above rules should be carefully observed. Wet salted hides are free from dust, and less risk is incurred in handling them.

The disease is communicated to man sometimes by breathing or swallowing the dust from an infected hide, but much more usually by the poison lodging in some point where the skin is broken—such as a fresh scratch or cut or a scratched pimple, or even chapped hands. This happens most readily on the uncovered parts of the body, the hand, arm, face, and most frequently of all on the neck—owing either to an infected hide rubbing against the bare skin, or to dust from such a hide alighting on the raw surface. But a raw surface covered by clothing is not free from risk, for dust lodging upon the clothes may sooner or later work its way to the skin beneath. Infection may also be brought about by rubbing or scratching a pimple with hand or nail carrying the anthrax poison.

The first symptom of anthrax is usually a small inflamed swelling like a pimple or boil, often quite painless, which extends and in a few days becomes black at the center and surrounded by other "pimples." The poison is now liable to be absorbed into the system and will cause risk to life, which can be avoided only by prompt and effective medical treatment in the early stage while the poison is still confined to the pimple. Hence it is of the utmost importance that a doctor should at once be consulted if there is any suspicion of infection.

NOTE 3.—Suitable overalls, protecting the neck and arms, as well as ordinary clothing, add materially to the safety of the workmen, and should be provided and worn, where practicable, if dangerous hides are handled. They should be discarded on cessation of work. Similarly for the protection of the hands, gloves should be provided and worn where the character of the work permits.

WOOL AND HAIR SORTING.

Whereas the processes of sorting, willying, washing, and combing and carding wool, goat-hair, and camel-hair and processes incidental thereto have been certified, in pursuance of section 79 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, to be dangerous:

I hereby in pursuance of the powers conferred on me by that act make the following regulations, and direct that they shall apply to all factories and workshops in which the said processes are carried on, and in which the materials named in the schedules are used.

It shall be the duty of the occupier to comply with Regulations 1 to 16. It shall be the duty of all persons employed to comply with Regulations 17 to 23.

These regulations shall come into force on the 1st of January, 1906, except that Regulations 2 and 8 shall not come into force until the 1st of April, 1906.

Definition.

For the purpose of Regulations 2, 3, and 18, opening of wool or hair means the opening of the fleece, including the untying or cutting of the knots, or, if the material is not in the fleece, the opening out for looking over or classing purposes.

Duties of occupiers.

1. No bale of wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules shall be opened for the purpose of being sorted or manufactured, except by men skilled in judging the condition of the material.

No bale of wool or hair of the kinds named in Schedule A shall be opened except after thorough steeping in water.

2. No wool or hair of the kinds named in Schedule B shall be opened except (a) after steeping in water, or (b) over an efficient opening screen, with mechanical exhaust draft, in a room set apart for the purpose, in which no other work than opening is carried on.

For the purpose of this regulation, no opening screen shall be deemed to be efficient unless it complies with the following conditions:

(a) The area of the screen shall, in the case of existing screens, be not less than 11 square feet, and in the case of screens hereafter erected be not less than 12 square feet, nor shall its length or breadth be less than 3½ feet.

(b) At no point of the screen within 18 inches from the center shall the velocity of the exhaust draft be less than 100 linear feet per minute.

3. All damaged wool or hair or fallen fleeces or skin wool or hair, if of the kinds named in the schedules, shall, when opened be damped with a disinfectant and washed without being willowed.

4. No wool or hair of the kinds named in schedules B or C shall be sorted except over an efficient sorting board, with mechanical exhaust draft, and in a room set apart for the purpose, in which no work is carried on other than sorting and the packing of the wool or hair sorted therein.

No wool or hair of the kinds numbered (1) and (2) in Schedule A shall be sorted except in the damp state and after being washed.

No damaged wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules shall be sorted except after being washed.

For the purpose of this regulation, no sorting board shall be deemed to be efficient unless it complies with the following conditions:

The sorting board shall comprise a screen of open wirework, and beneath it at all parts a clear space not less than 3 inches in depth. Below the center of the screen there shall be a funnel, measuring not less than 10 inches across the top, leading to an extraction shaft, and the arrangements shall be such that all dust falling through the screen and not carried away by the exhaust can be swept directly into the funnel. The draft shall be maintained in constant efficiency whilst the sorters are at work, and shall be such that not less than 75 cubic feet of air per minute are drawn by the fan from beneath each sorting board.

5. No wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules shall be willowed except in an efficient willowing machine, in a room set apart for the purpose, in which no work other than willowing is carried on.

For the purpose of this regulation, no willowing machine shall be deemed to be efficient unless it is provided with mechanical exhaust draft so arranged as to draw the dust away from the workmen and prevent it from entering the air of the room.

6. No bale of wool or hair shall be stored in a sorting room; nor any wool or hair except in a space effectually screened off from the sorting room.

No wool or hair shall be stored in a willowing room.

7. In each sorting room, and exclusive of any portion screened off, there shall be allowed an air space of at least 1,000 cubic feet for each person employed therein.

8. In each room in which sorting, willowing, or combing is carried on, suitable inlets from the open air, or other suitable source, shall be provided and arranged in such a way that no person employed shall be exposed to a direct draft from any air inlet or to any draft at a temperature of less than 50° F.

The temperature of the room shall not, during working hours, fall below 50° F.

9. All bags in which wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules has been imported shall be picked clean, and not brushed.

10. All pieces of skin, scab, and clippings or shearings shall be removed daily from the sorting room, and shall be disinfected or destroyed.

11. The dust carried by the exhaust draft from opening screens, sorting boards, willowing or other dust extracting machines and shafts shall be discharged into properly constructed receptacles, and not into the open air.

Each extracting shaft and the space beneath the sorting boards and opening screens shall be cleaned out at least once in every week.

The dust collected as above, together with the sweepings from the opening, sorting, and willowing rooms, shall be removed at least twice a week and burned.

The occupier shall provide and maintain suitable overalls and respirators, to be worn by the persons engaged in collecting and removing the dust.

Such overalls shall not be taken out of the works or warehouse, either for washing, repairs, or any other purpose, unless they have been steeped overnight in boiling water or a disinfectant.

12. The floor of every room in which opening, sorting, or willowing is carried on shall be thoroughly sprinkled daily with a disinfectant solution after work has ceased for the day, and shall be swept immediately after sprinkling.

13. The walls and ceilings of every room in which opening, sorting, or willowing is carried on shall be limewashed at least once a year, and cleansed at least once within every six months, to date from the time when they were last cleansed.

14. The following requirements shall apply to every room in which unwashed wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules after being opened for sorting, manufacturing, or washing purposes is handled or stored:

(a) Sufficient and suitable washing accommodation shall be provided outside the rooms and maintained for the use of all persons employed in such rooms. The washing conveniences shall comprise soap, nailbrushes, towels, one basin for every five persons employed as above, each basin being *ste pipe and* having a constant supply of water laid on.

(b) Suitable places shall be provided outside the rooms in which persons employed in such rooms can deposit food and clothing put off during working hours.

(c) No person shall be allowed to prepare or partake of food in any such room. Suitable and sufficient meal room accommodation shall be provided for workers employed in such rooms.

(d) No person having any open cut or sore shall be employed in any such room. The requirements in paragraph (c) shall apply also to every room in which any wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules is carded or stored.

15. Requisites for treating scratches and slight wounds shall be kept at hand.

16. The occupier shall allow any H. M. inspectors of factories to take at any time, for the purpose of examination, sufficient samples of any wool or hair used on the premises.

Duties of persons employed.

17. No bale of wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules shall be opened otherwise than as permitted by paragraph 1 of Regulation 1, and no bale of wool or hair of the kinds named in Schedule A shall be opened except after thorough steeping in water.

If on opening a bale any damaged wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules is discovered, the person opening the bale shall immediately report the discovery to the foreman.

18. No wool or hair of the kinds named in Schedule B shall be opened otherwise than as permitted by Regulation 2.

19. No wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules shall be sorted otherwise than as permitted by Regulation 4.

20. No wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules shall be willowed except as permitted by Regulation 5.

21. Every person employed in a room in which unwashed wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedules is stored or handled shall observe the following requirements:

(a) He shall wash his hands before partaking of food, or leaving the premises.

(b) He shall not deposit in any such room any article of clothing put off during working hours.

He shall wear suitable overalls while at work, and shall remove them before partaking of food or leaving the premises.

(c) If he has any open cut or sore, he shall report the fact at once to the foreman, and shall not work in such a room.

No person employed in any such room or in any room in which wool or hair of the kinds named in the schedule is either carded or stored shall prepare or partake of any food therein, or bring any food therein.

22. Persons engaged in collecting or removing dust shall wear the overalls as required by Regulation 11.

Such overalls shall not be taken out of the works or warehouse either for washing, repairs, or any other purpose, unless they have been steeped overnight in boiling water or a disinfectant.

23. If any fan, or any other appliance for the carrying out of these regulations, is out of order, any workman becoming aware of the defect shall immediately report the fact to the foreman.

H. J. GLADSTONE,

One of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State.

HOME OFFICE, *Whitehall*, 12th December, 1905.

Schedule A.

(Wool or hair required to be steeped in the bale before being opened.)

1. Van mohair.

2. Persian locks.

3. Persian or so-called Persian (including Karadi and Bagdad) if not subjected to the process of sorting or willowing.

Schedule B.

(Wool or hair required to be opened either after steeping or over an efficient opening screen.)

Alpaca.

Pelltan.

East Indian cashmere.

Russian camel hair.

Pekin camel hair.

Persian or so-called Persian (including Karadi and Bagdad) if subjected to the process of sorting or willowing.

Schedule C.

(Wool or hair not needing to be opened over an opening screen but required to be sorted over a board provided with downward draught.)

All mohair other than van mohair.

NOTE.—The danger against which these regulations are directed is that of anthrax—a fatal disease affecting certain animals, which may be conveyed from them to man by the handling of wools or hairs from animals which have died of the disease. The germs of the disease (anthrax spores) are found in the dust attaching to the wool, or in the excrement, and in the substance of the pieces of skin, and may remain active for years. In this country and Australia anthrax is rare, consequently there is little danger in handling wools from the sheep of these two countries, but in China, Persia, Turkey, Russia, the East Indies, and in many other parts of the world, the disease is common, and infected fleeces or locks (which may not differ from others in appearance) are often shipped to Great Britain. Hence, in handling foreign dry wools and hair, the above regulations should be carefully observed. Greasy wools are comparatively free from dust and therefore little risk is incurred in handling them. The disease is communicated to man sometimes by breathing or swallowing the dust from these wools or hair, and sometimes by the poison lodging in some point where the skin is broken, such as a fresh scratch or cut, or a scratched pimple, or even chapped hands. This happens more readily on the uncovered parts of the body, the hand, arm, face, and most frequently of all, on the neck, owing either to infected wool rubbing against the bare skin, or to dust from such wool alighting on the raw surface. But a raw surface covered by clothing is not free from risk, for the dust lodging upon the clothes may sooner or later work its way to the skin beneath. Infection may also be brought about by rubbing or scratching a pimple with hand or nail carrying the anthrax poison. Use of the nailbrush, and frequent washing and bathing of the whole body, especially of the arms, neck, and head, will lessen the chance of contracting anthrax.

The first symptom of anthrax is usually a small inflamed swelling like a pimple or boil—often quite painless—which extends, and in a few days becomes black at the center, and surrounded by other "pimples." The poison is now liable to be absorbed into the system, and will cause risk of life, which can be avoided only by prompt and effective medical treatment in the early stage, while the poison is still confined to the pimple. Hence, it is of the utmost importance that a doctor should be at once consulted if there is any suspicion of infection.

FLAX AND TOW SPINNING AND WEAVING.

Whereas the processes of spinning and weaving flax and tow and the processes incidental thereto have been certified in pursuance of section 79 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, to be dangerous:

I hereby in pursuance of the powers conferred on me by that act make the following regulations, and direct that they shall apply to all factories in which the processes named above are carried on, and to all workshops in which the processes of roughing, sorting, or hand-hackling of flax or tow are carried on.

These regulations shall come into force on the 1st day of February, 1907.

Provided that in the case of all rooms in which roughing or hand-hackling is now carried on, and in which there is respectively (a) no system of local mechanical exhaust ventilation, or (b) no artificial means of regulating the temperature, Regulations 2 and 3, respectively, shall not come into force until the 1st day of February, 1908.

Definitions.

In these regulations—

"Degrees" means degrees on the Fahrenheit scale.

"Roughing, sorting, hand-hackling, machine-hackling, carding, and preparing" mean those processes in the manufacture of flax or tow.

It shall be the duty of the occupier to observe Part I of these regulations.

It shall be the duty of all persons employed to observe Part II of these regulations.

PART I.—*Duties of occupiers.*

1. In every room in which persons are employed the arrangements shall be such that during working hours the proportion of carbonic acid in the air of the room shall not exceed 20 volumes per 10,000 volumes of air at any time when gas or oil is used for lighting (or within one hour thereafter) or 12 volumes per 10,000 when electric light is used (or within one hour thereafter) or 9 volumes per 10,000 at any other time.

Provided that it shall be a sufficient compliance with this regulation if the proportion of carbonic acid in the air of the room does not exceed that of the open air outside by more than 5 volumes per 10,000 volumes of air.

2. In every room in which roughing, sorting, or hand-hackling is carried on, and in every room in which machine-hackling, carding, or preparing is carried on, and in which dust is generated and inhaled to an extent likely to cause injury to the health of the workers, efficient exhaust and inlet ventilation shall be provided to secure that the dust is drawn away from the workers at, or as near as reasonably possible to, the point at which it is generated.

For the purposes of this regulation the exhaust ventilation in the case of hand-hackling, roughing, or sorting shall not be deemed to be efficient if the exhaust opening at the back of the hackling pins measures less than 4 inches across in any direction, or has a sectional area of less than 50 square inches, or if the linear velocity of the draught passing through it is less than 400 feet per minute at any point within a sectional area of 50 square inches.

3. In every room in which hand-hackling, roughing, sorting, machine-hackling, carding, or preparing is carried on, an accurate thermometer shall be kept affixed; and the arrangements shall be such that the temperature of the room shall not at any time during working hours where hand-hackling, roughing, or machine-hackling is carried on, fall below 50 degrees, or where sorting, carding, or preparing is carried on below 55 degrees; and that no person employed shall be exposed to a direct draft from any air inlet, or to any draft at a temperature of less than 50 degrees.

Provided that it shall be a sufficient compliance with this regulation if the heating apparatus be put into operation at the commencement of work, and if the required temperature be maintained after the expiration of one hour from the commencement of work.

4. In every room in which wet-spinning is carried on, or in which artificial humidity of air is produced in aid of manufacture, a set of standardized wet and dry bulb thermometers shall be kept affixed in the center of the room or in such other position as may be directed by the inspector of the district by notice in writing, and shall be maintained in correct working order.

Each of the above thermometers shall be read between 10 and 11 a. m. on every day that any person is employed in the room, and again between 3 and 4 p. m. on every day that any person is employed in the room after 1 p. m., and each reading shall be at once entered on the prescribed form.

The form shall be hung up near the thermometers to which it relates, and shall be forwarded, duly filled in, at the end of each calendar month to the inspector of the district. Provided that this part of this regulation shall not apply to any room in which the difference of reading between the wet and dry bulb thermometers is never less than 4 degrees, if notice of intention to work on that system has been given in the prescribed form to the inspector for the district, and a copy of the notice is kept affixed in the room to which it applies.

5. The humidity of the atmosphere of any room to which Regulation 4 applies shall not at any time be such that the difference between the readings of the wet and dry bulb thermometers is less than 2 degrees.

6. No water shall be used for producing humidity of the air, or in wet-spinning troughs, which is liable to cause injury to the health of the persons employed or to yield effluvia; and for the purpose of this regulation any water which absorbs from acid solution of permanganate of potash in four hours at 60 degrees more than 0.5 grain of oxygen per gallon of water, shall be deemed to be liable to cause injury to the health of the persons employed.

7. Efficient means shall be adopted to prevent the escape of steam from wet-spinning troughs.

8. The pipes used for the introduction of steam into any room in which the temperature exceeds 70 degrees, or for heating the water in any wet-spinning trough, shall, so far as they are within the room and not covered by water, be as small in diameter and as limited in length as is reasonably practicable, and shall be effectively covered with nonconducting material.

9. Efficient splash guards shall be provided and maintained on all wet-spinning frames of 2½ inch pitch and over, and on all other wet-spinning frames unless water-proof skirts, and bibs of suitable material, are provided by the occupier and worn by the workers.

Provided that if the chief inspector is satisfied with regard to premises in use prior to 30th June, 1905, that the structural conditions are such that splash guards can not conveniently be used, he may suspend the requirement as to splash guards. Such suspension shall only be allowed by certificate in writing, signed by the chief inspector, and shall be subject to such conditions as may be stated in the certificate.

10. The floor of every wet-spinning room shall be kept in sound condition, and drained so as to prevent retention or accumulation of water.

11. There shall be provided for all persons employed in any room in which wet-spinning is carried on, or in which artificial humidity of air is produced in aid of manufacture, suitable and convenient accommodation in which to keep the clothing taken off before starting work, and in the case of a building erected after 30th June, 1905, in which the difference between the readings of the wet and dry bulb thermometers is at any time less than 4 degrees, such accommodation shall be provided in cloakrooms ventilated and kept at a suitable temperature and situated in or near the workrooms in question.

12. Suitable and efficient respirators shall be provided for the use of the persons employed in machine-hackling, preparing, and carding.

PART II.—*Duties of persons employed.*

13. All persons employed on wet-spinning frames without efficient splash guards shall wear the skirts and bibs provided by the occupier in pursuance of Regulation 9.

14. No person shall in any way interfere, without the concurrence of the occupier or manager, with the means and appliances provided for ventilation, or for the removal of dust, or for the other purposes of these regulations.

H. J. GLADSTONE,

One of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State.

HOME OFFICE, Whitehall, 26th February, 1906.

FILE CUTTING BY HAND.

Whereas the process of file cutting by hand has been certified in pursuance of section 79 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, to be dangerous:

I hereby, in pursuance of the powers conferred on me by that act, make the following regulations, and direct that they shall apply to all factories and workshops (including tenement factories and tenement workshops) or parts thereof in which the process of file cutting by hand is carried on: Provided that the chief inspector of factories may by certificate in writing exempt from all or any of these regulations any factory or workshop in which he is satisfied that the beds used are of such composition as not to entail danger to the health of the persons employed.

1. The number of stocks in any room shall not be more than one stock for every 350 cubic feet of air space in the room; and in calculating air space for the purpose of this regulation any space more than 10 feet above the floor of the room shall not be reckoned.

2. After the 1st day of January, 1904, the distance between the stocks measured from the center of one stock to the center of the next shall not be less than 2 feet 6 inches, and after the 1st day of January, 1905, the said distance shall not be less than 3 feet.

3. Every room shall have a substantial floor, the whole of which shall be covered with a washable material, save that it shall be optional to leave a space not exceeding 6 inches in width round the base of each stock.

The floor of every room shall be kept in good repair.

4. Efficient inlet and outlet ventilators shall be provided in every room. The inlet ventilators shall be so arranged and placed as not to cause a direct draft of incoming air to fall on the workmen employed at the stocks.

The ventilators shall be kept in good repair and in working order.

5. No person shall interfere with or impede the working of the ventilators.

6. Sufficient and suitable washing conveniences shall be provided and maintained for the use of the file cutters. The washing conveniences shall be under cover and shall comprise at least one fixed basin for every ten or less stocks. Every basin shall be fitted with a waste pipe discharging over a drain or into some receptacle of a capacity at least equal to one gallon for every file cutter using the basin. Water shall be laid on to every basin either from the main or from a tank of a capacity of not less than 1½ gallons to every worker supplied from such tank. A supply of clean water shall be kept in the said tank while work is going on at least sufficient to enable every worker supplied from such tank to wash.

7. The walls and ceiling of every room, except such parts as are painted or varnished or made of glazed brick, shall be limewashed once in every six months ending the 30th of June and once in every six months ending the 31st of December.

8. The floor and such parts of the walls and ceiling as are not limewashed and the benches shall be cleansed once a week.

9. If the factory or workshop is situated in a dwelling house the work of file cutting shall not be carried on in any room which is used as a sleeping place or for cooking or eating meals.

10. Every file cutter shall when at work wear a long apron reaching from the shoulders and neck to below the knees. The apron shall be kept in a cleanly state.

11. A copy of these regulations and an abstract of the provisions of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, shall be kept affixed in the factory or workshop in a conspicuous place.

12. It shall be the duty of the occupier to carry out Regulations 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, and 11; except that, in any room in a tenement factory or tenement workshop which is let to more than one occupier, it shall be the duty of the owner to carry out these regulations, except the last clause of Regulation 6, which shall be carried out by the occupiers.

It shall be the duty of the occupier or occupiers to carry out Regulation 8.

It shall be the duty of the occupier or occupiers and of every workman to observe Regulations 5, 9, and 10.

These regulations shall come into force on the 1st day of September, 1903.

A. AKERS-DOUGLAS,

One of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State.

HOME OFFICE, Whitehall, 19th June, 1903.

SPECIAL RULES FOR THE BOTTLING OF AERATED WATER.

(Form 273—A 1/3/01.)

Duties of occupiers.

1. They shall provide all bottlers with face guards, masks, or veils of wire gauze. They shall provide all wirers, sighters, and labelers with face guards, masks, or veils of wire gauze, or goggles.
2. They shall provide all bottlers with full-length gauntlets for both arms. They shall provide all wirers, sighters, and labelers with gauntlets for both arms, protecting at least half of the palm and the space between the thumb and forefinger.
3. They shall cause all machines for bottling to be so constructed, so placed, or so fenced, as to prevent as far as possible, during the operation of filling or corking, a fragment of a bursting bottle from striking any bottler, wirer, sighter, labeler, or washer.

Duties of persons employed.

4. All bottlers shall, while at work, wear face guards, masks, or veils of wire gauze. All wirers, sighters, and labelers shall, while at work, wear face guards, masks, or veils of wire gauze, or goggles; except labelers when labeling bottles standing in cases.
5. All bottlers shall, while at work, wear on both arms, full-length gauntlets. All wirers, sighters, and labelers shall, while at work, wear on both arms gauntlets protecting at least half of the palm and the space between the thumb and forefinger; except labelers when labeling bottles standing in cases.

ARTHUR WHITELEGGE,

H. M. Chief Inspector of Factories.

AUGUST, 1897.

These rules are required to be posted up in conspicuous places in the factory or workshop to which they apply, where they may be conveniently read by the persons employed. Any person who willfully injures or defaces them is liable to a penalty of five pounds [§24.33]. Occupiers of factories and workshops, and persons employed therein, who are bound to observe any special rules, are liable to penalties for non-compliance (Factory and Workshop Act, 1891, sections 9 and 11).

The employer is required to provide the articles mentioned in the rules, and to take all reasonable precautions to the best of his power to enforce their use, but the responsibility for the actual wearing of them rests with the person employed.

SPINNING BY SELF-ACTING MULES.

Whereas certain machinery used in the process of spinning in textile factories, and known as self-acting mules, has been certified, in pursuance of section 79 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, to be dangerous to life and limb;

I hereby, in pursuance of the powers conferred on me by that act, make the following regulations, and direct that they shall apply to all factories or parts thereof in which the process of spinning by means of self-acting mules is carried on:

1. In these regulations the term "minder" means the person in charge of a self-acting mule for the time being.

2. Save as hereinafter provided it shall be the duty of the occupier of a factory to observe Part I of these regulations: provided that it shall be the duty of the owner (whether or not he is one of the occupiers) of a tenement factory to observe Part I of these regulations, except so far as relates to such parts of the machinery as are supplied by the occupier.

It shall be the duty of the persons employed to observe Part II of these regulations, but it shall be the duty of the occupier, for the purpose of enforcing their observance, to keep a copy of the regulations in legible characters affixed in every mule room, in a conspicuous position where they may be conveniently read.

PART I.—*Duties of occupiers.*

3. After January 1st, 1906, the following parts of every self-acting mule shall be securely fenced as far as is reasonably practicable, unless it can be shown that by their position or construction they are equally safe to every person employed as they would be if securely fenced.

- (a) Back shaft scrolls and carrier pulleys and draw band pulleys.
- (b) Front and back carriage wheels.
- (c) Faller-stops.
- (d) Quadrant pinions.
- (e) Back of headstocks, including rim pulleys and taking-in scrolls.
- (f) Rim band tightening pulleys, other than plate wheels, connected with a self-acting mule erected after January 1st, 1906.

PART II.—*Duties of persons employed.*

4. It shall be the duty of the minder of every self-acting mule to take all reasonable care to ensure:

- (a) That no child cleans any part or under any part thereof whilst the mule is in motion by the aid of mechanical power.
- (b) That no woman, young person, or child works between the fixed and traversing parts thereof whilst the mule is in motion by the aid of mechanical power.
- (c) That no person is in the space between the fixed and traversing parts thereof unless the mule is stopped on the outward run.

5. No self-acting mule shall be started or restarted except by the minder or at his express order, nor until he has ascertained that no person is in the space between the fixed and traversing parts thereof.

A. AKERS-DOUGLAS,

One of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State.

HOME OFFICE, *Whitehall, 17th October, 1905.*

LOADING GOODS ON DOCKS AND WHARVES.

Whereas the processes of loading, unloading, moving, and handling goods in, on, or at any dock, wharf, or quay, and the processes of loading, unloading, and coaling any ship in any dock, harbor, or canal have been certified in pursuance of section 79 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, to be dangerous:

I hereby, in pursuance of the powers conferred on me by that act, make the following regulations for the protection of persons employed in the processes or in any of them, and direct that they shall apply to all docks, wharves, quays, and ships as aforesaid.

These regulations shall come into force on the 1st of January, 1905, except that so much of Regulations 6 and 8 as require structural alterations shall come into force on the 1st of January, 1908.

Nothing in Parts II to VI, inclusive, of these regulations shall apply to the unloading of fish from a vessel employed in the catching of fish.

The secretary of state may by order in writing exempt from all or any of the regulations and for such time and subject to such conditions as he may prescribe any docks, wharves, or quays in respect of which application for such exemption shall have been made to him by the department of agriculture and technical instruction for Ireland or by the congested districts board for Ireland.

Definitions.

In these regulations:

"Processes" means the processes above mentioned; or any of them.

"Person employed" means a person employed in the above processes or any of them.

"Shallow canal" includes any of the following parts of a canal, canalized river, nontidal river, or inland navigation:

- (a) Any part having no means of access to tidal waters except through a lock not exceeding ninety feet in length;
- (b) Any part not in frequent use for the processes; and
- (c) Any part at which the depth of water within fifteen feet of the edge does not ordinarily exceed five feet.

Duties.

It shall be the duty of the person having the general management and control of a dock, wharf, or quay to comply with Part I of these regulations; provided that if any other person has the exclusive right to occupation of any part of the dock, wharf, or quay, and has the general management and control of such part the duty in respect of that part shall devolve upon that other person; and further provided that this part of these regulations shall not apply to any shallow canal.

It shall be the duty of the owner, master, or officer in charge of a ship to comply with Part II of these regulations.

It shall be the duty of the owner of machinery or plant used in the processes, and in the case of machinery or plant carried on board a ship not being a ship registered in the United Kingdom it shall also be the duty of the master of such ship, to comply with Part III of these regulations.

It shall be the duty of every person who by himself, his agents, or workmen carries on the processes, and of all agents, workmen, and persons employed by him in the processes, to comply with Part IV of these regulations.

It shall be the duty of all persons, whether owners, occupiers, or persons employed, to comply with Part V of these regulations.

Part VI of these regulations shall be complied with by the persons on whom the duty is placed in that part.

PART I.

1. The following parts of every dock, wharf, or quay shall, as far as is practicable, having regard to the traffic and working, be securely fenced so that the height of the fence shall be in no place less than two feet six inches, and the fencing shall be maintained in good condition ready for use.

(a) All breaks, dangerous corners, and other dangerous parts of edges of a dock, wharf, or quay.

(b) Both sides of such footways over bridges, caissons, and dock gates as are in general use by persons employed, and each side of the entrance at each end of such footway for a sufficient distance not exceeding five yards.

2. Provision for the rescue from drowning of persons employed shall be made and maintained, and shall include:

(a) A supply of life-saving appliances, kept in readiness on the wharf or quay, which shall be reasonably adequate having regard to all the circumstances.

(b) Means at or near the surface of the water at reasonable intervals, for enabling a person immersed to support himself or escape from the water, which shall be reasonably adequate having regard to all the circumstances.

3. All places in which persons employed are employed at night, and any dangerous parts of the regular road or way over a dock, wharf, or quay, forming the approach to any such place from the nearest highway, shall be efficiently lighted.

Provided that the towing path of a canal or canalized river shall not be deemed to be "an approach," for the purpose of this regulation.

PART II.

4. If a ship is lying at a wharf or quay for the purpose of loading or unloading or coaling there shall be means of access for the use of persons employed at such times as they have to pass from the ship to the shore or from the shore to the ship as follows:

(a) Where a gangway is reasonably practicable a gangway not less than 22 inches wide, properly secured, and fenced throughout on each side to a clear height of two feet nine inches by means of upper and lower rails, taut ropes or chains, or by other equally safe means.

(b) In other cases a secure ladder of adequate length.

Provided that nothing in this regulation shall be held to apply to cargo stages or cargo gangways, if other proper means of access is provided in conformity with these regulations.

Provided that as regards any sailing vessel not exceeding 250 tons net registered tonnage and any steam vessel not exceeding 150 tons gross registered tonnage this regulation shall not apply if and while the conditions are such that it is possible without undue risk to pass to and from the ship without the aid of any special appliances.

5. If a ship is alongside any other ship, vessel, or boat, and persons employed have to pass from one to the other, safe means of access shall be provided for their use, unless the conditions are such that it is possible to pass from one to the other without undue risk without the aid of any special appliance.

If one of such ships, vessels, or boats is a sailing barge, flat, keel, lighter or other similar vessel of relatively low free board the means of access shall be provided by the ship which has the higher free board.

6. If the depth from the top of the coamings to the bottom of the hold exceeds six feet there shall be maintained safe means of access by ladder or steps from the deck to the hold in which work is being carried on, with secure hand-hold and foothold continued to the top of the coamings.

In particular such access shall not be deemed to be safe:

(a) Unless the ladders between the lower decks are in the same line as the ladder from the main deck, if the same is practicable having regard to the position of the lower hatchway or hatchways.

(b) Unless the cargo is stowed sufficiently far from the ladder to leave at each rung of the ladder sufficient room for a man's feet.

(c) If there is not room to pass between a winch and the coamings at the place where the ladder leaves the deck.

(d) If the ladder is recessed under the deck more than is reasonably necessary to keep the ladder clear of the hatchway.

7. When the processes are being carried on between one hour after sunset and one hour before sunrise (a) the places in the hold and on the decks where work is being carried on, and (b) the means of access provided in pursuance of Regulations 4 and 5, shall be efficiently lighted, due regard being had to the safety of the ship and cargo, of all persons employed and of the navigation of other vessels and to the duly approved by-laws or regulations of any authority having power by statute to make by-laws or regulations subject to approval by some other authority.

8. All iron fore and aft beams and thwart ship beams used for hatchway covering shall have suitable gear for lifting them on and off without it being necessary for any person to go upon them to adjust such gear.

PART III.

9. All machinery and chains and other gear used in hoisting or lowering in connection with the processes shall have been tested, and shall be periodically examined. All such chains shall be effectually softened by annealing or firing when necessary, and all half-inch or smaller chains in general use shall be so annealed or fired once in every six months.

If the chains are part of the outfit carried by a seagoing ship it shall be a sufficient compliance with this regulation as regards softening by annealing or firing of half-inch or smaller chains, that no such chains shall be used unless they have been so annealed or fired within six months preceding.

As regards chains, the safe-loads indicated by the test, the date of last annealing, and any other particulars prescribed by the secretary of state, shall be entered in a register which shall be kept on the premises, unless some other place has been approved in writing by the chief inspector.

10. All motors, cog-wheels, chain and friction-gearing, shafting and live electric conductors used in the processes shall (unless it can be shown that by their position and construction they are equally safe to every person employed as they would be if securely fenced) be securely fenced so far as is practicable without impeding the safe working of the ship and without infringing any requirement of the board of trade.

11. The lever controlling the link motion reversing gear of a crane or winch used in the processes shall be provided with a suitable spring or other locking arrangement.

12. Every shore crane used in the processes shall have the safe-load plainly marked upon it, and if so constructed that the jib may be raised or lowered, either shall have attached to it an automatic indicator of safe-loads or shall have marked upon it a table showing the safe-loads at the corresponding inclinations of the jib.

13. The driver's platform on every crane or tip driven by mechanical power and used in the processes shall be securely fenced, and shall be provided with safe means of access.

14. Adequate measures shall be taken to prevent exhaust steam from any crane or winch obscuring any part of the decks, gangways, stages, wharf, or quay, where any person is employed.

PART IV.

15. No machinery or gear used in the processes, other than a crane, shall be loaded beyond the safe-load; nor a crane, unless secured with the written permission of the owner by plates or chains or otherwise.

No load shall be left suspended from a crane, winch, or other machine unless there is a competent person actually in charge of the machine while the load is so left.

16. A boy under 16 shall not be employed as driver of a crane or winch, or to give signals to a driver, or to attend to cargo falls on winch-ends or winch-bodies.

17. Where in connection with the processes goods are placed on a wharf or quay other than a wharf or quay on a shallow canal:

(a) A clear passage leading to the means of access to the ship required by Regulation 4 shall be maintained on the wharf or quay; and

(b) If any space is left along the edge of the wharf or quay, it shall be at least three feet wide and clear of all obstructions other than fixed structures, plant and appliances in use.

18. No deck-stage or cargo-stage shall be used in the processes unless it is substantially and firmly constructed, and adequately supported, and, where necessary, securely fastened.

No truck shall be used for carrying cargo between ship and shore on a stage so steep as to be unsafe.

Any stage which is slippery shall be made safe by the use of sand or otherwise.

19. Where there is more than one hatchway, if the hatchway of a hold exceeding seven feet six inches in depth measured from the top of the coamings to the bottom of the hold is not in use and the coamings are less than two feet six inches in height, it shall either be fenced to a height of three feet, or be securely covered.

Provided that this regulation shall not apply during meal-times or other temporary interruptions of work during the period of employment.

And provided that until the 1st of January, 1908, the fencing may be the best the circumstances will allow without making structural alteration.

Hatch coverings shall not be used in connection with the processes in the construction of deck or cargo stages, or for any other purpose which may expose them to damage.

20. No cargo shall be loaded by a fall or sling at any intermediate deck unless a secure landing platform has been placed across the hatchway at that deck.

PART V.

21. No person shall, unless duly authorized, or in case of necessity, remove or interfere with any fencing, gangway, gear, ladder, life-saving means or appliances, lights, marks, stages, or other things whatsoever, required by these regulations to be provided.

22. The fencing required by Regulation 1 shall not be removed except to the extent and for the period reasonably necessary for carrying on the work of the dock or ship, or for repairing any fencing. If removed it shall be restored forthwith at the end of that period by the persons engaged in the work that necessitated its removal.

PART VI.

23. No employer of persons in the processes shall allow machinery or gear to be used by such persons in the processes that does not comply with Part III of these regulations.

24. If the persons whose duty it is to comply with Regulations 4, 5, and 7 fail so to do, then it shall also be the duty of the employers of the persons employed for whose use the means of access and the lights are required to comply with the said regulation within the shortest time reasonably practicable after such failure.

25. The certificate of the ship's register and any other certificate or register referred to in these regulations shall be produced by the person in charge thereof on the application of any of H. M. inspectors of factories.

A. AKERS-DOUGLAS,

One of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State.

HOME OFFICE, *Whitehall, 24th October, 1904.*

FACTORY ENGINES AND CARS.

Whereas the use of locomotives, wagons, and other rolling stock on lines of rail or sidings in any factory or workshop or any place to which the provisions of section 79 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, are applied by that act or on lines of rail or sidings used in connection with any factory, or workshop or any place as aforesaid, and not being part of a railway within the meaning of the Railway Employment

(prevention of accidents) Act, 1900, has been certified in pursuance of the said section to be dangerous:

I hereby in pursuance of the powers conferred upon me by that act make the following regulations and direct that they shall apply to all places before mentioned.

These regulations shall come into force on the 1st day of January, 1907, except Regulations 1, 2, and 22, which shall come into force on the 1st day of January, 1908.

Subject to the exemptions below, it shall be the duty of (i) the occupier of any factory or workshop and any place to which any of the provisions of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, are applied, and (ii) the occupier of any line of rails or sidings used in connection with a factory or workshop, or with any place to which any of the provisions of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, are applied, to comply with Part I of these regulations.

And it shall be the duty of every person who by himself, his agents or workmen, carries on any of the operations to which these regulations apply, and of all agents, workmen and persons employed to comply with Part II of these regulations.

And it shall be the duty of every person who by himself, his agents, or workmen, carries on any of the operations to which these regulations apply, to comply with Part III of these regulations.

In these regulations:

Line of rails means a line of rails or sidings for the use of locomotives or wagons, except such lines as are used exclusively for (a) a gantry crane or traveling crane, or (b) any charging machine or other apparatus or vehicle used exclusively in or about any actual process of manufacture.

Wagon includes any wheeled vehicle or non-self-moving crane on a line of rails.

Locomotive includes any wheeled motor on a line of rails used for the movement of wagons and any self-moving crane.

Gantry means an elevated structure of wood, masonry, or metal, exceeding 6 feet in height and used for loading or unloading, which carries a line of rails, whereon wagons are worked by mechanical power.

Nothing in these regulations shall apply to:

- (a) A line of rails of less than 3 feet gauge, and locomotives and wagons used thereon.
- (b) A line of rails not worked by mechanical power.
- (c) A line of rails inside a railway goods warehouse.
- (d) A line of rails forming part of a mine within the meaning of the Coal Mines Regulation Act, 1887, or of a quarry within the meaning of the Quarries Act, 1894, not being a line of rails within or used solely in connection with any factory or workshop not incidental to the maintenance or working of the mine or quarry or to the carrying on of the business thereof.
- (e) Pit banks of mines to which the Metalliferous Mines Regulation Act, 1872, applies, and private lines of rails used in connection therewith.
- (f) Lines of rails used in connection with factories or workshops, so far as they are outside the factory or workshop premises, and used for running purposes only.
- (g) Wagons not moved by mechanical power.
- (h) Buildings in course of construction.
- (i) Explosive factories or workshops within the meaning of the Explosives Act, 1875.
- (j) All lines and sidings on or used in connection with docks, wharves and quays not forming part of a factory or workshop as defined in section 149 of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901.
- (k) Wagon or locomotive building or repairing shops, and all lines and sidings used in connection with such shops if such shops are in the occupation of a railway company within the meaning of the Regulation of Railways Act, 1871.
- (l) Depots or car-sheds being parts of tramway or light railway undertakings authorized by Parliament, and used for the storage, cleaning, inspection or repair of tramway cars or light railway cars.

PART I.

1. Point rods and signal wires in such a position as to be a source of danger to persons employed shall be sufficiently covered or otherwise guarded.

2. Ground levers working points shall be so placed that men working them are clear of adjacent lines, and shall be placed in a position parallel to the adjacent lines, or in such other position, and be of such form as to cause as little obstruction as possible to persons employed.

3. Lines of rails and points shall be periodically examined and kept in efficient order, having regard to the nature of the traffic.

4. Every gantry shall be properly constructed and kept in proper repair. It shall have a properly fixed structure to act as a stop-block at any terminal point; and at

every part where persons employed have to work or pass on foot there shall be a suitable footway, and if such footway is provided between a line of rails and the edge of the gantry the same shall so far as is reasonably practicable, having regard to the traffic and working, be securely fenced at such a distance from the line of rails as to afford a reasonably sufficient space for such persons to pass in safety between the fence and a locomotive wagon or load on the line of rails.

5. Coupling poles or other suitable mechanical appliances shall be provided where required for the purpose of Regulation 11.

6. Proper sprags and scotches when required shall be provided for the use of persons in charge of the movement of wagons.

7. Where during the period between one hour after sunset and one hour before sunrise, or in foggy weather, shunting or any operations likely to cause danger to persons employed are frequently carried on, efficient lighting shall be provided either by hand lamps or stationary lights as the case may require at all points where necessary for the safety of such persons.

8. The mechanism of a capstan worked by power and used for the purpose of traction of wagons on a line of rails shall be maintained in efficient condition and if operated by a treadle such treadle shall be tested daily before use.

PART II.

9. When materials are placed within 3 feet of a line of rails and persons employed are exposed to risk of injury from traffic by having to pass on foot over them or between them and the line, such material shall, as far as reasonably practicable, be so placed as not to endanger such persons, and there shall be adequate recesses at intervals of not more than 20 yards where the materials exceed that length.

10. No person shall cross a line of rails by crawling or passing underneath a train or wagons thereon where there may be a risk of danger from traffic.

11. Locomotives or wagons shall wherever it is reasonably practicable without structural alterations be coupled or uncoupled only by means of a coupling pole or other suitable mechanical appliance, except where the construction of locomotives or wagons is such that coupling or uncoupling can be safely and conveniently performed without any part of a man's body being within the space between the ends or buffers of one locomotive or wagon and another.

12. Sprags and scotches shall be used as and when they are required.

13. Wagons shall not be moved or be allowed to be moved on a line of rails by means of a prop or pole, or by means of towing by a rope or chain attached to a locomotive or wagon moving on an adjacent line of rails when other reasonably practicable means can be adopted; provided that this shall not apply to the movement of ladles containing hot material on a line of rails in front of and adjacent to a furnace.

In no case shall props be used for the above purpose unless made of iron, steel, or strong timber, hooped with iron, to prevent splitting.

14. Where a locomotive pushes more than one wagon, and risk of injury may thereby be caused to persons employed, a man shall, wherever it is safe and reasonably practicable, accompany or precede the front wagon or other efficient means shall be taken to obviate such risk.

Provided that this regulation shall not apply to the following:

(a) Fly shunting.

(b) Movement of wagons used for conveyance of molten or hot material or other dangerous substance.

15. No person shall be upon the buffer of a locomotive or wagon in motion unless there is a secure handhold and shall not stand thereon unless there is also a secure foot-place; nor shall any person ride on a locomotive or wagon by means of a coupling pole or other like appliance.

16. No locomotive or wagon shall be moved on a line of rails until warning has been given by the person in charge to persons employed whose safety is likely to be endangered.

Provided that this regulation shall not apply to a self-moving crane within a building or to a charging machine or other vehicle so long as it is used in or about any actual process of manufacture.

17. Where persons employed have to pass on foot or work, no locomotive or wagon shall be moved on a line of rails during the period between one hour after sunset and one hour before sunrise, or in foggy weather, unless the approaching end, wherever it is safe and reasonably practicable, is distinguished by a suitable light or accompanied by a man with a lamp.

Provided that this regulation shall not apply to the movement of locomotives or wagons within any area which is efficiently lighted by stationary lights.

18. The driver in charge of a locomotive, or a man preceding it on foot, shall give an efficient sound signal as a warning on approaching any level crossing over a line of rails regularly used by persons employed, or any curve where sight is intercepted, or any other point of danger to persons employed.

19. A danger signal shall be exhibited at or near the ends of any wagon or train of wagons undergoing repair wherever persons employed are liable to be endangered by an approaching locomotive or wagon.

20. (a) The space immediately around such a capstan as mentioned in Regulation 8 shall be kept clear of all obstruction.

(b) Such capstan shall not be set in motion until signals have been exchanged between the man in charge of the capstan and the man working the rope or chain attached to it.

(c) No person under 18 years of age shall work such capstan.

21. No person under the age of 18 shall be employed as a locomotive driver, and no person under the age of 16 shall be employed as a shunter.

PART III.

22. All glass tubes or water gauges on locomotives or stationary boilers used for the movement of wagons shall be adequately protected by a covering or guard.

H. J. GLADSTONE,

One of His Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State.

HOME OFFICE, Whitehall, 24th August, 1906.

RECENT REPORTS OF STATE BUREAUS OF LABOR STATISTICS.

ILLINOIS.

Thirteenth Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the State of Illinois. 1904. David Ross, Secretary of Board of Commissioners of Labor. viii, 665 pp.

This report consists of two parts, as follows: Part I, manufactures of Illinois, 133 pages; Part II, working time, earnings, and general conditions of coal miners, 527 pages.

MANUFACTURES.—This part presents the data collected and compiled by the United States census of manufactures of Illinois, made in 1905. The statistics presented are mainly for the year ending December 31, 1904. Comparisons are also made with the United States census of manufactures for 1900.

The following table presents, for the State, comparative statistics for the years 1904 and 1900:

STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES, 1904 COMPARED WITH 1900.

Items.	1904.	1900.	Increase.	Per cent of increase.
Number of establishments.....	14,921	14,374	547	3.8
Capital invested.....	\$975,844,799	\$732,829,771	\$243,015,028	33.2
Number of salaried officials, clerks, etc.....	54,521	40,964	13,557	33.1
Total paid in salaries.....	\$60,559,678	\$40,549,245	\$20,010,433	49.3
Average number of wage-earners:				
Males 16 years of age or over.....	314,091	275,006	39,085	14.2
Females 16 years of age or over.....	60,399	47,922	12,477	26.0
Children under 16 years of age.....	4,946	9,943	◦ 4,997	◦ 50.3
Total.....	379,436	332,871	46,565	14.0
Amount paid in wages to—				
Males 16 years of age or over.....	\$187,568,896	\$143,714,217	\$43,854,679	30.5
Females 16 years of age or over.....	19,899,360	13,580,271	6,319,089	46.5
Children under 16 years of age.....	943,212	1,809,091	◦ 865,879	◦ 47.9
Total.....	\$208,408,468	\$159,104,179	\$49,304,289	31.0
Miscellaneous expenses.....	\$172,185,567	\$118,047,771	\$54,137,796	45.9
Cost of materials used.....	\$840,057,316	\$681,450,122	\$158,607,194	23.3
Value of products, including custom work and repairing.....	\$1,410,342,129	\$1,120,868,308	\$289,473,821	25.8

◦ Decrease.

With the exception of the figures relating to the employment of children under 16 years of age, all of the items presented in the table show large increases in 1904 as compared with 1900. This decrease in the number of children employed (50.3 per cent) shows that the employment of child labor, especially in the larger manufacturing industries, is being rapidly lessened.

In Chicago in 1904 there were 8,159 establishments engaged in manufacturing industries, representing an invested capital of

\$637,743,474. There were employed by these establishments 40,276 salaried officials, clerks, etc., to whom were paid salaries aggregating \$45,601,201, and 241,984 wage-earners, to whom were paid wages aggregating \$136,404,696. Miscellaneous expenses amounted to \$96,298,031. The cost of materials used was \$589,913,993, and the value of products was \$957,886,217.

In the six leading manufacturing industries of the city (electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies, foundry and machine shop products, furniture, iron and steel, printing and publishing, and slaughtering and meat packing, wholesale) 1,884 establishments were engaged, representing an invested capital of \$221,803,149. There were employed by these establishments 17,775 salaried officials, clerks, etc., to whom were paid salaries aggregating \$19,869,755, and 82,266 wage-earners, to whom were paid wages aggregating \$49,186,445. Miscellaneous expenses amounted to \$35,514,610. The cost of materials used was \$318,815,853, and the value of products was \$454,977,196.

WORKING TIME, EARNINGS, AND GENERAL CONDITIONS OF COAL MINERS.—This investigation, for the calendar year 1903, embraces 21 of the coal-producing counties of the State, the mines canvassed being located at or contiguous to 58 cities and towns. Schedules were obtained from 10,426 workmen, of whom 8,818 were miners of coal and 1,608 other employees. The total workmen represented 37 separate occupations, the 1,608 other than miners proper representing 36 occupations. The data are presented in 16 tables.

Summarizing the returns it was found that the average yearly earnings of the 10,426 coal-mine employees was \$541, while for the miners proper it was \$527. The following statement shows for six wage groups the percentage of all employees and the percentage of miners proper whose yearly earnings fall within each specified group:

PER CENT OF COAL-MINE EMPLOYEES WHOSE YEARLY EARNINGS FALL WITHIN CERTAIN SPECIFIED WAGE GROUPS.

Employees.	Number.	Per cent earning yearly—					\$1,000 or over.
		Under \$500.	\$500 or under \$600.	\$600 or under \$700.	\$700 or under \$800.	\$800 or under \$1,000.	
All occupations.....	10,426	43.32	23.73	15.96	9.02	6.24	1.73
Miners.....	8,818	46.50	24.24	14.78	8.04	5.11	1.33

From the above it is seen that 67.05 per cent of the employees, all occupations considered, earn under \$600 per annum, while for miners alone 70.74 per cent earn under \$600 per annum.

Of the total employees, 10,363 reported as to nativity, 5,825, or 56.21 per cent, of the number being native born and 4,538, or 43.79 per cent, being foreign born. Of the foreign born, 44.86 per cent were Austrians, Italians, Poles, and Russians, 50.30 per cent English,

French, German, Irish, Scotch, Swede, and Welsh, and the remaining 4.84 per cent were other foreign born. Of the 8,775 miners who reported as to nativity, 54.48 per cent were native born and 45.52 per cent foreign born, and of the 1,588 other employees who reported as to nativity 65.74 per cent were native born and 34.26 per cent foreign born.

Relative to stability of employment, it was found that of the 8,818 miners 765, or 8.68 per cent, had been employed less than 5 years, 6,476, or 73.44 per cent, had been employed from 5 to 24 years, and 1,577, or 17.88 per cent, had been employed from 25 to 50 years or over; and that of the 1,608 other employees 280, or 17.41 per cent, had been employed less than 5 years, 1,116, or 69.40 per cent, had been employed from 5 to 24 years, and 212, or 13.19 per cent, had been employed from 25 to 50 years or over.

There were 24 employees (13 miners and 11 others) whose ages were reported as 16 years or under, 9,461 employees (7,988 miners and 1,473 others) whose ages were reported as over 16 years but under 50, and 941 employees (817 miners and 124 others) whose ages were reported as 50 years or over.

Returns were received from 7,035 mine employees (6,023 miners and 1,012 others) who owned and rented homes, this being 67.48 per cent of the total employees considered. There were 3,128 employees who owned homes of an average value of \$1,016.60 each. Of this number 2,672 were miners who owned homes of an average value of \$996.27 each, and 456 other employees who owned homes of an average value of \$1,132.45 each. There were 3,907 employees who rented homes at an average yearly rental of \$82.27 each. Of this number 3,351 were miners who rented homes at an average yearly rental of \$81.72 each, and 556 other employees who rented homes at an average yearly rental of \$85.60 each. Homes to the number of 997 were rented from the mining companies, and to the number of 2,910 from individuals. In connection with the homes owned and rented are shown the materials (brick or wood) of which the buildings are constructed, the condition of homes and neighborhood surroundings, and the health of workmen and of families.

Of the 10,426 coal-mine employees, 7,025 were married, 3,382 were single, and 19 were widowed. Of the 8,818 who were miners, 6,006 were married, 2,793 were single, and 19 were widowed; and of the 1,608 other employees, 1,019 were married and 589 were single. There were 3,811 workmen who reported as to their children attending school, and the number of children so reported as attending or having attended school was 7,817—7,197 in public, 90 in private, and 530 in parochial schools. There were 889 other children of other than miners who were reported at work—735 at work about the mines, 145 at other employment, and 9 were learning trades.

MISSOURI.

Twenty-seventh Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and Inspection of the State of Missouri, for the year ending November 5, 1905. William Anderson, Commissioner. 476 pp.

The following are the subjects presented in this report: Surplus products of counties, 75 pages; Government land in Missouri, 5 pages; statistics of manufactures, 218 pages; public utility plants, 18 pages; labor organizations, 95 pages; free employment offices, 8 pages; chronology of Missouri bureau of labor, 10 pages; labor laws, 34 pages.

SURPLUS PRODUCTS.—Under this head are given for each of the 114 counties of the State the surplus products shipped in 1904, together with the values of the same, which aggregated \$240,486,463.

STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES.—Summarized returns covering 3,336 establishments in 64 industrial groups show for 1904 a total invested capital of \$185,515,244, a total value of materials used of \$211,702,438, and a total value of products of \$348,344,052. During the year there were employed 116,964 males and 28,958 females, and there was paid out in wages a total of \$65,724,234. The greatest number of children under 16 years of age employed at any one time during the year was 6,373—4,391 males and 1,982 females.

The following table shows for 1904, for each of the 22 industries in the State, which paid out in wages during the year a total exceeding \$1,000,000, number of establishments, capital invested, value of products, amount paid in wages, and number of employees by sex:

STATISTICS OF 22 MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES, 1904.

Industry.	Estab-lish-ments.	Capital invested.	Value of products.	Wages paid.	Employees.	
					Male.	Female.
Bakeries.....	349	\$2,996,413	\$9,962,070	\$1,965,078	2,729	1,295
Boots and shoes.....	29	4,836,391	21,321,363	4,657,939	7,633	4,313
Brick and tile.....	98	6,343,809	4,902,318	2,298,028	5,726	17
Candy and confectionery.....	36	2,198,902	6,405,267	1,244,146	1,770	2,008
Carriages and wagons.....	172	2,991,126	7,162,954	1,816,736	3,544	116
Car works.....	4	6,505,028	11,762,123	2,501,575	5,058	25
Cigars and tobacco.....	105	3,477,845	18,125,358	2,656,164	2,922	1,670
Clothing.....	112	4,063,630	11,907,304	3,240,342	2,111	8,115
Cooperage.....	62	1,618,507	4,809,630	1,269,327	3,801	9
Drugs and chemicals.....	55	3,718,022	7,099,564	1,183,947	1,181	886
Flour mills.....	296	6,778,365	28,397,008	1,319,898	2,648	43
Foundries and machine shops.....	148	8,800,222	11,345,852	4,309,979	8,165	228
Furniture.....	72	2,871,322	5,936,353	1,944,856	3,968	189
Glass.....	22	2,026,150	2,305,852	1,267,035	2,342	35
Lime and cement.....	16	6,711,011	1,650,806	1,025,723	1,390	7
Liquors, malt.....	41	45,762,919	19,372,375	4,461,128	6,186	434
Lumber, sawed.....	47	3,741,987	3,603,808	1,544,797	5,869	59
Meat packing.....	16	3,554,765	50,917,970	2,269,311	4,781	114
Planing mills.....	80	3,829,775	4,758,047	1,518,620	3,084	33
Printing and binding.....	713	8,458,807	13,947,344	5,605,178	7,332	2,681
Smetters.....	16	9,335,841	9,632,375	1,097,559	2,787	9
Stoves and ranges.....	17	2,684,947	6,883,025	2,116,474	3,379	42

The report contains additional tables, which show for the various industries the number and wages of salaried employees, by sex, and the classified weekly earnings of adult males, adult females, and children under 16 years of age; and by occupations for skilled labor in each industry the number of males and females employed, weekly wages paid, hours of labor per day and per week, and wage changes during 1904.

PUBLIC UTILITY PLANTS.—This presentation shows, for 136 telephone companies, 81 electric light and power plants, 49 waterworks, and 20 gas plants, capital invested, receipts and expenditures, number of employees, wages paid, etc. In 1904 the telephone companies paid \$953,520 in wages to 911 male and 994 female employees, the electric light and power plants \$244,406 in wages to 429 male and 7 female employees, the waterworks \$2,143,158 in wages to 1,271 male and 13 female employees, and the gas plants \$979,360 in wages to 3,319 male and 45 female employees.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.—This part of the report presents statistics for 1904 relative to the 624 labor organizations of the State. The membership of the organizations was 79,630 males and 2,403 females, a total of 82,033, or a decrease over 1903 of 16,069. Of the total adult wage-earners employed in the various trades represented, 80.82 per cent were organized. The average number of hours constituting a day's work in 1904 was 9.21, as compared with 9.33 in 1903, while the average minimum wage per hour in 1904 was 28.69 cents, as compared with 28.39 cents in 1903. During 1904 the average number of days employed was 258. On out-of-work, sick and accident, death, and strike benefits the organizations expended \$319,243. Out-of-work benefits were paid by 40 organizations, sick and accident benefits by 144, death benefits by 334, and strike benefits by 362. The average amount per week paid for sick and accident benefits was \$4.72 and for strike benefits \$5.51. The average amount of each death benefit paid was \$110.11. There were 119 strikes and lockouts during the year, of which 63 were settled satisfactorily to the unions involved. The number of persons involved was 8,988, and the amount expended by the organizations in support of the strikes was \$110,837. Wages aggregating \$250,101 were lost to members through strikes during the year. Increase of wages during the year was reported by 40 organizations, reduction of hours of labor by 18. Appeals for arbitration were made in 60 instances, resulting in the 60 disputes being settled by that method. The unions reported 1,477 accidents during 1904, of which 152 were fatal.

FREE EMPLOYMENT OFFICES.—Returns from the free employment offices, located in St. Louis, Kansas City, and St. Joseph, for the year ending September 30, 1905, show 13,948 applications for positions (12,072 by males and 1,876 by females), 14,204 applications for help

(10,586 for male help and 3,618 for female help), and that 8,400 positions were filled (7,322 by males and 1,078 by females).

LABOR LAWS.—This consists of a compilation of the various laws of the State relating to labor.

NEW YORK.

Sixth Annual Report of the Department of Labor, for the twelve months ended September 30, 1906. Transmitted to the legislature January 2, 1907. P. Tecumseh Sherman, commissioner. Part I, 280 pp.; Part II, 275 pp.; Part III, 487 pp.; Part IV, 894 pp.

Part I consists of the annual report of the commissioner of labor relative to the operation of the department of labor, with recommendations on labor questions; preliminary reports of the bureau of factory inspection, the bureau of mediation and arbitration, and the final report of the free employment bureau in New York City; legislation and decisions of courts on questions affecting the interest of working people, and labor laws in force in the State October 1, 1906; Part II, Twenty-first annual report of the bureau of factory inspection; Part III, Twentieth annual report of the bureau of mediation and arbitration; Part IV, Twenty-fourth annual report of the bureau of labor statistics.

FREE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU.—During the seven months from October 1, 1905, to April 30, 1906, at which time the bureau was abolished, there were 2,790 applicants (1,440 males and 1,350 females) for positions, and 2,255 applications (571 for males and 1,684 for females) for help. The number of situations filled was 1,677, of which 433 were filled by males and 1,244 by females.

Twenty-fourth Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, for the year ending September 30, 1906.

This part embraces the following subjects: economic conditions of labor, 40 pages; trade unions in 1906, 20 pages; sanitary conditions in the printing trade, 84 pages; appendixes containing statistical tables, 830 pages; regulations in use in England for dangerous or unhealthful industries, 50 pages; copies of forms used, 8 pages.

THE STATE OF EMPLOYMENT.—This chapter presents a continuous record, showing the number and percentage of members of labor unions unemployed in 1906, causes of and duration of idleness as reported by the officers of unions representing approximately one-fourth the membership of trade unions in the State, and comparative statistics for preceding years. The smallest number of unions reporting for any month in 1906 was 190 and the largest number was 195, and the work people embraced by these monthly reports varied from 84,539 to 94,571. From the returns it appears that the state of employment was more favorable in 1906 than in either 1902,

1904, or 1905. The percentage of unemployment for those reporting for the five years being as follows: 1902, 14.8; 1903, 17.5; 1904, 16.9; 1905, 11.2, and 1906, 9.3. With the exception of the metals, machinery, and shipbuilding trades and the printing and binding trades, the average percentage of unemployment was lower in 1906 than in any of the four preceding years.

The following table shows the number and percentage of unionists idle at the end of March and September, 1905 and 1906, by causes:

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF MEMBERS OF LABOR UNIONS IDLE AT THE END OF MARCH AND SEPTEMBER, 1905 AND 1906, BY CAUSES.

Cause.	End of March, 1905.		End of September, 1905.		End of March, 1906.		End of September, 1906.	
	Number idle.	Per cent.	Number idle.	Per cent.	Number idle.	Per cent.	Number idle.	Per cent.
Lack of work.....	28,759	52.4	11,525	62.5	16,719	44.9	11,645	54.0
Lack of material.....	1,343	2.4	655	3.6	1,397	3.7	753	3.5
The weather.....	16,005	29.1	739	4.0	10,682	28.7	666	3.1
Labor disputes.....	4,814	8.8	2,463	13.0	4,787	12.9	3,919	18.1
Disability.....	2,942	5.4	2,577	14.0	3,005	8.1	3,127	14.5
Other causes.....	794	1.4	438	2.4	552	1.5	1,216	5.6
Reason not stated.....	259	.5	93	.5	95	.2	247	1.2
Total.....	54,916	100.0	18,430	100.0	37,237	100.0	21,573	100.0

WAGES AND EARNINGS.—Returns received from trade unions for the year 1906 show that an average weekly increase of \$1.91 in wages was obtained by 77,799 males, and that 583 females obtained an average weekly increase of \$1.11, while 397 males suffered an average weekly decrease of \$1.90 in wages.

The following table shows the average earnings for the first and third quarters and for six months, as reported by trade unions in 1906:

NUMBER AND AVERAGE EARNINGS OF ORGANIZED WORKING PEOPLE REPORTING FOR THE FIRST AND THIRD QUARTERS OF 1906, BY SEX AND GROUPS OF INDUSTRIES.

Industry group.	Males.					Females.				
	Number reporting.		Average earnings.			Number reporting.		Average earnings.		
	First quarter.	Third quarter.	First quarter.	Third quarter.	Six months.	First quarter.	Third quarter.	First quarter.	Third quarter.	Six months.
Building, stone working, etc.....	135,676	132,657	\$220.19	\$251.20	\$471.39
Transportation.....	62,832	59,233	209.94	219.09	429.03	120	141	\$127.62	\$143.53	\$271.15
Clothing and textiles	27,489	28,508	161.80	157.54	319.40	6,175	6,124	93.54	84.88	178.42
Metals, machinery, and shipbuilding.....	34,721	35,784	212.36	222.91	435.27	32	29	50.15	43.07	93.22
Printing, binding, etc.	25,645	25,362	251.58	227.34	478.92	1,586	1,338	99.96	104.56	204.52
Wood working and furniture.....	11,803	12,476	194.00	209.43	403.43	55	83	97.91	98.95	196.86
Food and liquors.....	13,564	13,492	184.32	196.14	380.46
Theaters and music.....	10,208	10,336	367.26	294.01	661.27	707	696	433.83	331.16	784.90
Tobacco.....	9,603	9,369	146.96	149.32	296.28	2,680	2,428	132.05	144.89	276.94
Restaurants and retail trade.....	7,122	7,400	175.66	180.65	356.31	304	361	84.79	136.41	221.20
Public employment.....	9,509	9,115	223.74	231.95	455.70	172	114	119.60	152.96	252.55
Stationary engineers	11,448	12,612	229.16	271.42	500.58
Miscellaneous.....	9,471	10,021	185.38	175.18	300.56	33	34	161.22	80.60	181.82
Total.....	369,001	366,365	212.26	225.30	437.62	11,694	11,348	124.22	115.14	242.36

TREND OF WAGES.—Under this title the value of wages relative to their purchasing power is discussed. A table is presented for the year 1897 and the years 1902 to 1906, showing the average daily wages of trade unionists in the several occupations. The average yearly earnings, based on the average daily earnings in connection with the average days of work per year, were \$581 in 1897, and in 1906, \$853, an increase of 47 per cent.

HOURS OF LABOR.—Of over 1,000,000 operatives employed in factories visited during the year, 53.6 per cent were working less than 58 hours per week. In 1901 the percentage of such employees working less than 58 hours per week was 38. Returns from workingmen's associations show that during the year 1906, 18,941 working people had their hours of labor reduced. The number of persons so benefited in 1906 was greater than for 1904 or 1905, but less than in the years 1901 to 1903. No cases of increased hours were reported in 1906. The number affected by increased hours of labor for each of the five preceding years was 319 in 1901, 5,234 in 1902, 342 in 1903, 66 in 1904, and 722 in 1905.

The following table shows, by industries, the reductions in hours of labor per week and the number of organized workers affected:

REDUCTIONS IN WEEKLY HOURS OF LABOR OF MEMBERS OF LABOR ORGANIZATIONS AND MEMBERS AFFECTED, AS REPORTED BY LABOR UNIONS FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1906.

Industry.	Members affected.	Total hours.	Average hours per week.	Members obtaining the eight-hour day.
Building, stone working, etc.....	3,857	17,671	4.6	1,267
Transportation.....	952	11,228	11.8
Clothing and textiles.....	60	300	5.0
Metals, machinery, and shipbuilding.....	1,201	4,885	4.1	30
Printing, binding, etc.....	4,893	27,168	5.6	4,053
Wood working and furniture.....	251	747	2.9
Food and liquors.....	2,400	14,763	6.2
Restaurants and retail trade.....	71	398	5.6
Stationary enginemen.....	3,345	90,165	27.0	3,290
Miscellaneous.....	1,901	17,289	9.1	942
Total.....	18,941	184,614	9.8	10,191

TRADE UNIONS.—On September 30, 1906, there were in the State 2,420 organizations, having a membership of 398,494. This is an increase for the year of 18 unions and 15,258 members.

The following table shows the number of unions, and the number of members, by sex, in each year from 1894 to 1906:

NUMBER OF TRADE UNIONS AND MEMBERSHIP, BY SEX, 1894 TO 1906.

Date.	Number of unions.	Membership.		
		Males.	Females.	Total.
July 1, 1894.....	869	149,709	7,488	157,197
July 1, 1895.....	927	170,129	10,102	180,231
October 31, 1896.....	962	(a)	(a)	170,296
September 30, 1897.....	1,099	162,600	5,764	168,364
September 30, 1898.....	1,087	168,592	7,505	176,097
September 30, 1899.....	1,320	200,952	8,088	209,040
September 30, 1900.....	1,635	233,553	11,828	245,381
September 30, 1901.....	1,871	261,523	14,618	276,141
September 30, 1902.....	2,229	313,592	15,509	329,101
September 30, 1903.....	2,583	380,845	14,753	395,598
September 30, 1904.....	2,504	378,859	12,817	391,676
September 30, 1905.....	2,462	379,971	12,265	392,236
September 30, 1906.....	2,420	386,669	11,625	398,294

^a Not separately reported.

Of the 2,420 unions, with a total membership of 398,494 on September 30, 1906, 678 unions, having a membership of 260,008, were located in New York City. There were 19 unions with a membership of 3,103 composed entirely of women, and in the unions composed of both males and females there were 8,522 female unionists, making a total of 11,625 female members of trade unions, of whom 6,210 were in the clothing and textile industries, 2,429 in the tobacco industries, and 1,341 in the printing and binding industries.

The following table gives the membership of trade unions, by industries, on July 1 for the years 1894 and 1895, October 31, 1896, and September 30, for the years from 1897 to 1906:

MEMBERSHIP OF TRADE UNIONS, BY INDUSTRIES, 1894 TO 1906.

Industry.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.
Building, stone working, etc.....	49,131	53,683	56,363	53,303	59,676	70,031
Clothing and textiles.....	39,162	51,921	30,093	32,147	26,444	29,644
Metals, machinery, and shipbuilding.....	8,309	9,328	11,333	10,124	11,621	17,779
Transportation.....	18,773	19,134	23,469	23,933	19,065	25,961
Printing, binding, etc.....	11,059	11,998	13,948	13,413	15,090	16,051
Tobacco.....	8,722	9,089	9,799	9,097	8,889	8,888
Food and liquors.....	5,340	6,210	7,153	6,621	6,460	7,935
Theaters and music.....	5,688	7,327	7,306	6,920	9,346	9,518
Wood working and furniture.....	5,169	4,477	4,059	3,975	4,468	6,571
Restaurants and retail trade.....	1,564	1,860	2,437	2,217	2,419	3,551
Public employment.....	1,964	1,964	993	1,667	1,890	3,797
Stationary enginemn.....	975	1,105	1,236	2,948	3,788	5,204
Miscellaneous.....	1,341	2,135	2,104	2,080	1,962	4,072
Total.....	157,197	180,231	170,296	168,454	171,067	209,039

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MEMBERSHIP OF TRADE UNIONS, BY INDUSTRIES, 1894 TO 1906—Concluded.

Industry.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Building, stone working, etc.	79,705	84,732	90,817	110,173	119,597	133,698	147,393
Clothing and textiles	28,783	41,843	46,954	40,981	36,090	34,406	35,259
Metals, machinery, and shipbuilding	24,153	25,616	38,291	48,230	36,971	34,163	35,936
Transportation	32,979	37,923	42,824	63,791	72,257	62,871	61,540
Printing, binding, etc.	17,145	18,061	21,170	23,915	25,348	26,192	26,740
Tobacco	12,349	10,210	11,049	12,435	12,354	12,115	11,888
Food and liquors	8,987	8,729	12,528	15,757	15,394	13,603	13,513
Theaters and music	9,698	11,688	11,588	11,674	13,614	13,224	13,439
Wood working and furniture	8,037	8,113	12,247	16,916	12,771	11,179	12,577
Restaurants and retail trade	5,156	6,394	8,810	12,389	12,764	10,307	7,003
Public employment	7,148	8,142	9,160	9,753	9,538	9,346	9,419
Stationary engineers	5,666	7,566	8,111	11,166	12,702	12,037	12,650
Miscellaneous	5,575	7,124	15,642	18,418	12,276	10,095	10,237
Total	245,381	276,141	329,101	395,598	391,676	383,236	398,494

The number and membership of trade unions in New York City and for the State, exclusive of New York City, for the years ending September 30, 1898 to 1906, are shown in the following table:

NUMBER AND MEMBERSHIP OF TRADE UNIONS IN NEW YORK CITY AND OTHER LOCALITIES IN THE STATE, YEARS ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1898 TO 1906.

Year ending September 30—	Number of unions in—			Membership of unions in—		
	New York City.	Other localities.	The State.	New York City.	Other localities.	The State.
1898	440	647	1,087	125,429	45,638	171,067
1899	477	843	1,320	141,687	67,333	209,020
1900	592	1,133	1,635	154,504	90,877	245,381
1901	515	1,356	1,871	174,022	102,119	276,141
1902	579	1,650	2,229	198,055	131,046	329,101
1903	653	1,930	2,583	244,212	151,386	395,598
1904	670	1,834	2,504	254,719	136,957	391,676
1905	667	1,735	2,402	251,277	131,959	383,236
1906	678	1,742	2,420	260,008	138,486	398,494

HEALTH OF PRINTERS.—This section is a study of sanitary conditions in the printing trade, but since it has been incorporated in the article on industrial hygiene it is not necessary to give it extended notice here. Following a discussion of the effect of occupations in general upon the health of the employed are given statistics compiled by the United States Bureau of the Census, which show that the highest mortality among wage-earners results from consumption. The average death rate from this cause in the mechanical and manufacturing trades in 1900 was 2.62. In the printing trades alone the death rate from consumption was 4.35, this rate being exceeded only in the marble and stone cutting trades and in cigar making. It is also shown that of the persons employed in the printing trades who died during the census year from all causes, but 35.1 per cent had attained the age of 45 years, 14.3 per cent of the deaths having occurred under the age of 25.

Visits were made to ten establishments in New York City, including some of the largest, and from the records of the employees' mutual benefit societies data were secured which, taken in connection with the conditions described, bear out the theory that the sickness and mortality among compositors is due in a great degree to the sanitary conditions of their workrooms. Establishment A is described as being very unclean and insanitary. During the five years 1901 to 1905, 8 deaths (or 6.1 per cent of the employees sick) occurred among the membership of its mutual benefit organization, 4 of these being due to tuberculosis. The number of cases of sickness was 14.9 per cent of the average membership. Contrasted with this is establishment B, which was noted as being clean and well ventilated. In this establishment the number of cases of sickness was but 9.7 per cent of the average membership and the number of deaths but 4.3 per cent of the number sick.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Annual Report of the Secretary of Internal Affairs of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. Vol. xxxiv, 1906. Part III, Industrial Statistics. John L. Rockey, Chief of Bureau. pp. 287.

This report, for 1906, embraces data gathered from 3,057 establishments of the State engaged in manufacturing and mining industries, giving a record of the capital invested, value of products, average value of product per employee, days in operation, number of working people (men, women, and minors), aggregate wages paid, average yearly earnings, average daily wages, etc. Data relative to strikes and lockouts are reported for bituminous coal mining and for the coke, iron and steel, tin plate, and a few minor industries. The information gives for the various disputes cause of dispute, number of persons involved, days lost, method of settlement, and result. Data are further presented for the different industries showing the number of establishments making returns and giving statistics pertaining to number of employees owning their homes, average rent paid by those renting, working hours per week, nationality of employees, accidents, causes of time lost, and trade conditions.

The 3,057 establishments considered in this investigation had invested in plants and working capital a total of \$932,842,453, and the market value of production for the year aggregated \$1,630,168,935. The various industries were in operation during the year an average of 287 days and employed a total of 754,986 wage-earners (647,670 men, 75,208 women, and 32,108 minors), to whom were paid in wages the sum of \$371,701,476 to the men, \$23,484,131 to the women, and \$6,955,675 to the minors. The average yearly earnings of all wage-earners was \$535.05 (of the men \$573.91, of the women \$312.25, and

of the minors \$216.63). The average daily wage of all employees was \$1.86. For each employee the average value of product for the year amounted to \$2,159.20.

IRON, STEEL, AND TIN-PLATE PRODUCTION.—The following summary statements show the more important items for the year 1906 relating to the production of pig iron, steel, rolled iron and steel, and tin plate:

PIG IRON.

Capital invested.....	\$132, 255, 799
Gross tons of production.....	11, 244, 292
Realized value.....	\$187, 909, 541
Value of basic material.....	\$92, 507, 500
Average days in operation.....	335
Total adult male employees.....	18, 612
Aggregate wages paid adult male employees.....	\$12, 056, 135
Average yearly earnings of adult male employees.....	\$647. 76
Average daily wages of adult male employees.....	\$1. 93
Cost of labor per ton.....	\$1. 07
Tonnage per man per day.....	1. 8

STEEL.

Gross tons of production:	
Bessemer.....	4, 841, 926
Open-hearth-acid process.....	1, 091, 115
Open-hearth, basic process.....	6, 385, 732
Crucible and other processes.....	93, 634
Total.....	12, 412, 407

ROLLED IRON AND STEEL.

Capital invested.....	\$345, 563, 126
Gross tons of production:	
Muck and scrap bar.....	123, 457
Slabs, blooms, billets, tin-plate and sheet bars, etc.....	3, 022, 950
Rails.....	1, 300, 112
Iron and steel structural shapes.....	1, 676, 279
Cut nails and spikes.....	29, 850
Plates and sheets (a).....	2, 643, 499
Other rolled products.....	4, 605, 951
Total.....	13, 402, 098
Value of product (not including the black-plate works).....	\$473, 883, 481
Total employees (not including those in black-plate works).....	128, 209
Adult male employees (not including those in black-plate works).....	126, 739
Aggregate wages paid all employees.....	\$82, 623, 830
Aggregate wages paid adult male employees.....	\$82, 210, 762
Average days in operation.....	302
Average yearly earnings of all employees.....	\$614. 45
Average yearly earnings of adult male employees.....	\$648. 66

^a Including 345,180 tons of black plate and other sheets made by the black-plate works.

Average daily wages of all employees.....	\$2.11
Average daily wages of adult male employees.....	\$2.15
Average value per ton.....	\$36.29
Cost of labor per ton.....	\$6.33

TIN PLATE (BLACK-PLATE WORKS).

Capital invested (16 plants).....	\$8,391,716
Pounds of production of black plate (tinned, not tinned, and terne).....	684,405,527
Value of production of black plate.....	\$23,722,553
Pounds of production of sheets and plates other than black.....	88,798,954
Value of production of sheets and plates other than black.....	\$2,228,553
Total employees.....	8,685
Adult male employees.....	8,373
Aggregate wages paid all employees.....	\$6,180,265
Aggregate wages paid adult male employees.....	\$6,073,758
Average days in operation.....	274
Average yearly earnings of all employees.....	\$711.60
Average yearly earnings of adult male employees.....	\$725.40
Average daily wages of all employees.....	\$2.60
Average daily wages of adult male employees.....	\$2.65

TIN PLATE (DIPPING WORKS).

Capital invested (4 plants).....	\$1,404,080
Pounds of production of tin and terne plate.....	26,071,835
Value of product.....	\$1,504,672
Total employees.....	220
Male employees.....	187
Aggregate wages paid all employees.....	\$112,594
Aggregate wages paid male employees.....	\$103,080
Average days in operation.....	285
Average yearly earnings of all employees.....	\$511.79
Average yearly earnings of male employees.....	\$551.23
Average daily wages of all employees.....	\$1.80
Average daily wages of male employees.....	\$1.93

Returns from 51 pig-iron companies showed that 672 wage-earners owned their homes, that the average annual rental for those paying rent was \$78, that the average hours the furnaces were in blast were 124 per week, and that of the 10,991 persons for whom nationality was reported 5,269 were Americans. During the year there were 18 fatal and 103 nonfatal accidents in the industry. Returns from 131 iron and steel companies showed that 5,540 wage-earners owned their homes, that the average annual rental for those paying rent was \$135, that the average hours of work per week were 69, and that of the 59,048 employees for whom nationality was reported 28,050 were Americans. In the industry during the year there were 58 fatal and 2,609 nonfatal accidents. Returns from 11 companies in the tin-plate industry showed that 42 wage-earners owned their homes, that the average annual rental for those paying rent was \$209, that the average hours of work per week were 51, and that of the 2,035 employees for whom nationality was reported 1,315 were Americans.

STATISTICS OF COAL MINING.—The following statement presents a summary of the operations of the anthracite and of the bituminous coal mines in the State during 1906, the coke workers not being included:

ANTHRACITE AND BITUMINOUS COAL-MINE OPERATIONS, 1906.

Items.	Anthracite coal.	Bituminous coal.
Number of mines in operation.....	294	1,239
Miners.....	38,108	111,891
Inside workmen.....	70,867	22,837
Outside workmen.....	46,585	15,552
Aggregate wages paid to miners.....	\$24,432,322	\$57,128,964
Aggregate wages paid to inside workmen.....	\$31,518,455	\$15,341,173
Aggregate wages paid to outside workmen.....	\$20,912,223	\$9,729,609
Average days in operation.....	207	208
Average yearly earnings (all employees).....	\$494.11	\$546.98
Average yearly earnings (miners only).....	\$641.13	\$510.58
Average daily wages (all employees).....	\$2.39	\$2.63
Average daily wages (miners only).....	\$3.10	\$2.45
Number of tons mined and marketed.....	53,500,520	128,248,331
Market value of product on board cars.....	\$124,307,472	^a \$4,461,984
Market value of product at mines.....	(^b)	^c \$159,226,444
Average tons mined per miner per year.....	1,404	1,146
Average tons mined per miner per day.....	6.78	5.03

^a Value on board cars of 5,754,408 tons. ^b Not reported. ^c Value at mines of 122,493,923 tons.

In addition to the above coal-mining operations there were 33 plants, employing 1,796 persons, engaged in washing anthracite coal from culm banks at the mines. The plants washed 3,744,194 tons of coal, which had a market value of \$2,929,076. Wages were paid aggregating \$723,484, or an average yearly earning per employee of \$402.83. Also there were 46 plants engaged in dredging coal from the Susquehanna and Schuylkill rivers, giving an average employment of 110 days to 194 men, to whom wages amounting to \$44,642 were paid. There were 86,373 tons of coal raised, having a market value of \$86,327.

Of the 1,239 bituminous coal mines there were 354 from which coal was coked. During the year there were 40,576 coke ovens in service, producing 30,865,481 tons of coke, of a value at plant of \$48,970,714. There were 12,330 coke workers, to whom were paid wages amounting to \$6,936,913, or an average yearly wage of \$562.60.

Returns from 124 anthracite coal companies showed that 4,700 wage-earners owned their homes, that the average annual rental for those paying rent was \$73, that the average hours of work per week were 53, and that of the 91,057 employees for whom nationality was reported 26,905 were Americans. There were reported for the industry 541 fatal and 1,723 nonfatal accidents. Returns from 483 bituminous coal companies (that do not coke coal) showed that 6,942 wage-earners owned their homes, that the average annual rental for those paying rent was \$63, and that of the 67,274 employees for whom nationality was reported 20,939 were Americans. Returns from 66 bituminous coal companies (that coke coal) showed

that 2,356 wage-earners owned their homes, that the average annual rental for those paying rent was \$73, that the average hours of work per week were 54, and that of the 34,132 employees for whom nationality was reported 5,664 were Americans. During the year for the bituminous coal industry there were reported 303 fatal and 700 nonfatal accidents.

TEXTILE INDUSTRIES.—Returns made in 1906 by 668 establishments engaged in the textile industries in Philadelphia showed an invested capital of \$73,362,158, and for the year a product of the market value of \$128,058,603. The establishments were in operation during the year an average of 292 days, employing 66,377 wage-earners (28,041 men, 32,783 women, and 5,553 children), to whom were paid wages amounting to \$29,363,863 (\$16,346,080 to the men, \$11,901,033 to the women, and \$1,116,750 to the children). The average yearly earnings per employee in the industry were \$442.38—the average for the men being \$582.93, for the women \$363.02, and for the children \$201.11; the average daily wages per employee were \$1.52—the average for the men being \$2.00, for the women \$1.24, and for the children \$0.69. The average value of product per employee was \$1,929.26.

VIRGINIA.

Tenth Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics for the State of Virginia. 1907. James B. Doherty, Commissioner. 332 pp.

The subjects presented in this report are industrial statistics, 226 pages; child labor, 91 pages, and labor organizations, 6 pages.

INDUSTRIAL STATISTICS.—A series of tables is given for 41 industries, showing for each industry for 1906 the number of establishments reporting for the year, the value of product, capital invested, amount paid for wages, rent, taxes, and insurance, number of wage-earners by sex and occupation with average daily pay, number and average monthly pay of persons employed on salary, number of hours of work per day and days in operation for each establishment, wage changes, and also totals and averages for each industry. For each industry comparisons with 1905 are presented. Statistics are also given of coal mining, of the operations of 7 gas works, of average daily wages of employees of 40 steam and 22 electric railways, and of accidents on steam and electric roads.

The following table shows for 1905 and 1906, for each of the 21 industries in the State which reported an output in 1906 exceeding \$1,000,000, the number of establishments reporting, capital invested, value of product, and aggregate wages paid:

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CAPITAL INVESTED, VALUE OF PRODUCT, AND WAGES PAID IN 21 INDUSTRIES, 1905 AND 1906.

Industry.	Estab-lishments.		Capital invested.		Value of product.		Wages paid.	
	1905.	1906.	1905.	1906.	1905.	1906.	1905.	1906.
Boots and shoes.....	5	6	\$583,000	\$417,000	\$1,520,277	\$1,899,574	\$263,301	\$302,976
Breweries.....	7	7	2,419,337	2,667,344	1,346,956	1,522,183	168,798	196,072
Brick and tile.....	56	53	(a)	(a)	1,347,568	1,402,414	(a)	(a)
Carriages, wagons, and buggies.....	29	35	653,053	992,339	1,504,505	1,565,260	270,652	310,652
Cigars, cigarettes, and che-roots.....	42	46	967,255	1,206,935	5,527,000	7,445,337	1,022,217	1,265,645
Cotton mills.....	9	9	7,382,580	8,211,329	4,792,511	5,852,039	974,588	1,091,587
Flour and grist mills.....	205	197	2,490,338	3,043,826	8,863,711	9,201,414	251,944	304,829
Iron and machine works.....	48	53	10,799,477	12,129,844	16,714,126	16,869,066	5,644,508	5,492,905
Knitting mills.....	12	11	362,061	296,233	2,359,965	2,050,275	449,000	432,024
Lime and cement.....	16	15	1,334,784	1,249,223	1,210,718	1,308,500	377,138	386,581
Overalls and shirts.....	14	15	239,677	347,341	946,000	1,322,517	170,155	221,407
Paper and pulp mills.....	9	9	2,998,306	3,174,256	3,310,594	3,356,595	430,225	448,040
Printing, engraving, and bookbinding.....	81	80	1,217,094	1,294,347	1,834,025	2,102,821	541,167	595,288
Sash, doors, and blinds.....	22	24	608,835	880,970	1,311,083	1,923,568	279,884	326,578
Sawmills.....	323	357	(a)	(a)	6,672,903	10,815,839	2,067,407	3,202,763
Silk mills.....	4	4	736,811	750,923	2,095,661	1,913,000	210,209	182,919
Staves, heads, and cooper- age.....	56	52	711,722	850,374	1,121,925	1,088,419	334,253	276,611
Tanneries.....	22	22	2,679,901	2,451,160	5,334,423	6,398,064	387,182	443,450
Tobacco factories.....	30	32	2,212,282	2,561,011	7,226,295	10,133,237	774,176	1,059,368
Trunks and bags.....	6	7	908,205	1,089,220	1,828,810	2,179,226	222,990	475,150
Woodenware, baskets, boxes, and shooks.....	19	24	1,660,760	1,845,476	3,388,251	4,200,108	727,157	807,844

(a) Not reported.

In 1906 there were 229 general contracting firms in the building trades, which reported the value of the work constructed during the year as amounting to \$7,852,000, and 108 firms of plumbers, gas fitters, and tanners, which reported the value of work done during the year as amounting to \$1,525,410.

The statistics for the 7 gas works show ownership (private or municipal), capacity, private and municipal consumption, price to consumers, etc., and number and daily wages of employees.

The reports on steam and on electric railways operating in the State show for 1906 the average daily wages paid by each road in each occupation and the average daily wages paid by all roads. The following is a summary of the data presented:

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF STEAM AND OF ELECTRIC RAILWAY EMPLOYEES, 1906, AND INCREASE IN WAGES OVER 1905.

Steam railroad employees.	Average daily wages.	Increase over 1905.	Electric railway employees.	Average daily wages.	Increase over 1905.
General office clerks.....	\$2.00	\$0.08	General office clerks.....	\$1.54	° \$0.12
Station agents.....	1.72	.05	Conductors.....	1.66	.28
Other station men.....	1.36	.03	Drivers.....	1.25	.17
Engineers.....	4.39	.02	Motormen.....	1.63	.17
Firemen.....	2.30	.08	Starters.....	1.95	.13
Conductors.....	3.16	.04	Watchmen.....	1.34	.11
Other train men.....	1.78	.05	Switchmen.....	1.22	° .35
Machinists.....	2.72	.05	Road men.....	1.35	.36
Carpenters.....	2.12	.17	Hostlers.....	1.26	.13
Other shopmen.....	1.74	.02	Linemen.....	2.00	.36
Section foremen.....	1.72	.08	Engineers.....	2.15	° .02
Other trackmen.....	1.18	.03	Firemen.....	1.44	.04
Switchmen, flagmen, and watchmen.....	1.54	.18	Electricians.....	2.51	.54
Telegraph operators and dis- patchers.....	2.00	.08	Machinists and mechanics... .	2.04	.36
Employees, floating equip- ment.....	1.46	(b)	Other employees.....	1.29	.08
Other employees.....	1.46	.00			

° Decrease.

(b) No change.

On the steam railroads in Virginia during 1906 there resulted from the movement of trains the accidental killing of 81 employees, 15 passengers, and 119 others, and the injury of 774 employees, 151 passengers, and 212 others; from causes other than the movement of trains there resulted the accidental killing of 3 employees and 1 other person, and the injury of 917 employees and 4 passengers.

In 1906 from 42 mines employing 5,131 persons there were produced 4,254,879 tons of coal, valued at \$4,183,991, the mines being in operation an average of 250 days during the year. In 31 mines working 4,294 men the hours of labor were 10 per day, in 5 mines working 727 men the hours of labor were 9 per day, and in the remaining 6 mines (small ones) the hours of labor were 8 per day.

CHILD LABOR.—Under this caption is presented the report of the special agent of the State labor bureau on inspection of factories and investigations touching child labor, and a compilation of the laws of the various States relating to the employment of children.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.—This section of the report consists of returns from the various labor organizations of the State, together with recommendations as to legislation and comments on existing conditions. In 29 trades, unions reported an increase of wages during the year, and a decrease in working hours in 10 of the trades. The number of members unemployed during the year amounted to scarcely 1 per cent.

RECENT FOREIGN STATISTICAL PUBLICATIONS.

CANADA.

Report of the Department of Labor of the Dominion of Canada for the year ended June 30, 1906. 127 pp.

The first of the fourteen sections which comprise this report consists of a general review of the material published during the year in the various issues of the Labor Gazette, a monthly devoted to industrial and labor conditions throughout Canada and printed in both English and French.

From a statement relative to the labor-organization movement in Canada, it appears that in 1903 there were 276 unions formed and 54 dissolved, in 1904 there were 152 unions formed and 104 dissolved, and in 1905 there were 103 unions formed and 101 dissolved. In 1905 in the several provinces of the Dominion there were 220 employers' associations.

The section of the report devoted to conciliation and arbitration shows that the intervention of the department of labor, under the Conciliation Act of 1900, was requested in the settlement of labor disputes involving 974 working people on 5 occasions during the year 1905-6, and that since the passage of the act in July, 1900, intervention has been requested on 39 occasions.

During the year the "fair-wages" officers of the department prepared fair-wages schedules for insertion in 147 separate contracts, which were awarded, or were about to be awarded, during the year. Of this number, 41 were in connection with public buildings or works being executed under contract for the department of public works, 95 in connection with contracts or subsidy agreements entered into with the department of railways and canals, 8 for contracts awarded by the department of marine and fisheries, and 3 for insertion in contracts awarded by the commissioners of the Transcontinental Railway. In every case the rates of wages fixed in the fair-wages schedules were based upon what were considered fair rates in the localities in which the work was to be undertaken. Since the establishment of the department of labor, in 1900, the fair-wages officers have prepared some 785 fair-wages schedules for public contract work.

The Annual Report of the Department of Labor for the year ended June 30, 1905, made the following statement in regard to the Railway Labor Disputes Act, which was passed on July 12, 1903:

It was believed that the measure, providing, as it did, the machinery whereby a public inquiry might be made under oath as to the causes underlying any difference between a railway company and

any of its employees, with a view to bringing about an adjustment of these differences, the mere existence of the measure would of itself be a means of averting strikes and lockouts on the railways of the Dominion. That the expectation of Parliament in this regard has been thus far realized is well evidenced from the fact that since the passing of the act (now two years ago) there has not been a single strike on any of the railroads of the Dominion of such a nature as to seriously affect transportation.

The present report states that the experience of the past year (1905-6) has only helped to confirm the view expressed in the above statement as to the probable effect of the passing of the Railway Labor Disputes Act, and that the assertion still remains true that since the passing of the act there has not been a single strike on any of the railroads of the Dominion of such a nature as to seriously affect transportation. During the year 1904-5 there was occasion to apply the provisions of the act to a threatened strike of telegraphers on the Grand Trunk Railway, and in that case the act proved effective as a means of preventing the threatened strike.

In the construction of the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway, an industrial undertaking in which the government of Canada is concerned, it became essential in the interests of labor that adequate provision should be made in the acts of Parliament applicable to this particular undertaking, for the protection of the thousands of workmen likely to be employed for six or seven years in connection with the work. As a consequence measures were enacted which require that in the contracts awarded in connection with the construction of this work provision shall be made for the payment of fair wages to the workmen (such wages as are paid for similar labor in the district in which the work is being performed); that there shall be proper medical and sanitary supervision of construction camps; that the sale or improper use of intoxicating liquors about the work shall be forbidden; that there shall be prompt and full payment of all wage claims, etc., and that the contractors shall, as far as possible, use only materials, supplies, etc., manufactured or produced in Canada.

During the fiscal year 1905-6 there were 130 labor disputes in Canada, which involved 13,363 working people directly and 5,150 working people indirectly. The loss of time amounted approximately to 343,800 working days. The disputes affected 501 establishments directly and 36 indirectly. The principal causes of disputes were demands for increase in wages and against the employment of particular persons. Of the 116 disputes which were terminated during the fiscal year, 55 were settled by negotiations between the parties concerned, 27 by the employment of other work people in the places of the strikers, 19 by the resumption of work without negotiations, 5 by conciliation, and the remainder by other methods. There were 48 strikes which resulted in favor of the employers, 37 in favor of the employees, 18 were compromised, 2 were partly success-

ful for the strikers, and the results of the remaining strikes were indefinite or unknown. During the years 1901 to 1905 there were 577 trade disputes in Canada—104 in 1901, 123 in 1902, 160 in 1903, 103 in 1904, and 87 in 1905. Out of the total disputes during the period, the causes of 238 of them related to wages and hours of labor; 283 disputes were settled by negotiations between the parties concerned, and 54 by conciliation or arbitration; 194 disputes resulted in favor of employers, 175 in favor of employees, and 143 were settled by compromise.

There were in Canada during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1906, 1,071 fatal and 2,758 nonfatal industrial accidents. Of fatal accidents the greatest number (219) was in the railway service, and of nonfatal accidents the greatest number (549) was in the metal trades. Mining had 100 fatal and 151 nonfatal accidents, while in lumbering there were 103 fatal and 186 nonfatal accidents.

Accounts are given in two sections of the report of the action of the department of labor in reference to false representations to induce or deter immigration to the Dominion and of the administration of the alien labor laws.

Report of the Royal Commission on a Dispute Respecting Hours of Employment between the Bell Telephone Company of Canada, Ltd., and Operators at Toronto, Ontario. 1907. (Issued by the Department of Labor.) x, 102 pp.

This volume comprises the report of a commission appointed on February 2, 1907, to make inquiry into a dispute between the Bell Telephone Company of Canada and the operators employed in its offices at Toronto, with respect to wages and hours of employment and all matters affecting the merits of the said dispute and the right settlement thereof.

The commission in its inquiry into the causes, nature, and incidents of the strike examined 70 witnesses, and from the evidence obtained and from documents and correspondence submitted were made fully acquainted with the material facts and circumstances relevant to the controversy under consideration.

The cause of the strike of the operators, which commenced on January 31, 1907, was the decision of the telephone company, reached during the month of January, to enforce a new schedule of wages and hours whereby the hours of work were to be increased from 5 to 8 per day, and the manner in which this decision was made known to those whom it concerned.

At a meeting of the strikers, numbering over 400, held on the evening of February 1, a resolution was passed in which the operators requested the minister of labor "to cause a public inquiry to be made under oath into all matters in dispute between them and the said

company, agreeing, that in case said inquiry is ordered, to return to the company's employ in order to prevent inconvenience to the public and a general disorganization of business, and to be bound by the finding of said board in all matters between themselves and the said company."

The intention of the Government to have inquiry made into the grievances of the operators, and the appointment of the commission having been announced, the operators, in accordance with the terms of the resolution they had passed, presented themselves for reemployment at the offices of the company on the morning of February 4. A large number were immediately taken on, and the strike, to all intents and purposes, was at an end.

The line of the commission's inquiry embraced the remuneration of work and cost of living, duration and intensity of work, methods of work and elements of nervous strain, opinions of leading physicians, etc.

Before the strike the operators were kept continuously at work at high pressure five hours per day. On January 24 a notice was posted in each of the several exchanges that from and after February 1 the operators would be expected to work eight hours each day, although at a slight increase in salary, but there was no assurance given that there would be any lessening of the pressure under which they would be obliged to work during the hours of employment. Against the proposed change the operators struck.

In the arrangement as finally come to before the commission, the total number of working hours was fixed at 7, spread over a period of 9 hours, divided as follows: 2 hours work, $\frac{1}{2}$ hour relief, $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours work, 1 hour intermission, 2 hours work, $\frac{1}{2}$ hour relief, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours work; and, further, the work would be at such a pressure as would be moderate and not too great a tax upon the strength of the operators.

The commission also recommended the strict prohibition of overtime, the granting of a weekly half holiday as in other occupations, the prohibition of 7 days' continuous work (after working 6 days, before entering upon a subsequent day's work, there should be a break of at least 24 hours), the prohibition of young women from entering this class of employment until they have completed their eighteenth year, the examination of operators as to their health (especially as to their nervous system, throat, lungs, sight, hearing, and tendency toward tuberculosis), before being accepted by the company, and the adoption of various measures and devices for the additional comfort and health of the operators.

In conclusion the commission says:

In our opinion many of the difficulties inevitable to the successful operation of a large telephone exchange might be overcome and harmonious relations between the company and its employees promoted were a permanent board of conciliation established, com-

posed of representatives of the officials of the company and its operators, to which board questions concerning arrangement of hours, reliefs, overtime, discipline, and the like might be referred at stated intervals, an appeal to be had to the head officers of the company where matters in dispute might fail of successful settlement before the board.

GERMANY.

Reiseberichte über Nordamerika erstattet von Kommissaren des Königlich Preussischen Ministers für Handel und Gewerbe. 1906. 490 pp.

This volume is an account of the results of an investigation made in the year 1904 by a commission sent out by the Prussian ministry of commerce and industry to study the conditions of trade and technical education in the United States. The particular occasion of the undertaking at the time chosen was the opportunity afforded of prosecuting such an investigation in connection with the exhibits made at the international exposition of that year, at St. Louis, though the study was not confined to those exhibits.

The volume consists of a series of reports by various members of the commission covering different phases of the question. The first part is taken up by a somewhat general discussion of (a) the intermediate schools in their relation to commerce and industry; (b) the public schools and the training of teachers; (c) the training of industrial workers. Then follow accounts of the observations made with reference to education in industrial art and drafting, as this was shown in the patterns and products exhibited at St. Louis, the construction of machinery and the working of metals, shipbuilding, the textile industries, and ceramics, and an appendix containing a general discussion of a variety of economic and industrial questions. An article on the production of small tools and machinery of iron and steel is illustrated by 15 full-page plates.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Accidents that have Occurred on the Railways of the United Kingdom during the year 1905. Report to the Secretary to the Board of Trade. 78 pp.

This volume presents a general report on the accidents that have occurred in the working of the railways of the United Kingdom during the year 1905. The accidents are grouped under three main heads, as follows: (1) Train accidents, as collisions, derailments, etc.; (2) accidents caused by the movement of trains and railway vehicles, exclusive of train accidents, and (3) accidents on railway premises not due to train accidents or to the movement of trains and railway vehicles. They are further subdivided in each of the three groups according as they relate to passengers, employees, and other persons.

The following table summarizes the returns, showing by class of accident the number of accidents, fatal and nonfatal, relating to each class of persons:

RAILWAY ACCIDENTS DURING 1905, BY CLASS OF ACCIDENT.

Class of accident.	Passengers.		Employees.		Other persons.	
	Killed.	Injured.	Killed.	Injured.	Killed.	Injured.
Train accidents (as collisions, derailments, etc.).....	39	396	6	112	1	8
Accidents caused by the movement of trains and railway vehicles, exclusive of train accidents.....	109	1,972	393	3,688	551	281
Accidents on railway premises not due to train accidents or to the movement of trains and railway vehicles.....	18	782	38	10,535	25	460

From the above it will be seen that during the year 1,099 persons (148 passengers, 399 employees, and 552 others) were killed and 6,459 persons (2,368 passengers, 3,800 employees, and 291 others) were injured by accidents due to the running of trains or the movement of railway vehicles. The figures for the previous year (1904) were 1,073 persons killed and 6,889 injured, while the average for the previous nine years was 1,149 persons killed and 6,651 injured.

The 39 passenger fatalities in train accidents during 1905 were largely due to two disasters, in one of which 21 passengers were killed and in the other 10. For the year (exclusive of holders of season tickets) there was 1 passenger killed in each 30,744,156 carried and 1 injured in each 3,027,834 carried. In 1904 (exclusive of holders of season tickets) there was 1 passenger killed in each 199,758,000 carried and 1 injured in each 2,244,472 carried. The number of passengers and other persons (exclusive of railway employees) killed in train accidents in 1905 was 40, as compared with an average of 23 for the previous thirty-one years, while the number injured in 1905 was 404, as compared with an average of 730 for the previous thirty-one years.

Of railway employees (engineers, firemen, guards, and brakemen) in train accidents in 1905, there was 1 killed in each 14,201 employed and 1 injured in each 755 employed. In the thirty-one years previous to 1905 the yearly average of railway employees killed was 14 and the yearly average injured 136.

The number of passengers killed in 1905 in accidents connected with the movement of trains and railway vehicles (exclusive of train accidents) was 109 and the number injured 1,972. In the 25 years previous to 1905 the yearly average of passengers killed was 106, and in the 9 years previous to 1905 the yearly average of passengers injured was 1,589. Excluding season tickets, taking the number of journeys into account, it was found that in 1905 there was 1 passenger killed in every 11,000,202 journeys and 1 injured in every 608,023 journeys, as compared with 1 killed in every 8,394,206

journeys, and 1 injured in every 704,657 journeys, on an average, in the previous periods of 25 and 9 years.

Not including contractors' employees, in this second class of railway accidents in 1905 there were 381 railway employees killed and 3,661 injured. The yearly average of railway employees killed in the previous 25 years was 460, and the yearly average injured in the previous 9 years was 3,964. The accidents to persons other than passengers and railway employees who were killed or injured in 1905 were incurred, with few exceptions, either deliberately or through carelessness.

Accidents on railway premises not due to train accidents or to the movement of trains and railway vehicles resulted in the death of 18 passengers, 38 employees, and 25 other persons, and injury to 782 passengers, 10,535 employees, and 460 other persons. These accidents, with few exceptions, were not attributable to railway operation and should not properly be classed as railway accidents.

During 1905, through coming in contact with electric "live" rails, there were 14 accidents to railway employees (1 fatal and 13 non-fatal) and 6 to trespassers (1 fatal and 5 nonfatal).

The total length of the railways of the United Kingdom at the end of 1905 was 22,847 miles; the total track mileage (single track) was 38,431 without sidings and 52,322 with sidings.

Illustrations of Methods of Dust Extraction in Factories and Workshops. Report to the Secretary of State for the Home Department. 1906. 93 pp.

In the United Kingdom during the last decade great improvements have been made, either by voluntary effort or by statutory obligation, in the hygienic conditions of many industrial occupations, more particularly in trades in which injurious dust or fumes are generated.

The present report, by the chief inspector of factories, consists of 58 plates of sketches and plans with descriptive text, collected from various sources, showing methods of extracting dust in different processes in flax, hemp, jute, and tow manufactures, wool-sorting and wool-combing works, metal grinding and polishing, bronzing, etc.; also various systems for humidifying workrooms.

Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops, for the Year 1906. Report to the Secretary of State for the Home Department. xvii, 379 pp.

At the end of 1906 there were upon the registers of the factory department 106,337 factories, 6,940 laundries (with and without power), and 141,912 workshops (other than men's workshops), or a total of 255,189 establishments, an increase over 1905 of 3,377 establishments. The works under inspection during 1906 did not include

docks, warehouses, buildings, etc., or (in general) domestic workshops. The number of persons employed in factories was (approximately) 4,150,000, in workshops (excluding men's workshops) 700,000, and in laundries, 100,000.

For purposes of inspection the United Kingdom is divided into five inspection districts, each under a superintending inspector, as follows: Southern division, midland division, northeastern division, northwestern division, and the Scotland and Ireland division. The report of each supervising inspector comprises for his district an account of the organization of the working staff and the scope of the work of inspection; complaints from officials, operatives, and others respecting sanitation, safety measures, hours of labor, illegal employment, etc.; industrial developments and state of trade in the district; sanitary conditions and improvements; industrial accidents; safety devices, their efficiency and defects, etc.; industrial poisoning (anthrax, arsenic, mercury, and lead poisoning, etc.); dangerous trades; employment and hours of labor, especially relating to children and women; to holidays, overtime, half time, night work, and meal times; the employment of children as half-timers and of those not exempt from school; action of the local sanitary authorities in connection with the factory department; administration of the law relating to particulars for piecework; operation of the truck acts; prosecutions for violations of the factory laws; inquest notices, etc. In addition, there are reports from the superintending inspector for dangerous trades, the principal lady inspector, the inspector of textile particulars, the electrical inspector, and the medical inspector. Tables presenting in detail and in summary form statistics pertaining to the various features of factory and workshop employment accompany the inspection reports.

The establishments added to the registers of the factory department during 1906 numbered 27,144 (417 textile and 7,405 nontextile factories, 372 laundries with power and 513 without power, and 18,437 workshops, other than men's workshops), while those of the different classes removed from the registers numbered 23,767, resulting in a net gain in the establishments added of 1.3 per cent.

The number of persons (children, young persons, and adults) employed in textile factories during 1904, together with comparative total figures for 1901, are given in the following table:

PERSONS EMPLOYED IN TEXTILE FACTORIES IN 1904 AND IN 1901.

Class of employees.	Number employed.		Total for United Kingdom.	Percentage of whole number employed.	
	Males.	Females.		Males.	Females.
Children (half-timers under 14)	14,568	17,178	31,744	1.4	1.7
Young persons (full-timers under 18).....	70,965	137,638	208,603	6.9	13.3
Adults.....	797,392	489,329	786,721	29.0	47.7
Total for 1904.....	882,925	644,145	1,527,070	37.3	62.7
Total for 1901.....	379,211	650,142	1,029,353	26.8	63.2

Of the total 1,026,378 persons employed in 1904 in the textile factories of the United Kingdom, 822,451 were employed in England and Wales, 133,035 in Scotland, and 70,892 in Ireland; of the total 1,029,353 employed in 1901 in the textile factories, 821,267 were employed in England and Wales, 137,948 in Scotland, and 70,138 in Ireland.

In the table following, the number of persons (children, young persons, and adults) employed in textile factories in 1904 is shown by kind of textile manufactured:

PERSONS EMPLOYED IN TEXTILE FACTORIES IN 1904, BY KIND OF TEXTILE MANUFACTURED.

Kind of textile manufactured.	Children (half-timers under 14).		Young persons (full-timers under 18).		Adults.		Total for United Kingdom.
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
Cotton.....	8,131	9,520	37,338	71,975	150,962	245,114	523,029
Wool, worsted, and shoddy....	4,239	4,382	19,014	32,238	85,754	116,183	201,801
Silk.....	205	489	1,484	4,747	6,902	16,093	29,511
Lace.....	45	31	1,536	2,074	9,498	5,404	18,568
Hosiery.....	14	49	1,200	6,724	7,894	20,446	28,230
Flax.....	1,550	2,243	6,038	12,353	29,649	33,026	68,979
Hemp.....	37	34	1,210	1,311	2,730	5,599	10,914
Jute.....	328	465	2,811	4,419	9,639	23,868	41,239
Horsehair, elastic, etc.....	18	2	525	1,197	3,253	3,749	8,744
Total.....	14,568	17,176	70,865	137,038	297,302	489,329	1,026,378

The table following shows the number of children and young persons examined during 1906 for certificates of fitness for employment in factories, together with the number of those who were certified by the examining surgeons and the number of those who were rejected. The children and young persons are grouped in three classes—children under 14 years of age intended to be employed half time, young persons between the ages of 13 and 14 years intended to be employed full time, and young persons between 14 and 16 years of age to be employed full time.

MEDICAL EXAMINATIONS OF CHILDREN AND YOUNG PERSONS, 1906.

Class of persons.	Total examined.	Certified.			Rejected.		
		Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Children under 14.....	42,613	20,799	21,259	42,049	234	300	564
Young persons between 13 and 14....	80,579	40,621	38,027	78,158	948	613	1,421
Young persons between 14 and 16....	267,677	139,723	124,486	264,208	1,563	1,885	3,469
Total for United Kingdom.....	390,869	201,143	184,772	385,415	2,405	1,800	5,454

During the year there were also 181,497 medical examinations under regulations and special rules—131,293 of males and 50,204 of females. Under the Factory and Workshop Act power is likewise conferred on certifying surgeons to attach conditions of employment to certificates of fitness. This power was exercised with advantage in some 800 instances.

During 1906 there were 111,904 industrial accidents reported, 76,208 being reported to inspectors only, and 35,696 to certifying surgeons. Those reported to inspectors only were nonfatal in result and of a minor character. In the table following the accidents reported to certifying surgeons are shown by degree of injury (fatal and nonfatal) and by sex and age:

ACCIDENTS REPORTED TO CERTIFYING SURGEONS, 1906.

Sex and age of persons injured.	Fatal accidents.	Increase over 1905.	Nonfatal accidents.	Increase over 1905.	Total accidents.	Increase over 1905.
Males.....	1,008	62	30,381	3,239	31,479	3,301
Females.....	18	a 9	4,199	402	4,217	363
Total.....	1,116	53	34,580	3,641	35,696	3,664
Adults (over 18).....	1,011	57	27,313	3,279	28,324	3,336
Young persons (13 to 18).....	104	a 3	7,116	341	7,220	338
Children (12 to 14).....	1	a 1	151	21	152	20

a Decrease.

In the textile industries there were 5,172 accidents (68 fatal and 5,104 nonfatal), in the nontextile industries 27,730 accidents (731 fatal and 26,999 nonfatal), and in other lines of industry (docks, warehouses, building construction, etc.) 2,794 accidents (317 fatal and 2,477 nonfatal). In the textile industries the greatest number of accidents was in cotton spinning and weaving, with 37 fatal and 2,958 nonfatal accidents, followed by wool, worsted, and shoddy, with 15 fatal and 1,202 nonfatal accidents; in the nontextile industries the greatest number of accidents was in shipbuilding, machines and machinery, and the metal trades, with 424 fatal and 16,920 nonfatal accidents.

The cases of industrial poisoning reported in 1906 numbered 708, of which 55 resulted fatally. Of the total, 678 were cases affecting adults (of which 52 were fatal) and 30 were cases affecting young persons and children (of which 3 were fatal). There were 632 cases of lead poisoning (of which 33 were fatal), 4 cases of mercury poisoning, 5 cases of arsenic poisoning, and 67 cases of anthrax (of which 22 were fatal).

The report of the superintending inspector for dangerous trades shows that during 1906 there were in the United Kingdom, where particular dangers arise and special precautions are necessary, 15,466 industrial establishments operating under special rules and regulations.

Generally, the employment of children as half-timers is becoming less frequent, though in certain towns the numbers have increased, chiefly owing to the raising of the age at which full-time employment is allowed by the local authorities.

Safeguards for the Prevention of Accidents in the Manufacture of Cotton.

Report to the Secretary of State for the Home Department. 1906.
22 pp. and 28 plates.

The present report on the prevention of accidents in the spinning and weaving of cotton is based upon the requirements of the Factory Act of 1901, and upon the results disclosed by the statistics of accidents which have been compiled annually since the publication of a similar report in 1899. The report is made by the superintending inspector of factories for the northwestern division, which embraces over 80 per cent of the cotton industry throughout the United Kingdom.

There are set forth in the report the regulations of the Factory Act of 1901 pertaining to the fencing of dangerous machinery, to steam boilers, to self-acting machines, to cleaning machinery in motion, to fire escapes and doors, to dangerous ways, etc.; also general recommendations are added as to the safeguarding of machinery and to hoists and doors. Descriptions of the machines used in the various processes of spinning and weaving cotton are given, together with descriptions of the requisite guards that should be provided for their safe operation. Accompanying the text are 28 plates showing guards for machinery which, in almost every instance, are now in actual use in cotton manufacture.

In the northwestern division during the years 1900 to 1905 there were 13,633 cotton-machinery accidents—2,389 in 1900, 2,442 in 1901, 2,394 in 1902, 2,098 in 1903, 1,960 in 1904, and 2,350 in 1905. The machines in connection with the operation of which the greatest number of accidents occurred were carding engines (with 1,334 accidents), speed frames (with 1,588 accidents), self-acting mules (with 4,183 accidents), and looms (with 2,818 accidents).

NEW SOUTH WALES.

Tenth Annual Report of the Department of Labor and Industry, for the year ended December 31, 1906. iv, 50 pp.

This annual return, made to the minister of public instruction and labor and industry, consists of a report on the working of the Factories and Shops Act, Early Closing Acts, Shearers' Accommodation Act, etc., during the year 1906.

For purposes of inspection of factories and shops the State is divided into four districts—the Metropolitan, Newcastle, Broken Hill, and Hartley. At the close of 1906 there were on the registers of the department 3,419 factories in the four districts, employing a total of 61,321 working people (42,179 males and 19,142 females). The factories are grouped under 19 industrial classes, showing for each class number of working people employed, of power (steam, gas, or electricity) used, etc.

The table following shows by sex and age periods the number of working people employed in the registered factories of each district during 1906, together with the number of factories located in each district:

NUMBER OF WORKING PEOPLE EMPLOYED IN REGISTERED FACTORIES DURING 1906, BY SEX AND AGE PERIODS.

Inspection district.	Registered factories.	Employees under 16 years of age.		Employees 16 to 18 years of age.		Employees over 18 years of age.		Total employees.
		Males.	Fe-males.	Males.	Fe-males.	Males.	Fe-males.	
Metropolitan.....	2,700	2,017	1,891	4,040	3,704	30,143	11,966	53,791
Newcastle.....	483	256	236	426	300	3,060	675	5,043
Broken Hill.....	83	42	29	42	44	492	149	798
Hartley.....	63	61	12	84	14	1,486	32	1,680
Total.....	3,419	2,376	2,168	4,592	4,122	35,211	12,832	61,321

In the table below is shown the number of registered factories in the four districts and the number of working people (males and females) employed in the factories for the period 1901 to 1906:

NUMBER OF REGISTERED FACTORIES AND WORKING PEOPLE EMPLOYED FOR THE PERIOD 1901 TO 1906.

Year.	Registered factories.	Working people employed.		
		Males.	Females.	Total.
1901.....	2,595	34,651	12,008	46,659
1902.....	2,800	34,479	13,425	47,904
1903.....	2,907	34,198	14,660	48,858
1904.....	3,186	35,602	16,088	51,690
1905.....	3,277	38,623	17,082	55,705
1906.....	3,419	42,179	19,142	61,321

During 1906 there were issued to children (persons under the age of 14 years) 2,775 certificates of fitness and permits to work in factories (2,033 to males and 742 to females); special permits, granting exemption from attending day school in order to work in factories, were issued to 315 children (232 to males and 83 to females).

The number of accidents in factories reported for the year was 276, of which but 1 was fatal. While the necessity for the strictest supervision over the fencing and guarding of machinery still exists, the majority of factory proprietors are reasonable in complying with orders in this respect.

From the reports of the inspectors under the Early Closing Acts it is believed that a large majority of shopkeepers now willingly comply with the provisions of the acts; but some trouble is still experienced with the second-hand dealers and shopkeepers who carry the stock in trade of both a schedule and a nonschedule shop.

The requirements of the Shearers' Accommodation Act have, at most stations, been complied with by station owners and managers in a reasonable manner, and, although some complaints have been made, there is no doubt that the accommodation throughout

the State is in a much more satisfactory condition than at any time since the act came into operation. During the year 105 new huts were erected and additions and improvements made to many others that did not in all respects fulfill the requirements.

During 1906 there were 42 prosecutions for breaches of the Factories and Shops Act, resulting in 31 convictions, 8 cases being withdrawn and 3 cases being dismissed. Under the Early Closing Acts there were 265 prosecutions, resulting in 217 convictions, 29 cases being withdrawn and 19 cases being dismissed.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

Report of the Royal Commission on the Ventilation and Sanitation of Mines. Department of Mines, 1905. 500 pp.

This inquiry, made by a royal commission in 1904-5, the report of which was submitted to the governor of Western Australia on February 25, 1905, relates to the conditions of the ventilation and sanitation of the mines of Western Australia, the effects of the said conditions on the health of the persons employed in the mines, and the measures which should be taken, when necessary, to bring about improvement thereof.

There were 172 sittings of the commission, and visits were made to the principal mining centers of the State, which were easily accessible. Evidence was taken from 192 witnesses, which included mining engineers, managers, and inspectors; under managers, shift-bosses, and mining contractors; miners; metallurgists and representatives of explosives companies; officials of miners' and workers' associations, etc. The examination ranged over a wide field of varied mining experience in the endeavor to collect all possible information that would be of service to the commission. Every phase of the subject of ventilation and sanitation was practically and exhaustively considered, together with the related subjects of dust in mines and mills, gases due to explosives, fumes from the cyanide process and other dangerous fumes, health of miners, etc.

The conclusion of the report of the commission on the measures to be taken for improving the ventilation and sanitation of mines resulted in suggested legislation providing that The Mines Regulation Act, 1895, should be amended so as to include provisions for carrying into effect the recommendations made by the commission. Further, the commission expressed the opinion that the sanitary regulations suggested should apply to coal as well as to metalliferous mines, and that they should be made under The Coal Mines Regulation Act, 1902, as well as under The Mines Regulation Act, 1895.

The suggested legislation relates to (1) ventilation of mines, (2) prevention of dust, (3) use of explosives, (4) connections between levels and adjoining mines, and (5) sanitary conditions.

DECISIONS OF COURTS AFFECTING LABOR.

[Except in cases of special interest, the decisions here presented are restricted to those rendered by the Federal courts and the higher courts of the States and Territories. Only material portions of such decisions are reproduced, introductory and explanatory matter being given in the words of the editor. Decisions under statute law are indexed under the proper headings in the cumulative index, page 657 et seq.]

DECISIONS UNDER STATUTE LAW.

BOYCOTTS—COMBINATIONS IN RESTRAINT OF INTERSTATE COMMERCE—ANTITRUST LAW—*Loewe v. Lawlor, United States Supreme Court, 28 Supreme Court Reporter, page 301.*—Lawlor and his associates were members of a local branch of the United Hatters of North America, which organization had undertaken to procure the unionizing of the factory of the complainants. The complaint filed is given in full in the margin of the report of the opinion; but since the essential parts are summarized or reproduced in the opinion itself, no preliminary statement thereof is necessary.

The case was brought in the United States circuit court for the district of Connecticut, in which it was held that the facts did not bring the case within the provisions of the antitrust act, and it was dismissed on demurrer to the complaint. (148 Fed. Rep., 924. See Bulletin No. 70, p. 710. See also 142 Fed. Rep., 216; 130 Fed. Rep., 633.) An injunction was secured by Loewe against the California State Federation of Labor. (139 Fed. Rep., 71. See Bulletin No. 61, p. 1067.) Appeal was taken to the circuit court of appeals for the second circuit, which certified to the Supreme Court the question as to the applicability of the act in question. Afterward, by mutual agreement, the entire case was transferred to the Supreme Court, which held that the case fell within the provisions of the antitrust act, being a combination in restraint of trade, and remanded the case for a new trial. The opinion of the court was delivered by Chief Justice Fuller, and is in the main as follows:

The question is whether upon the facts therein averred [i. e., in the complaint] and admitted by the demurrer this action can be maintained under the antitrust act.

The first, second and seventh sections of that act are as follows:

1. "Every contract, combination in the form of trust or otherwise, or conspiracy, in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States, or with foreign nations, is hereby declared to be illegal. Every person who shall make any such contract or engage in any such combination or conspiracy, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and, on conviction thereof, shall be punished by fine not exceeding five thousand dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding one year, or by both said punishments, in the discretion of the court.

2. "Every person who shall monopolize, or attempt to monopolize, or combine or conspire with any other person or persons, to monopolize any part of the trade or commerce among the several States or with foreign nations, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and, on conviction thereof, shall be punished by fine not exceeding five thousand dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding one year, or by both said punishments, in the discretion of the court.

7. "Any person who shall be injured in his business or property by any other person or corporation by reason of anything forbidden or declared to be unlawful by this act, may sue therefor in any circuit court of the United States in the district in which the defendant resides or is found, without respect to the amount in controversy, and shall recover threefold the damages by him sustained, and the costs of suit, including a reasonable attorney's fee."

In our opinion, the combination described in the declaration is a combination "in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States," in the sense in which those words are used in the act, and the action can be maintained accordingly.

And that conclusion rests on many judgments of this court, to the effect that the act prohibits any combination whatever to secure action which essentially obstructs the free flow of commerce between the States, or restricts, in that regard, the liberty of a trader to engage in business.

The combination charged falls within the class of restraints of trade aimed at compelling third parties and strangers involuntarily not to engage in the course of trade except on conditions that the combination imposes; and there is no doubt that (to quote from the well-known work of Chief Justice Erle on Trade Unions) "at common law every person has individually, and the public also has collectively, a right to require that the course of trade should be kept free from unreasonable obstruction." But the objection here is to the jurisdiction, because, even conceding that the declaration states a case good at common law, it is contended that it does not state one within the statute. Thus, it is said, that the restraint alleged would operate to entirely destroy defendants' business and thereby include intrastate trade as well; that physical obstruction is not alleged as contemplated; and that defendants are not themselves engaged in interstate trade.

We think none of these objections are tenable, and that they are disposed of by previous decisions of this court.

United States v. Trans-Missouri Freight Association, 166 U. S. 290; *United States v. Joint Traffic Association*, 171 U. S. 505; and *Northern Securities Company v. United States*, 193 U. S. 197, hold in effect that the antitrust law has a broader application than the prohibition of restraints of trade unlawful at common law. Thus in the *Trans-Missouri* case it was said that, "assuming that agreements of this nature are not void at common law, and that the various cases cited by the learned courts below show it, the answer to the statement of their validity is to be found in the terms of the statute under consideration;" and in the *Northern Securities* case that "the act declares illegal every contract, combination or conspiracy in whatever form, of whatever nature, and whoever may be the parties to it, which directly or necessarily operates in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States."

We do not pause to comment on cases such as *United States v. Knight*, 156 U. S. 1; *Hopkins v. United States*, 171 U. S. 578; and *Anderson v. United States*, Id. 604; in which the undisputed facts showed that the purpose of the agreement was not to obstruct or restrain interstate commerce. The object and intention of the combination determined its legality.

In *Swift v. United States*, 196 U. S. 395, a bill was brought against a number of corporations, firms and individuals of different States, alleging that they were engaged in interstate commerce in the purchase, sale, transportation and delivery, and subsequent resale at the point of delivery, of meats; and that they combined to refrain from bidding against each other in the purchase of cattle; to maintain a uniform price at which the meat should be sold; and to maintain uniform charges in delivering meats thus sold through the channels of interstate trade to the various dealers and consumers in other States. And that thus they artificially restrained commerce in fresh meats from the purchase and shipment of live stock from the plains to the final distribution of the meats to the consumers in the markets of the country.

Mr. Justice Holmes, speaking for the court, said:

"Commerce among the States is not a technical legal conception, but a practical one, drawn from the course of business. When cattle are sent for sale from a place in one State with the expectation that they will end their transit after purchase in another, and when in effect they do so, with only the interruption necessary to find a purchaser at the stock yards, and when this is a typical, constantly recurring course, the current thus existing is a current of commerce among the States, and the purchase of the cattle is a part and incident of such commerce.

* * * * *

"The general objection is urged that the bill does not set forth sufficient definite or specific facts. This objection is serious, but it seems to us inherent in the nature of the case. The scheme alleged is so vast that it presents a new problem in pleading. If, as we must assume, the scheme is entertained, it is, of course, contrary to the very words of the statute. Its size makes the violation of the law more conspicuous, and yet the same thing makes it impossible to fasten the principal fact to a certain time and place. The elements, too, are so numerous and shifting, even the constituent parts alleged are and from their nature must be so extensive in time and space, that something of the same impossibility applies to them.

* * * * *

"The scheme as a whole seems to us to be within reach of the law. The constituent elements, as we have stated them, are enough to give to the scheme a body and, for all that we can say, to accomplish it. Moreover, whatever we may think of them separately, when we take them up as distinct charges, they are alleged sufficiently as elements of a scheme. It is suggested that the several acts charged are lawful and that intent can make no difference. But they are bound together as parts of a single plan. The plan may make the parts unlawful."

And the same principle was expressed in *Aikens v. Wisconsin*, 195 U. S. 194 [Bulletin No. 57, p. 678], involving a statute of Wisconsin

prohibiting combinations "for the purpose of willfully or maliciously injuring another in his reputation, trade, business or profession by any means whatever," in which Mr. Justice Holmes said:

"The statute is directed against a series of acts, and acts of several, the acts of combining, with intent to do other acts. 'The very plot is an act in itself.' *Mulcahy v. The Queen*, L. R. 3 H. L. 306, 317. But an act, which in itself is merely a voluntary muscular contraction, derives all its character from the consequences which will follow it under the circumstances in which it was done. When the acts consist of making a combination calculated to cause temporal damage, the power to punish such acts, when done maliciously, can not be denied because they are to be followed and worked out by conduct which might have been lawful if not preceded by the acts. No conduct has such an absolute privilege as to justify all possible schemes of which it may be a part. The most innocent and constitutionally protected of acts or omissions may be made a step in a criminal plot, and if it is a step in a plot neither its innocence nor the Constitution is sufficient to prevent the punishment of the plot by law."

In *Addyston Pipe and Steel Company v. United States*, 175 U. S. 211, the petition alleged that the defendants were practically the only manufacturers of cast iron within thirty-six States and Territories, that they had entered into a combination by which they agreed not to compete with each other in the sale of pipe, and the territory through which the constituent companies could make sales was allotted between them. This court held that the agreement which, prior to any act of transportation, limited the prices at which the pipe could be sold after transportation, was within the law. Mr. Justice Peckham, delivering the opinion, said: "And when Congress has enacted a statute such as the one in question, any agreement or combination which directly operates not alone upon the manufacture but upon the sale, transportation and delivery of an article of interstate commerce, by preventing or restricting its sale, etc., thereby regulates interstate commerce."

In *Montague & Company v. Lowry*, 193 U. S. 38, which was an action brought by a private citizen under section 7 against a combination engaged in the manufacture of tiles, defendants were wholesale dealers in tiles in California and combined with manufacturers in other States to restrain the interstate traffic in tiles by refusing to sell any tiles to any wholesale dealer in California who was not a member of the association except at a prohibitive rate. The case was a commercial boycott against such dealers in California as would not or could not obtain membership in the association. The restraint did not consist in a physical obstruction of interstate commerce, but in the fact that the plaintiff and other independent dealers could not purchase their tiles from manufacturers in other States because such manufacturers had combined to boycott them. This court held that this obstruction to the purchase of tiles, a fact antecedent to physical transportation, was within the prohibition of the act. Mr. Justice Peckham, speaking for the court, said, concerning the agreement, that it "restrained trade, for it narrowed the market for the sale of tiles in California from the manufacturers and dealers therein in other States, so that they could only be sold to the members of the association, and it enhanced prices to the nonmember."

The averments here are that there was an existing interstate traffic between plaintiffs and citizens of other States, and that for the direct purpose of destroying such interstate traffic defendants combined not merely to prevent plaintiffs from manufacturing articles then and there intended for transportation beyond the State, but also to prevent the vendees from reselling the hats which they had imported from Connecticut, or from further negotiating with plaintiffs for the purchase and intertransportation of such hats from Connecticut to the various places of destination. So that, although some of the means whereby the interstate traffic was to be destroyed were acts within a State, and some of them were in themselves as a part of their obvious purpose and effect beyond the scope of Federal authority, still, as we have seen, the acts must be considered as a whole, and the plan is open to condemnation, notwithstanding a negligible amount of intrastate business might be affected in carrying it out. (If the purposes of the combination were, as alleged, to prevent any interstate transportation at all, the fact that the means operated at one end before physical transportation commenced and at the other end after the physical transportation ended was immaterial.)

Nor can the act in question be held inapplicable because defendants were not themselves engaged in interstate commerce. The act made no distinction between classes. It provided that "every" contract, combination or conspiracy in restraint of trade was illegal. The records of Congress show that several efforts were made to exempt, by legislation, organizations of farmers and laborers from the operation of the act and that all these efforts failed, so that the act remained as we have it before us.

In an early case, *United States v. Workingmen's Amalgamated Council*, 54 Fed. Rep. 994, the United States filed a bill under the Sherman Act in the circuit court for the eastern district of Louisiana, averring the existence of "a gigantic and widespread combination of the members of a multitude of separate organizations for the purpose of restraining the commerce among the several States and with foreign countries," and it was contended that the statute did not refer to combinations of laborers. But the court, granting the injunction, said:

"I think the Congressional debates show that the statute had its origin in the evils of massed capital; but, when the Congress came to formulating the prohibition, which is the yardstick for measuring the complainant's right to the injunction, it expressed it in these words: 'Every contract or combination in the form of trust, or otherwise in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States or with foreign nations, is hereby declared to be illegal.' The subject had so broadened in the minds of the legislators that the source of the evil was not regarded as material, and the evil in its entirety is dealt with. They made the interdiction include combinations of labor, as well as of capital; in fact, all combinations in restraint of commerce, without reference to the character of the persons who entered into them. It is true this statute has not been much expounded by judges, but, as it seems to me, its meaning, as far as relates to the sort of combinations to which it is to apply, is manifest, and that it includes combinations which are composed of laborers acting in the interest of laborers."

* * * * *

"It is the successful effort of the combination of the defendants to intimidate and overawe others who were at work in conducting or carrying on the commerce of the country, in which the court finds their error and their violation of the statute. One of the intended results of their combined action was the forced stagnation of all the commerce which flowed through New Orleans. This intent and combined action are none the less unlawful because they included in their scope the paralysis of all other business within the city as well."

The case was affirmed on appeal by the circuit court of appeals for the fifth circuit. (57 Fed. Rep. 85.)

Subsequently came the litigation over the Pullman strike and the decisions *In re Debs*, 64 Fed. Rep. 724, 745, 755; 158 U. S. 564. The bill in that case was filed by the United States against the officers of the American Railway Union, which alleged that a labor dispute existed between the Pullman Palace Car Company and its employees; that thereafter the four officers of the railway union combined together and with others to compel an adjustment of such dispute by creating a boycott against the cars of the car company; that to make such boycott effective they had already prevented certain of the railroads running out of Chicago from operating their trains; that they asserted that they could and would tie up, paralyze and break down any and every railroad which did not accede to their demands, and that the purpose and intention of the combination was "to secure unto themselves the entire control of the interstate, industrial and commercial business in which the population of the city of Chicago and of other communities along the lines of road of said railways are engaged with each other, and to restrain any and all other persons from any independent control or management of such interstate, industrial or commercial enterprises, save according to the will and with the consent of the defendants."

The circuit court proceeded principally upon the Sherman anti-trust law, and granted an injunction. In this court the case was rested upon the broader ground that the Federal Government had full power over interstate commerce and over the transmission of the mails, and in the exercise of those powers could remove everything put upon highways, natural or artificial, to obstruct the passage of interstate commerce, or the carrying of the mails. But in reference to the antitrust act the court expressly stated:

"We enter into no examination of the act of July 2, 1890, c. 647, 26 Stat. 209, upon which the circuit court relied mainly to sustain its jurisdiction. It must not be understood from this that we dissent from the conclusions of that court in reference to the scope of the act, but simply that we prefer to rest our judgment on the broader ground which has been discussed in this opinion, believing it of importance that the principles underlying it should be fully stated and affirmed."

And in the opinion Mr. Justice Brewer, among other things, said:

"It is curious to note the fact that in a large proportion of the cases in respect to interstate commerce brought to this court the question presented was of the validity of State legislation in its bearings upon interstate commerce, and the uniform course of decision has been to declare that it is not within the competency of a State to legislate in such a manner as to obstruct interstate commerce. If a State, with its recognized powers of sovereignty, is impotent to obstruct interstate commerce, can it be that any mere volu

individuals within the limits of that State has a power which the State itself does not possess?"

The question answers itself, and in the light of the authorities the only inquiry is as to the sufficiency of the averments of fact. We have given the declaration in full in the margin, and it appears therefrom that it is charged that defendants formed a combination to directly restrain plaintiffs' trade; that the trade to be restrained was interstate; that certain means to attain such restraint were contrived to be used and employed to that end; that those means were so used and employed by defendants, and that thereby they injured plaintiffs' property and business.

At the risk of tediousness, we repeat that the complaint averred that plaintiffs were manufacturers of hats in Danbury, Connecticut, having a factory there, and were then and there engaged in an interstate trade in some twenty States other than the State of Connecticut; that they were practically dependent upon such interstate trade to consume the product of their factory, only a small percentage of their entire output being consumed in the State of Connecticut; that at the time the alleged combination was formed they were in the process of manufacturing a large number of hats for the purpose of fulfilling engagements then actually made with consignees and wholesale dealers in States other than Connecticut, and that if prevented from carrying on the work of manufacturing these hats they would be unable to complete their engagements.

That defendants were members of a vast combination called the United Hatters of North America, comprising about 9,000 members and including a large number of subordinate unions, and that they were combined with some 1,400,000 others into another association known as the American Federation of Labor, of which they were members, whose members resided in all the places in the several States where the wholesale dealers in hats and their customers resided and did business; that defendants were "engaged in a combined scheme and effort to force all manufacturers of fur hats in the United States, including the plaintiffs, against their will and their previous policy of carrying on their business, to organize their workmen in the departments of making and finishing, in each of their factories, into an organization, to be part and parcel of the said combination known as the United Hatters of North America, or as the defendants and their confederates term it, to unionize their shops, with the intent thereby to control the employment of labor in and the operation of said factories, and to subject the same to the direction and control of persons other than the owners of the same, in a manner extremely onerous and distasteful to such owners, and to carry out such scheme, effort and purpose, by restraining and destroying the interstate trade and commerce of such manufacturers, by means of intimidation of and threats made to such manufacturers and their customers in the several States, of boycotting them, their product and their customers, using therefor all the powerful means at their command as aforesaid, until such time as, from the damage and loss of business resulting therefrom, the said manufacturers should yield to the said demand to unionize their factories."

That the conspiracy or combination was so far progressed that out of eighty-two manufacturers of this country engaged in the production of fur hats seventy had accepted the terms and acceded to the demand that the shop should be conducted in accordance, so far

as conditions of employment were concerned, with the will of the American Federation of Labor; that the local union demanded of plaintiffs that they should unionize their shop under peril of being boycotted by this combination, which demand defendants declined to comply with; that thereupon the American Federation of Labor, acting through its official organ and through its organizers, declared a boycott.

The complaint then thus continued:

"20. On or about July 25, 1902, the defendants, individually and collectively, and as members of said combinations and associations, and with other persons whose names are unknown to the plaintiffs, associated with them, in pursuance of the general scheme and purpose aforesaid, to force all manufacturers of fur hats, and particularly the plaintiffs, to so unionize their factories, wantonly, wrongfully, maliciously, unlawfully and in violation of the provisions of the 'act of Congress, approved July 2, 1890,' and entitled 'An act to protect trade and commerce against unlawful restraints and monopolies,' and with intent to injure the property and business of the plaintiffs by means of acts done which are forbidden and declared to be unlawful, by said act of Congress, entered into a combination and conspiracy to restrain the plaintiffs and their customers in States other than Connecticut in carrying on said trade and commerce among the several States and to wholly prevent them from engaging in and carrying on said trade and commerce between them and to prevent the plaintiffs from selling their hats to wholesale dealers and purchasers in said States other than Connecticut, and to prevent said dealers and customers in said other States from buying the same, and to prevent the plaintiffs from obtaining orders for their hats from such customers, and filling the same, and shipping said hats to said customers in said States as aforesaid, and thereby injure the plaintiffs in their property and business and to render unsalable the product and output of their said factory, so the subject of interstate commerce, in whosoever's hands the same might be or come, through said interstate trade and commerce, and to employ as means to carry out said combination and conspiracy and the purposes thereof, and accomplish the same, the following measures and acts, viz:

"To cause, by means of threats and coercion, and without warning or information to the plaintiffs, the concerted and simultaneous withdrawal of all the makers and finishers of hats then working for them, who were not members of their said combination, The United Hatters of North America, as well as those who were such members, and thereby cripple the operation of the plaintiffs' factory, and prevent the plaintiffs from filling a large number of orders then on hand, from such wholesale dealers in States other than Connecticut, which they had engaged to fill and were then in the act of filling, as was well known to the defendants; in connection therewith to declare a boycott against all hats made for sale and sold and delivered, or to be so sold or delivered, by the plaintiffs to said wholesale dealers in States other than Connecticut, and to actively boycott the same and the business of those who should deal in them, and thereby prevent the sale of the same by those in whose hands they might be or come through said interstate trade in said several States; to procure and cause others of said combinations united with them in said American Federation of Labor, in like manner to declare a boycott against and actively boycott the same and the business of each wholesale dealer and

buy or sell them, and of those who should purchase them from such wholesale dealers; to intimidate such wholesale dealers from purchasing or dealing in the hats of the plaintiffs by informing them that the American Federation of Labor had declared a boycott against the product of the plaintiffs and against any dealer who should handle it, and that the same was to be actively pressed against them, and by distributing circulars containing notices that such dealers and their customers were to be boycotted; to threaten with a boycott those customers who should buy any goods whatever, even though union made, of such boycotted dealers, and at the same time to notify such wholesale dealers that they were at liberty to deal in the hats of any other nonunion manufacturer of similar quality to those made by the plaintiffs, but must not deal in the hats made by the plaintiffs under threats of such boycotting; to falsely represent to said wholesale dealers and their customers, that the plaintiffs had discriminated against the union men in their employ, had thrown them out of employment because they refused to give up their union cards and teach boys, who were intended to take their places after seven months' instruction, and had driven their employees to extreme measures 'by their persistent, unfair and un-American policy of antagonizing union labor, forcing wages to a starvation scale, and given boys and cheap, unskilled foreign labor preference over experienced and capable union workmen,' in order to intimidate said dealers from purchasing said hats by reason of the prejudice thereby created against the plaintiffs and the hats made by them among those who might otherwise purchase them; to use the said union label of said The United Hatters of North America as an instrument to aid them in carrying out said conspiracy and combination against the plaintiffs' and their customers' intertrade aforesaid, and in connection with the boycotting above mentioned, for the purpose of describing and identifying the hats of the plaintiffs and singling them out to be so boycotted; to employ a large number of agents to visit said wholesale dealers and their customers, at their several places of business, and threaten them with loss of business if they should buy or handle the hats of the plaintiffs, and thereby prevent them from buying said hats, and in connection therewith to cause said dealers to be waited upon by committees representing large combinations of persons in their several localities to make similar threats to them; to use the daily press in the localities where such wholesale dealers reside, and do business, to announce and advertise the said boycotts against the hats of the plaintiffs and said wholesale dealers, and thereby make the same more effective and oppressive, and to use the columns of their said paper, *The Journal of the United Hatters of North America*, for that purpose, and to describe the acts of their said agents in prosecuting the same."

And then followed the averments that the defendants proceeded to carry out their combination to restrain and destroy interstate trade and commerce between plaintiffs and their customers in other States by employing the identical means contrived for that purpose; and that by reason of those acts plaintiffs were damaged in their business and property in some \$80,000.

We think a case within the statute was set up and that the demurrer should have been overruled.

Judgment reversed and cause remanded with a direction to proceed accordingly.

HOURS OF LABOR OF FEMALE EMPLOYEES—POLICE POWER—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—*Muller v. State, United States Supreme Court, 28 Supreme Court Reporter, page 324.*—Curt Muller was the owner of a laundry in the city of Portland, Oreg., and was convicted in the circuit court of Multnomah County of a violation of an act of the Oregon legislature (page 148, Acts of 1903), which limits to ten per day the number of hours of employment of females "employed in any mechanical establishment, or factory, or laundry." The case was appealed to the supreme court of Oregon on the ground of the unconstitutionality of the act. The act was upheld and judgment affirmed. (See Bulletin No. 67, p. 877.) Muller then appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States, which gave its opinion upholding the validity of the law on grounds which appear in the following extracts from the opinion of the court as delivered by Justice Brewer:

The single question is the constitutionality of the statute under which the defendant was convicted so far as it affects the work of a female in a laundry. That it does not conflict with any provisions of the State constitution is settled by the decision of the supreme court of the State.

It is the law of Oregon that women, whether married or single, have equal contractual and personal rights with men. As said by Chief Justice Wolverton, in *First National Bank v. Leonard*, 36 Ore. 390, 396, after a review of the various statutes of the State upon the subject:

"We may therefore say with perfect confidence that, with these three sections upon the statute book, the wife can deal, not only with her separate property, acquired from whatever source, in the same manner as her husband can with property belonging to him, but that she may make contracts and incur liabilities, and the same may be enforced against her, the same as if she were a femme sole. There is now no residuum of civil disability resting upon her which is not recognized as existing against the husband. The current runs steadily and strongly in the direction of the emancipation of the wife, and the policy, as disclosed by all recent legislation upon the subject in this State, is to place her upon the same footing as if she were a femme sole, not only with respect to her separate property, but as it affects her right to make binding contracts; and the most natural corollary to the situation is that the remedies for the enforcement of liabilities incurred are made coextensive and coequal with such enlarged conditions."

It thus appears that, putting to one side the elective franchise, in the matter of personal and contractual rights they stand on the same plane as the other sex. Their rights in these respects can no more be infringed than the equal rights of their brothers. We held in *Lochner v. New York*, 198 U. S. 45, that a law providing that no laborer shall be required or permitted to work in bakeries more than sixty hours in a week or ten hours in a day was not as to men a legitimate exercise of the police power of the State, but an unreasonable, unnecessary and arbitrary interference with the right and liberty of the individual to contract in relation to his labor, and as such was in conflict with, and

void under, the Federal Constitution. That decision is invoked by plaintiff in error as decisive of the question before us. But this assumes that the difference between sexes does not justify a different rule respecting a restriction of the hours of labor.

While there have been but few decisions bearing directly upon the question, the following sustain the constitutionality of such legislation: *Commonwealth v. Hamilton Mfg. Co.*, 125 Mass. 383; *Wenham v. State*, 65 Nebr. 394, 400, 406; *State v. Buchanan*, 29 Wash. 602; *Commonwealth v. Beatty*, 15 Pa. Sup. Ct. 5, 17; against them is the case of *Ritchie v. People*, 155 Ill. 98.

The legislation and opinions referred to in the margin may not be, technically speaking, authorities, and in them is little or no discussion of the constitutional question presented to us for determination, yet they are significant of a widespread belief that woman's physical structure, and the functions she performs in consequence thereof, justify special legislation restricting or qualifying the conditions under which she should be permitted to toil. Constitutional questions, it is true, are not settled by even a consensus of present public opinion, for it is the peculiar value of a written constitution that it places in unchanging form limitations upon legislative action, and thus gives a permanence and stability to popular government which otherwise would be lacking. At the same time, when a question of fact is debated and debatable, and the extent to which a special constitutional limitation goes is affected by the truth in respect to that fact, a widespread and long-continued belief concerning it is worthy of consideration. We take judicial cognizance of all matters of general knowledge.

It is undoubtedly true, as more than once declared by this court, that the general right to contract in relation to one's business is part of the liberty of the individual, protected by the fourteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution; yet it is equally well settled that this liberty is not absolute and extending to all contracts, and that a State may, without conflicting with the provisions of the fourteenth amendment, restrict in many respects the individual's power of contract. Without stopping to discuss at length the extent to which a State may act in this respect, we refer to the following cases in which the question has been considered: *Allgeyer v. Louisiana*, 165 U. S. 578; *Holden v. Hardy*, 169 U. S. 366; *Lochner v. New York*, *supra*.

That woman's physical structure and the performance of maternal functions place her at a disadvantage in the struggle for subsistence is obvious. This is especially true when the burdens of motherhood are upon her. Even when they are not, by abundant testimony of the medical fraternity continuance for a long time on her feet at work, repeating this from day to day, tends to injurious effects upon the body, and as healthy mothers are essential to vigorous offspring, the physical well-being of woman becomes an object of public interest and care in order to preserve the strength and vigor of the race.

Still again, history discloses the fact that woman has always been dependent upon man. He established his control at the outset by superior physical strength, and this control in various forms, with diminishing intensity, has continued to the present. As minors, though not to the same extent, she has been looked upon in the courts as needing especial care that her rights may be preserved. Education

was long denied her, and while now the doors of the school room are opened and her opportunities for acquiring knowledge are great, yet even with that and the consequent increase of capacity for business affairs it is still true that in the struggle for subsistence she is not an equal competitor with her brother. Though limitations upon personal and contractual rights may be removed by legislation, there is that in her disposition and habits of life which will operate against a full assertion of those rights. She will still be where some legislation to protect her seems necessary to secure a real equality of right. Doubtless there are individual exceptions, and there are many respects in which she has an advantage over him; but looking at it from the viewpoint of the effort to maintain an independent position in life, she is not upon an equality. Differentiated by these matters from the other sex, she is properly placed in a class by herself, and legislation designed for her protection may be sustained, even when like legislation is not necessary for men and could not be sustained. It is impossible to close one's eyes to the fact that she still looks to her brother and depends upon him. Even though all restrictions on political, personal and contractual rights were taken away, and she stood, so far as statutes are concerned, upon an absolutely equal plane with him, it would still be true that she is so constituted that she will rest upon and look to him for protection; that her physical structure and a proper discharge of her maternal functions—having in view not merely her own health, but the well-being of the race—justify legislation to protect her from the greed as well as the passion of man. The limitations which this statute places upon her contractual powers, upon her right to agree with her employer as to the time she shall labor, are not imposed solely for her benefit, but also largely for the benefit of all. Many words can not make this plainer. The two sexes differ in structure of body, in the functions to be performed by each, in the amount of physical strength, in the capacity for long-continued labor, particularly when done standing, the influence of vigorous health upon the future well-being of the race, the self-reliance which enables one to assert full rights, and in the capacity to maintain the struggle for subsistence. This difference justifies a difference in legislation and upholds that which is designed to compensate for some of the burdens which rest upon her.

We have not referred in this discussion to the denial of the elective franchise in the State of Oregon, for while that may disclose a lack of political equality in all things with her brother, that is not of itself decisive. The reason runs deeper, and rests in the inherent difference between the two sexes, and in the different functions in life which they perform.

For these reasons, and without questioning in any respect the decision in *Lochner v. New York*, we are of the opinion that it can not be adjudged that the act in question is in conflict with the Federal Constitution, so far as it respects the work of a female in a laundry, and the judgment of the supreme court of Oregon is affirmed.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS—RIGHT TO ORGANIZE—ANTITRUST LAW—
CONSTITUTIONALITY—*Waters-Pierce Oil Company v. State*, Court of
Civil Appeals of Texas, 106 *Southwestern Reporter*, —The

company named was convicted of a violation of the antitrust law of Texas and appealed, the appeal resulting in an affirmance of the judgment of the lower court. The only point of interest in this case is a contention of the company as to the effect on the antitrust law of a subsequent law legalizing the formation of labor unions. The paragraph of the opinion of the court relating to this subject is reproduced:

4. It is contended on behalf of appellant that the antitrust act of May 25, 1899, was rendered unconstitutional by the passage of another statute at the same session of the legislature, entitled "An act to protect workmen in the right of organization and the purposes thereof," approved May 27, 1899 (Laws 1899, p. 262, c. 153), wherein it was provided that from and after its passage it should be lawful for any and all persons engaged in any kind of work or labor, manual or mental, or both, to associate themselves together and form trade unions and other organizations for the purpose of protecting themselves in their personal work, personal labor, and personal service in their respective pursuits and employments. By the third section it is declared that that act shall not apply to combinations of associations of capital, or capital and persons natural or artificial formed for the purpose of limiting the production or consumption of labor's products, or for any other purpose in restraint of trade, and that nothing therein contained shall be held to interfere with the terms and conditions of private contracts with regard to the time of service or other stipulations between employers and employees, and "that nothing herein contained shall be construed to repeal, affect or diminish the force and effect of any statute now existing on the subject of trusts, conspiracies against trade, pools and monopolies." In view of these limitations placed upon that act, we are of the opinion that it was not the intention of the legislature to authorize anything to be done that was prohibited by the act of May 25, 1899. Hence we hold that this statute ingrafts no exemptions upon the antitrust statute referred to.

PROTECTION OF EMPLOYEES AS MEMBERS OF LABOR ORGANIZATIONS—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—*Adair v. United States*, *United States Supreme Court*, 28 *Supreme Court Reporter*, page 277.—This case was before the Supreme Court on appeal from the district court of the United States for the eastern district of Kentucky. William Adair was held to have violated the provision of the Federal arbitration act of June 1, 1898 (chap. 370, 30 Stat. 428; U. S. Comp. Stats. 1901, p. 3205), frequently spoken of as the Erdman act, which makes it unlawful to discharge an employee on account of membership in a labor organization. (152 Fed. Rep. 737. See Bulletin No. 72, p. 613.)

The appeal was based on the contention that the act was unconstitutional in this particular, as unwarrantably restraining the freedom of contract. This view was approved by the court, with two dissenting opinions filed and one judge taking no part in the pro-

ceedings. On account of the general interest in the question, both the opinion of the court, as delivered by Mr. Justice Harlan, and the dissenting opinions, will be presented practically in full.

Mr. Justice Harlan said:

This case involves the constitutionality of certain provisions of the act of Congress of June 1st, 1898, 30 Stat. 424, c. 370, concerning carriers engaged in interstate commerce and their employees.

By the first section of the act it is provided: "That the provisions of this act shall apply to any common carrier or carriers and their officers, agents, and employees, except masters of vessels and seamen, as defined in section 4612, Revised Statutes of the United States, engaged in the transportation of passengers or property wholly by railroad, or partly by railroad and partly by water, for a continuous carriage or shipment, from one State or Territory of the United States, or the District of Columbia, to any other State or Territory of the United States, or the District of Columbia, or from any place in the United States to an adjacent foreign country, or from any place in the United States through a foreign country to any other place in the United States." * * *

The 10th section, upon which the present prosecution is based, is in these words:

"That any employer subject to the provisions of this act and any officer, agent, or receiver of such employer, who shall require any employee, or any person seeking employment, as a condition of such employment, to enter into an agreement, either written or verbal, not to become or remain a member of any labor corporation, association, or organization; or shall threaten any employee with loss of employment, or shall unjustly discriminate against any employee because of his membership in such a labor corporation, association, or organization;" * * *

It may be observed in passing that while that section makes it a crime against the United States to unjustly discriminate against an employee of an interstate carrier because of his being a member of a labor organization, it does not make it a crime to unjustly discriminate against an employee of the carrier because of his not being a member of such an organization.

The present indictment was in the district court of the United States for the eastern district of Kentucky against the defendant Adair.

The specific charge in that [first] count was "that said William Adair, agent and employee of said common carrier and employer as aforesaid, in the district aforesaid, on and before the 15th day of October 1906, did unlawfully and unjustly discriminate against said O. B. Coppage, employee as aforesaid, by then and there discharging said O. B. Coppage from such employment of said common carrier and employer, because of his membership in said labor organization, and thereby did unjustly discriminate against an employee of a common carrier and employer engaged in interstate commerce because of his membership in a labor organization, contrary to the forms of the statute in such cases made and provided, and against the peace and dignity of the United States."

The accused Adair demurred to the indictment as insufficient in law, but the demurrer was overruled. After reviewing the authorities, in an elaborate opinion, the court section of the

act of Congress to be constitutional. The defendant pleaded not guilty, and after trial a verdict was returned of guilty on the first count and a judgment rendered that he pay to the United States a fine of \$100. We shall, therefore, say nothing as to the second count of the indictment.

It thus appears that the criminal offense charged in the count of the indictment upon which the defendant was convicted was, in substance and effect, that being an agent of a railroad company engaged in interstate commerce and subject to the provisions of the above act of June 1st 1898 he discharged one Coppage from its service because of his membership in a labor organization—no other ground for such discharge being alleged.

May Congress make it a criminal offense against the United States—as by the 10th section of the act of 1898 it does—for an agent or officer of an interstate carrier, having full authority in the premises from the carrier, to discharge an employee from service simply because of his membership in a labor organization?

This question is admittedly one of importance, and has been examined with care and deliberation. And the court has reached a conclusion which, in its judgment, is consistent with both the words and spirit of the Constitution and is sustained as well by sound reason.

The first inquiry is whether the part of the 10th section of the act of 1898 upon which the first count of the indictment was based is repugnant to the fifth amendment of the Constitution declaring that no person shall be deprived of liberty or property without due process of law. In our opinion that section, in the particular mentioned, is an invasion of the personal liberty, as well as of the right of property, guaranteed by that amendment. Such liberty and right embraces the right to make contracts for the purchase of the labor of others and equally the right to make contracts for the sale of one's own labor; each right, however, being subject to the fundamental condition that no contract, whatever its subject-matter, can be sustained which the law, upon reasonable grounds, forbids as inconsistent with the public interests or as hurtful to the public order or as detrimental to the common good. This court has said that "in every well-ordered society, charged with the duty of conserving the safety of its members, the rights of the individual in respect of his liberty may, at times, under the pressure of great dangers, be subjected to such restraint, to be enforced by reasonable regulations, as the safety of the general public may demand." (*Jacobson v. Massachusetts*, 197 U. S. 11, 29, and authorities there cited.) Without stopping to consider what would have been the rights of the railroad company under the fifth amendment, had it been indicted under the act of Congress, it is sufficient in this case to say that as agent of the railroad company and as such responsible for the conduct of the business of one of its departments, it was the defendant Adair's right—and that right inhered in his personal liberty, and was also a right of property—to serve his employer as best he could, so long as he did nothing that was reasonably forbidden by law as injurious to the public interests. It was the right of the defendant to prescribe the terms upon which the services of Coppage would be accepted, and it was the right of Coppage to become or not, as he chose, an employee of the railroad company upon the terms offered to him. Mr. Cooley, in his treatise on Torts, p. 278, well says: "It is a part of every man's civil rights that he be left at liberty to

refuse business relations with any person whomsoever, whether the refusal rests upon reason, or is the result of whim, caprice, prejudice or malice. With his reasons neither the public nor third persons have any legal concern. It is also his right to have business relations with anyone with whom he can make contracts, and if he is wrongfully deprived of this right by others, he is entitled to redress."

In *Lochner v. New York*, 198 U. S. 45, 53, 56 [Bulletin No. 59, p. 340], which involved the validity of a State enactment prescribing certain maximum hours for labor in bakeries, and which made it a misdemeanor for an employer to require or permit an employee in such an establishment to work in excess of a given number of hours each day, the court said: "The general right to make a contract in relation to his business is part of the liberty of the individual protected by the fourteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution. *Allgeyer v. Louisiana*, 165 U. S. 578. Under that provision no State can deprive any person of life, liberty or property without due process of law. The right to purchase or to sell labor is part of the liberty protected by this amendment, unless there are circumstances which exclude the right. There are, however, certain powers, existing in the sovereignty of each State in the Union, somewhat vaguely termed police powers, the exact description and limitation of which have not been attempted by the courts. Those powers, broadly stated and without, at present, any attempt at a more specific limitation, relate to the safety, health, morals and general welfare of the public. Both property and liberty are held on such reasonable conditions as may be imposed by the governing power of the State in the exercise of those powers, and with such conditions the fourteenth amendment was not designed to interfere. *Mugler v. Kansas*, 123 U. S. 623; *In re Kemmler*, 136 U. S. 436; *Crowley v. Christensen*, 137 U. S. 86; *In re Converse*, 137 U. S. 624." * * * "In every case that comes before this court, therefore, where legislation of this character is concerned and where the protection of the Federal Constitution is sought, the question necessarily arises: Is this a fair, reasonable and appropriate exercise of the police power of the State, or is it an unreasonable, unnecessary and arbitrary interference with the right of the individual to his personal liberty or to enter into those contracts in relation to labor which may seem to him appropriate or necessary for the support of himself and his family? Of course the liberty of contract relating to labor includes both parties to it. The one has as much right to purchase as the other to sell labor." Although there was a difference of opinion in that case among the members of the court as to certain propositions, there was no disagreement as to the general proposition that there is a liberty of contract which can not be unreasonably interfered with by legislation. The minority were of opinion that the business referred to in the New York statute was such as to require regulation, and that as the statute was not shown plainly and palpably to have imposed an unreasonable restraint upon freedom of contract, it should be regarded by the courts as a valid exercise of the State's power to care for the health and safety of its people.

While, as already suggested, the rights of liberty and property guaranteed by the Constitution against deprivation without due process of law, is subject to such reasonable restraints as the common good or the

general welfare may require, it is not within the functions of government—at least in the absence of contract between the parties—to compel any person in the course of his business and against his will to accept or retain the personal services of another, or to compel any person, against his will, to perform personal services for another. The right of a person to sell his labor upon such terms as he deems proper is, in its essence, the same as the right of the purchaser of labor to prescribe the conditions upon which he will accept such labor from the person offering to sell it. So the right of the employee to quit the service of the employer, for whatever reason, is the same as the right of the employer, for whatever reason, to dispense with the services of such employee. It was the legal right of the defendant Adair—however unwise such a course might have been—to discharge Coppage because of his being a member of a labor organization, as it was the legal right of Coppage, if he saw fit to do so—however unwise such a course on his part might have been—to quit the service in which he was engaged, because the defendant employed some persons who were not members of a labor organization. In all such particulars the employer and the employee have equality of right, and any legislation that disturbs that equality is an arbitrary interference with the liberty of contract which no government can legally justify in a free land.

* * * Of course, if the parties by contract fix the period of service, and prescribe the conditions upon which the contract may be terminated, such contract would control the rights of the parties as between themselves, and for any violation of those provisions the party wronged would have his appropriate civil action. And it may be—but upon that point we express no opinion—that in the case of a labor contract between an employer engaged in interstate commerce and his employee, Congress could make it a crime for either party without sufficient or just excuse or notice to disregard the terms of such contract or to refuse to perform it. In the absence, however, of a valid contract between the parties controlling their conduct toward each other and fixing a period of service, it can not be, we repeat, that an employer is under any legal obligation, against his will, to retain an employee in his personal service any more than an employee can be compelled, against his will, to remain in the personal service of another. So far as this record discloses the facts the defendant, who seemed to have authority in the premises, did not agree to keep Coppage in service for any particular time, nor did Coppage agree to remain in such service a moment longer than he chose. The latter was at liberty to quit the service without assigning any reason for his leaving. And the defendant was at liberty, in his discretion, to discharge Coppage from service without giving any reason for so doing.

As the relations and the conduct of the parties toward each other was not controlled by any contract other than a general employment on one side to accept the services of the employee and a general agreement on the other side to render services to the employer—no term being fixed for the continuance of the employment—Congress could not, consistently with the fifth amendment, make it a crime against the United States to discharge the employee because of his being a member of a labor organization.

But it is suggested that the authority to make it a crime for an agent or officer of an interstate carrier, having authority in the premises from his principal, to discharge an employee from service to

such carrier, simply because of his membership in a labor organization, can be referred to the power of Congress to regulate interstate commerce, without regard to any question of personal liberty or right of property arising under the fifth amendment. This suggestion can have no bearing in the present discussion unless the statute, in the particular just stated, is within the meaning of the Constitution a regulation of commerce among the States. If it be not, then clearly the Government can not invoke the commerce clause of the Constitution as sustaining the indictment against Adair.

Let us inquire what is commerce, the power to regulate which is given to Congress?

This question has been frequently propounded in this court, and the answer has been—and no more specific answer could well have been given—that commerce among the several States comprehends traffic, intercourse, trade, navigation, communication, the transit of persons and the transmission of messages by telegraph—indeed, every species of commercial intercourse among the several States, but not to that commerce “completely internal, which is carried on between man and man, in a State, or between different parts of the same State, and which does not extend to or affect other States.” The power to regulate interstate commerce is the power to prescribe rules by which such commerce must be governed. Of course, as has been often said, Congress has a large discretion in the selection or choice of the means to be employed in the regulation of interstate commerce, and such discretion is not to be interfered with except where that which is done is in plain violation of the Constitution. *Northern Securities Co. v. United States*, 193 U. S. 197, and authorities there cited. In this connection we may refer to *Johnson v. Railroad*, 196 U. S. 1 [see Bulletin No. 56, p. 303], relied on in argument, which case arose under the act of Congress of March 2, 1893. 27 Stat. 531, c. 196. That act required carriers engaged in interstate commerce to equip their cars used in such commerce with automatic couplers and continuous brakes, and their locomotives with driving-wheel brakes. But the act upon its face showed that its object was to promote the safety of employees and travelers upon railroads; and this court sustained its validity upon the ground that it manifestly had reference to interstate commerce and was calculated to subserve the interests of such commerce by affording protection to employees and travelers. It was held that there was a substantial connection between the object sought to be attained by the act and the means provided to accomplish that object. So, in regard to *Howard v. Illinois Central Railroad, etc.*, decided at the present term. No. 216. See Bulletin No. 74, p. 216.] In that case the court sustained the authority of Congress, under its power to regulate interstate commerce, to prescribe the rule of liability, as between interstate carriers and its employees in such interstate commerce, in cases of personal injuries received by employees while actually engaged in such commerce. The decision on this point was placed on the ground that a rule of that character would have direct reference to the conduct of interstate commerce, and would, therefore, be within the competency of Congress to establish for commerce among the States, but not as to commerce completely internal to a State. Manifestly, any rule prescribed for the conduct of interstate commerce, in order to be within the competency of Congress

under its power to regulate commerce among the States, must have some real or substantial relation to or connection with the commerce regulated. But what possible legal or logical connection is there between an employee's membership in a labor organization and the carrying on of interstate commerce? Such relation to a labor organization can not have, in itself and in the eye of the law, any bearing upon the commerce with which the employee is connected by his labor and services. Labor associations, we assume, are organized for the general purpose of improving or bettering the conditions and conserving the interests of its members as wage-earners—an object entirely legitimate and to be commended rather than condemned. But surely these associations as labor organizations have nothing to do with interstate commerce as such. One who engages in the service of an interstate carrier will, it must be assumed, faithfully perform his duty, whether he be a member or not a member of a labor organization. His fitness for the position in which he labors and his diligence in the discharge of his duties can not in law or sound reason depend in any degree upon his being or not being a member of a labor organization. It can not be assumed that his fitness is assured, or his diligence increased, by such membership, or that he is less fit or less diligent because of his not being a member of such an organization. It is the employee as a man and not as a member of a labor organization who labors in the service of an interstate carrier. Will it be said that the provision in question had its origin in the apprehension, on the part of Congress, that if it did not show more consideration for members of labor organizations than for wage-earners who were not members of such organizations, or if it did not insert in the statute some such provision as the one here in question, members of labor organizations would, by illegal or violent measures, interrupt or impair the freedom of commerce among the States? We will not indulge in any such conjectures, nor make them, in whole or in part, the basis of our decision. We could not do so consistently with the respect due to a coordinate department of the Government. We could not do so without imputing to Congress the purpose to accord to one class of wage-earners privileges withheld from another class of wage-earners engaged, it may be, in the same kind of labor and serving the same employer. Nor will we assume, in our consideration of this case, that members of labor organizations will, in any considerable numbers, resort to illegal methods for accomplishing any particular object they have in view.

Looking alone at the words of the statute for the purpose of ascertaining its scope and effect, and of determining its validity, we hold that there is no such connection between interstate commerce and membership in a labor organization as to authorize Congress to make it a crime against the United States for an agent of an interstate carrier to discharge an employee because of such membership on his part. If such a power exists in Congress it is difficult to perceive why it might not, by absolute regulation, require interstate carriers, under penalties, to employ in the conduct of its interstate business only members of labor organizations, or only those who are not members of such organizations—a power which could not be recognized as existing under the Constitution of the United States. No such rule of individual liability as that to which we have referred can be regarded as, in any just sense, a regulation of interstate commerce. We need

scarcely repeat what this court has more than once said, that the power to regulate interstate commerce, great and paramount as that power is, can not be exerted in violation of any fundamental right secured by other provisions of the Constitution. (*Gibbons v. Ogden*, 9 Wheat. 1, 196; *Lottery Case*, 188 U. S. 321, 353.)

It results, on the whole case, that the provision of the statute under which the defendant was convicted must be held to be repugnant to the fifth amendment and as not embraced by nor within the power of Congress to regulate interstate commerce, but under the guise of regulating interstate commerce and as applied to this case it arbitrarily sanctions an illegal invasion of the personal liberty as well as the right of property of the defendant Adair.

We add that since the part of the act of 1898 upon which the first count of the indictment is based, and upon which alone the defendant was convicted, is severable from its other parts, and as what has been said is sufficient to dispose of the present case, we are not called upon to consider other and independent provisions of the act, such, for instance, as the provisions relating to arbitration. This decision is therefore restricted to the question of the validity of the particular provision in the act of Congress making it a crime against the United States for an agent or officer of an interstate carrier to discharge an employee from its service because of his being a member of a labor organization.

The judgment must be reversed, with directions to set aside the verdict and judgment of conviction, sustain the demurrer to the indictment, and dismiss the case.

Mr. Justice McKenna dissenting, said:

The opinion of the court proceeds upon somewhat narrow lines and either omits or does not give adequate prominence to the considerations which, I think, are determinative of the questions in the case. The principle upon which the opinion is grounded is, as I understand it, that a labor organization has no legal or logical connection with interstate commerce, and that the fitness of an employee has no dependence or relation with his membership in such organization. It is hence concluded that to restrain his discharge merely on account of such membership is an invasion of the liberty of the carrier guaranteed by the fifth amendment of the Constitution of the United States. The conclusion is irresistible if the propositions from which it is deduced may be viewed as abstractly as the opinion views them. May they be so viewed?

A summary of the act is necessary to understand section 10. Detach that section from the other provisions of the act and it might be open to condemnation.

The first section of the act designates the carriers to whom it shall apply. The second section makes it the duty of the chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission and the Commissioner of Labor, in case of a dispute between carriers and their employees which threatens to interrupt the business of the carriers, to put themselves in communication with the parties to the controversy and use efforts to "mediation and conciliation." If the efforts fail, then section 3 provides for the appointment of a board of arbitration—one to be named by the carrier, one by the labor organization to which the employees belong, and the two thus chosen shall select a third.

There is a provision that if the employees belong to different organizations they shall concur in the selection of the arbitrator. The board is to give hearings; power is vested in the board to summon witnesses, and provision is made for filing the award in the clerk's office of the circuit court of the United States for the district where the controversy arose. Other sections complete the scheme of arbitration thus outlined, and make, as far as possible, the proceedings of the arbitrators judicial, and pending them put restrictions on the parties and damages for violation of the restrictions.

Even from this meager outline may be perceived the justification and force of section 10. It prohibits discrimination by a carrier engaged in interstate commerce, in the employment under the circumstances hereafter mentioned or the discharge from employment of members of labor organizations "because of such membership." This the opinion condemns. The actions prohibited, it is asserted, are part of the liberty of a carrier protected by the Constitution of the United States from limitation or regulation. I may observe that the declaration is clear and unembarrassed by any material benefit to the carrier from its exercise. It may be exercised with reason or without reason, though the business of the carrier is of public concern. This, then, is the contention, and I bring its elements into bold relief to submit against them what I deem to be stronger considerations, based on the statute and sustained by authority.

I take for granted that the expressions of the opinion of the court, which seems to indicate that the provisions of section 10 are illegal because their violation is made criminal, are used only for description and incidental emphasis, and not as the essential ground of the objections to those provisions.

I may assume at the outset that the liberty guaranteed by the fifth amendment is not a liberty free from all restraints and limitations, and this must be so or government could not be beneficially exercised in many cases. Therefore in judging of any legislation which imposes restraints or limitations the inquiry must be, what is their purpose and is the purpose within one of the powers of government? Applying this principle immediately to the present case without beating about in the abstract, the inquiry must be whether section 10 of the act of Congress has relation to the purpose which induced the act and which it was enacted to accomplish, and whether such purpose is in aid of interstate commerce and not a mere restriction upon the liberty of carriers to employ whom they please, or to have business relations with whom they please. In the inquiry there is necessarily involved a definition of interstate commerce and of what is a regulation of it. As to the first, I may concur with the opinion; as to the second, an immediate and guiding light is afforded by the case of *Howard v. Illinois R. R.*, recently decided. In that case there was a searching scrutiny of the powers of Congress, and it was held to be competent to establish a new rule of liability of the carrier to his employees—in a word, competent to regulate the relations of master and servant, a relation apparently remote from commerce, and one which was earnestly urged by the railroad to be remote from commerce. To the contention the court said: "But we may not test the power of Congress to regulate commerce solely by abstractly considering the broad subject to which a regulation relates, irrespective of whether the regulation in question is one of interstate commerce. On

the contrary, the test of power is not merely the matter regulated, but whether the regulation is directly one of interstate commerce or is embraced within the grant conferred on Congress to use all lawful means necessary and appropriate to the execution of that power to regulate commerce." In other words, that the power is not confined to a regulation of the mere movement of goods or persons.

And there are other examples in our decisions—examples, too, of liberty of contract and liberty of forming business relations (made conspicuous as grounds of decision in the present case)—which were compelled to give way to the power of Congress. (*Northern Securities Company v. United States*, 193 U. S. 200.) In that case exactly the same definitions were made as made here and the same contentions were pressed as are pressed here. The *Northern Securities Company* was not a railroad company. Its corporate powers were limited to buying, selling and holding stock, bonds and other securities, and, it was contended, that as such business was not commerce at all it could not be within the power of Congress to regulate. The contention was not yielded to, though it had the support of members of this court. Asserting the application of the antitrust act of 1890 to such business and the power of Congress to regulate it, the court said "that a sound construction of the Constitution allows to Congress a large discretion 'with respect to the means by which the powers it [the commerce clause] confers are to be carried into execution, which enables that body to perform the high duties assigned to it, in the manner most beneficial to the people.'" It was in recognition of this principle that it was declared in *United States v. Joint Traffic Association*, 171 U. S. 571: "The prohibition of such contracts [contracts fixing rates] may in the judgment of Congress be one of the reasonable necessities of proper regulation of commerce, and Congress is the judge of such necessity and propriety, unless, in case of a possible gross perversion of the principle, the courts might be applied to for relief." The contentions of the parties in the case invoked the declaration. There as here an opposition was asserted between the liberty of the railroads to contract with one another and the power of Congress to regulate commerce. That power was pronounced paramount, and it was not perceived, as it seems to be perceived now, that it was subordinate and controlled by the provisions of the fifth amendment. Nor was the relation of the power of Congress to that amendment overlooked. It was commented upon and reconciled. And there is nothing whatever in *Gibbons v. Ogden*, 9 Wheat. 1, or in *Lottery Case*, 188 U. S. 321, which is to the contrary.

From these considerations we may pass to an inspection of the statute of which section 10 is a part, and inquire as to its purpose, and if the means which it employs has relation to that purpose and to interstate commerce. The provisions of the act are explicit and present a well coordinated plan for the settlement of disputes between carriers and their employees, by bringing the disputes to arbitration and accommodation, and thereby prevent strikes and the public disorder and derangement of business that may be consequent upon them. I submit no worthier purpose can engage legislative attention or be the object of legislative action, and, it might be urged, to attain which the Congressional judgment of means should not be brought under a rigid limitation and condemned, if it contribute in

any degree to the end, as a "gross perversion of the principle" of regulation, the condition which, it was said in *United States v. Joint Traffic Association*, supra, might justify an appeal to the courts.

We are told that labor associations are to be commended. May not then Congress recognize their existence; yes, and recognize their power as conditions to be counted with in framing its legislation? Of what use would it be to attempt to bring bodies of men to agreement and compromise of controversies if you put out of view the influences which move them or the fellowship which binds them—maybe controls and impels them, whether rightfully or wrongfully, to make the cause of one the cause of all? And this practical wisdom Congress observed—observed, I may say, not in speculation or uncertain prevision of evils, but in experience of evils—an experience which approached to the dimensions of a national calamity. The facts of history should not be overlooked nor the course of legislation. The act involved in the present case was preceded by one enacted in 1888 of similar purport. (25 Stat. 501.) That act did not recognize labor associations, or distinguish between the members of such associations and the other employees of carriers. It failed in its purpose, whether from defect in its provisions or other cause we may only conjecture. At any rate, it did not avert the strike at Chicago in 1894. Investigation followed, and, as a result of it, the act of 1898 was finally passed. Presumably its provisions and remedy were addressed to the mischief which the act of 1888 failed to reach or avert. It was the judgment of Congress that the scheme of arbitration might be helped by engaging in it the labor associations. Those associations unified bodies of employees in every department of the carriers, and this unity could be an obstacle or an aid to arbitration. It was attempted to be made an aid, but how could it be made an aid if, pending the efforts of "mediation and conciliation" of the dispute, as provided in section 2 of the act, other provisions of the act may be arbitrarily disregarded, which are of concern to the members in the dispute? How can it be an aid, how can controversies which may seriously interrupt or threaten to interrupt the business of carriers (I paraphrase the words of the statute), be averted or composed if the carrier can bring on the conflict or prevent its amicable settlement by the exercise of mere whim and caprice? I say mere whim or caprice, for this is the liberty which is attempted to be vindicated as the constitutional right of the carriers. And it may be exercised in mere whim and caprice. If ability, the qualities of efficient and faithful workmanship can be found outside of labor associations, surely they may be found inside of them. Liberty is an attractive theme, but the liberty which is exercised in sheer antipathy does not plead strongly for recognition.

There is no question here of the right of a carrier to mingle in his service "union" and "nonunion" men. If there were, broader considerations might exist. In such a right there would be no discrimination for the "union" and no discrimination against it. The efficiency of an employee would be its impulse and ground of exercise.

I need not stop to conjecture whether Congress could or would limit such right. It is certain that Congress has not done so by any provision of the act under consideration. Its letter, spirit and purpose are decidedly the other way. It imposes, however, a restraint, which should be noticed. The carriers may not require an applicant for

employment or an employee to agree not to become or remain a member of a labor organization. But this does not constrain the employment of anybody, be he what he may.

But it is said it can not be supposed that labor organizations will, "by illegal or violent measures, interrupt or impair the freedom of commerce," and to so suppose would be disrespect to a coordinate branch of the Government and to impute to it a purpose "to accord to one class of wage-earners privileges withheld from another class of wage-earners engaged, it may be, in the same kind of labor and serving the same employer." Neither the supposition or the disrespect is necessary, and, it may be urged, they are no more invidious than to impute to Congress a careless or deliberate or purposeless violation of the constitutional rights of the carriers. Besides, the legislation is to be accounted for. It by its letter makes a difference between members of labor organizations and other employees of carriers. If it did not, it would not be here for review. What did Congress mean? Had it no purpose? Was it moved by no cause? Was its legislation mere wantonness and an aimless meddling with the commerce of the country? These questions may find their answers in *In re Debs*, 158 U. S. 504.

I have said that it is not necessary to suppose that labor organizations will violate the law, and it is not. Their power may be effectively exercised without violence or illegality, and it can not be disrespect to Congress to let a committee of the Senate speak for it and tell the reason and purposes of its legislation. The Committee on Education in its report said of the bill: "The measure under consideration may properly be called a voluntary arbitration bill, having for its object the settlement of disputes between capital and labor, as far as the interstate transportation companies are concerned. The necessity for the bill arises from the calamitous results in the way of ill-considered strikes arising from the tyranny of capital or the unjust demands of labor organizations, whereby the business of the country is brought to a standstill and thousands of employees, with their helpless wives and children, are confronted with starvation." And, concluding the report, said: "It is our opinion that this bill, should it become a law, would reduce to a minimum labor strikes which affect interstate commerce, and we therefore recommend its passage."

With the report was submitted a letter from the secretary of the Interstate Commerce Commission, which expressed the judgment of that body, formed, I may presume, from experience of the factors in the problem. The letter said: "With the corporations as employers on one side and the organizations of railway employees as the other, there will be a measure of equality of power and force which will surely bring about the essential requisites of friendly relation, respect, consideration, and forbearance." And again: "It has been shown before the labor commission of England that where the associations are strong enough to command the respect of their employers the relations between employer and employee seem most amicable. For there the employers have learned the practical convenience of treating with one thoroughly representative body instead of with isolated fragments of workmen; and the labor associations have learned the limitations of their powers."

It is urged by defendant in error that "there is a marked distinction between a power to regulate commerce and a power to regulate the affairs of an individual or corporation engaged in such commerce," and how can it be, it is asked, a regulation of commerce to prevent a carrier from selecting his employees or constraining him to keep in his service those whose loyalty to him is "seriously impaired, if not destroyed, by their prior allegiance to their labor unions?" That the power of regulation extends to the persons engaged in interstate commerce is settled by decision. (*Howard v. Illinois Central R. R.*, supra, and the cases cited in Mr. Justice Moody's dissenting opinion.) The other proposition points to no evil or hazard of evil. Section 10 does not constrain the employment of incompetent workmen and gives no encouragement or protection to the disloyalty of an employee or to deficiency in his work or duty. If guilty of either he may be instantly discharged without incurring any penalty under the statute.

Counsel also makes a great deal of the difference between direct and indirect effect upon interstate commerce, and assert that section 10 is an indirect regulation at best and not within the power of Congress to enact. Many cases are cited, which, it is insisted, sustain the contention. I can not take time to review the cases. I have already alluded to the contention, and it is enough to say that it gives too much isolation to section 10. The section is part of the means to secure and make effective the scheme of arbitration set forth in the statute. The contention, besides, is completely answered by *Howard v. Illinois Central R. R.*, supra. In that case, as we have seen, the power of Congress was exercised to establish a rule of liability of a carrier to his employees for personal injuries received in his service. It is manifest that the kind or extent of such liability is neither traffic nor intercourse, the transit of persons or the carrying of things. Indeed such liability may have wider application than to carriers. It may exist in a factory; it may exist on a farm, and in both places, or in commerce—its direct influence might be hard to find or describe. And yet this court did not hesitate to pronounce it to be within the power of Congress to establish. "The primary object," it was said in *Johnson v. Railroad*, 196 U. S. 1, of the safety-appliance act, "was to promote the public welfare by securing the safety of employees and travelers." The rule of liability for injuries is even more round about in its influence on commerce and as much so as the prohibition of section 10. To contend otherwise seems to me to be an oversight of the proportion of things. A provision of law which will prevent or tend to prevent the stoppage of every wheel in every car of an entire railroad system certainly has as direct influence on interstate commerce as the way in which one car may be coupled to another, or the rule of liability for personal injuries to an employee. It also seems to me to be an oversight of the proportions of things to contend that in order to encourage a policy of arbitration between carriers and their employees which may prevent a disastrous interruption of commerce, the derangement of business, and even greater evils to the public welfare, Congress can not restrain the discharge of an employee, and yet can, to enforce a policy of unrestrained competition between railroads, prohibit reasonable agreements between them as to the rates merchandise shall be carried. And mark the contrast of what is prohibited. In the one case the

restraint, it may be, of a whim—certainly of nothing that affects the ability of an employee to perform his duties; nothing, therefore, which is of any material interest to the carrier; in the other case a restraint of a carefully considered policy which had as its motive great material interests and benefits to the railroads, and, in the opinion of many, to the public. May such action be restricted, must it give away to the public welfare, while the other, moved, it may be, by prejudice and antagonism, is entrenched impregnably in the fifth amendment of the Constitution against regulation in the public interest.

I would not be misunderstood. I grant that there are rights which can have no material measure. There are rights which, when exercised in a private business, may not be disturbed or limited. With them we are not concerned. We are dealing with rights exercised in a quasi public business and therefore subject to control in the interest of the public.

I think the judgment should be affirmed.

Mr. Justice Holmes, dissenting, said:

I also think that the statute is constitutional, and but for the decision of my brethren I should have felt pretty clear about it.

As we all know, there are special labor unions of men engaged in the service of carriers. These unions exercise a direct influence upon the employment of labor in that business, upon the terms of such employment and upon the business itself. Their very existence is directed specifically to the business, and their connection with it is at least as intimate and important as that of safety couplers, and, I should think, as the liability of master to servant, matters which, it is admitted, Congress might regulate, so far as they concern commerce among the States. I suppose that it hardly would be denied that some of the relations of railroads with unions of railroad employees are closely enough connected with commerce to justify legislation by Congress. If so, legislation to prevent the exclusion of such unions from employment is sufficiently near.

The ground on which this particular law is held bad is not so much that it deals with matters remote from commerce among the States, as that it interferes with the paramount individual rights secured by the fifth amendment. The section is, in substance, a very limited interference with freedom of contract, no more. It does not require the carriers to employ anyone. It does not forbid them to refuse to employ anyone, for any reason they deem good, even where the notion of a choice of persons is a fiction and wholesale employment is necessary upon general principles that it might be proper to control. The section simply prohibits the more powerful party to exact certain undertakings, or to threaten dismissal or unjustly discriminate on certain grounds against those already employed. I hardly can suppose that the grounds on which a contract lawfully may be made to end are less open to regulation than other terms. So I turn to the general question whether the employment can be regulated at all. I confess that I think that the right to make contracts at will that has been derived from the word liberty in the amendments has been stretched to its extreme by the decisions; but they agree that sometimes the right may be restrained. Where there is, or generally is believed to be, an important ground of public policy for restraint

the Constitution does not forbid it, whether this court agrees or disagrees with the policy pursued. It can not be doubted that to prevent strikes, and, so far as possible, to foster its scheme of arbitration, might be deemed by Congress an important point of policy, and I think it impossible to say that Congress might not reasonably think that the provision in question would help a good deal to carry its policy along. But suppose the only effect really were to tend to bring about the complete unionizing of such railroad laborers as Congress can deal with, I think that object alone would justify the act. I quite agree that the question what and how much good labor unions do, is one on which intelligent people may differ—I think that laboring men sometimes attribute to them advantages, as many attribute to combinations of capital disadvantages, that really are due to economic conditions of a far wider and deeper kind—but I could not pronounce it unwarranted if Congress should decide that to foster a strong union was for the best interest, not only of the men, but of the railroads and the country at large.

DECISIONS UNDER COMMON LAW.

EMPLOYER AND EMPLOYEE—RELATION—STUDENT FIREMAN—FRAUDULENT REPRESENTATIONS—EFFECT ON LIABILITY—*Norfolk and Western Railway Company v. Bondurant's Administrator, Supreme Court of Appeals of Virginia, 59 Southeastern Reporter, page 1091.*—In this case action was brought to recover for the death of one Bondurant, who was accidentally killed while acting as a student fireman on an engine of the Norfolk and Western Railway Company. The evidence disclosed the fact that Bondurant had practiced fraud in order to secure his position, representing that he was more than 21 years of age, a rule of the company prohibiting the employment of minors in such position without the consent of the parent or guardian. The case was tried in the circuit court of Amherst County, which gave judgment for the plaintiff. The trial proceeded upon the assumption that the relation of master and servant actually existed. This position was denied by the railroad company, and on appeal the supreme court ruled that the relation of master and servant did not exist and that no damages were recoverable in the circumstances. The principal features of the opinion of the court, which was delivered by Judge Keith, are reproduced:

A student fireman may, or may not, be an employee. Whether he is or not in a particular case depends upon circumstances.

In *Weisser v. Southern Pacific Ry. Co.*, 148 Cal. 426, 83 Pac. 439, cited by defendant in error, it was held that a student brakeman, on freight trains of defendant at his own request and by permission of defendant, for the purpose of gaining experience to render him competent to act as a regular brakeman, and who was entirely subject to defendant's orders, and was required to perform such ordinary duties of brakeman as were allotted to him, was a fellow-servant of the other brakemen, although he was receiving no pecuniary compensation.

So, in *Barstow v. Old Colony R. Co.*, 143 Mass. 535, 10 N. E. 255, it was held that if a person undertake voluntarily to perform service for a corporation, and the agent of such corporation assents to his performing such service, he stands in the relation of a servant of the corporation while so engaged, which is the proposition in this case for which we presume it was cited by the defendant in error, and as to the correctness of which there can be no doubt.

In *Millsap's Adm'r v. Louisville, etc., Ry. Co.*, 69 Miss. 423, 13 South. 696, it was held that one who by permission of a railway company acts as fireman of its locomotive is a servant of the company, though he acts without compensation merely to learn the business. He was also held to be a fellow-servant of the train dispatcher, whose negligence caused the injury, and therefore a recovery was denied.

But in none of these cases was there misrepresentation as to age or a rule prohibiting the employment of infants.

In all of these cases there is an absence of two circumstances upon which plaintiff in error rests its case: First, that the railroad company prohibited the employment of an infant; and, second, that the deceased, by misrepresenting his age, obtained permission to ride upon the engine where he was injured.

Cases of negligence have become so numerous that it is impossible to discuss all that bear upon the subject, and therefore it becomes necessary to select those which are most pertinent.

In the case of *Fitzmaurice v. N. Y., N. H. & H. R. Co.*, 192 Mass. 159, 78 N. E. 418, 6 L. R. A. (N. S.) 1146, the facts were as follows: The plaintiff, while riding upon a train of the defendant, was injured by a collision, and no question was made that she would have been entitled to a verdict in her favor if she had been a passenger. She was a minor, and was riding upon a three-months season ticket which was good only for students under 18 years of age. She had obtained this ticket by presenting to the defendant's ticket agent a certificate, purporting to be signed by her father, that she was under 18 years of age and was a pupil in the Hollander Art School, Boston, and agreeing that she would not use the ticket otherwise than in going to and from school, and also presenting a certificate, purporting to be signed by "J. F. Miner, Principal, Hollander Art School, Boylston Street, Boston, Mass.," that she was a pupil in his school and as he fully believed intended to remain so for the next three months. She was at this time over 18 years of age, as she testified, lived in Marlboro, and was employed in Hollander's dry goods store in Boston. The regular price for a season ticket was \$32. The reduced rate for students under 18 years of age, at which the plaintiff procured it, was \$16. She had been riding upon this ticket nearly every day, except Sunday, for over a month, and the coupons had been received by the conductor. Upon the face of the ticket were the words: "Good only for a person under 18 years of age." The jury having found the amount of the plaintiff's damages, if she was entitled to recover, the judge ordered a verdict for the defendant. Upon this state of facts, the supreme court of Massachusetts held:

"The defendant had the right to establish a reduced rate for students under a fixed age. * * * The plaintiff knew that she did not come within the class to which this offer of a reduced rate was made, and obtained her ticket by presenting certificates of facts

which she knew to be false. She thus obtained by false representations a ticket to which she knew that she was not entitled. Whatever rights she had to be regarded as a passenger on the defendant's train she had acquired solely by the fraud which she had practiced upon the defendant. She had no right to profit by her fraud. She had no right to rely upon the consent of the railway company to her entering its train as a passenger, when she had obtained that consent merely by gross misrepresentations. Accordingly she was not lawfully upon the defendant's train. She was in no better position than that of a mere trespasser. This principle has been affirmed in other jurisdictions. Thus it has been held that a person traveling over a railroad on a free pass or a mileage ticket which had been issued to another name and was not transferable was barred by his fraudulent conduct from recovering for a personal injury, unless it was due to negligence so gross as to show a willful injury. If the plaintiff had fraudulently evaded the payment of any fare, she certainly would not have become a passenger, and the defendant's utmost duty to her while she was upon its train would have been to abstain from doing her any willful or reckless injury. But such a case can not be distinguished in principle from the case at bar, in which the plaintiff obtained her ticket at a reduced price by successfully practicing a fraud. The only relation which existed between the plaintiff and defendant was induced by her fraud; and she can not be allowed to set up that relation against the defendant as a basis of recovery.

This case is annotated in 6 L. R. A. (N. S.) 1146, and a number of cases not cited in the opinion are mentioned in the note; and it seems to us to be not only good law, but good morals, as well. It so completely covers the case under consideration, and is so well supported by the reasoning of the court and the authorities cited, that we are content to rest upon it.

Defendant in error relies also upon the argument that there was no relation between the misrepresentation of Bondurant as to his age and the accident by which he was injured.

It is true that his being an infant in no way contributed to the accident. It is equally true that in *Fitzmaurice v. Railroad*, supra, the fact that plaintiff was over 18 years of age in no wise contributed to the accident. Doubtless the accident would have taken place, whether Bondurant had been upon the engine or not; but, if he had not been upon the engine, he would not have been injured by the collision. The controlling question in this case, however, is: In what relation did the intestate of the defendant in error stand to the railroad company at the time of the injury, and what duty did the railroad company owe to him? It is as true of him as it was of Miss Fitzmaurice that the only relation which existed between him and the railroad company was induced by fraud. But for his fraud and misrepresentation, he could never have been upon the engine. He was, therefore, a trespasser, or at most a bare licensee, to whom the railroad company stood in no contractual relation and owed no other duty than not to injure him recklessly, wantonly, or willfully.

LAWS OF VARIOUS STATES RELATING TO LABOR, ENACTED SINCE JANUARY 1, 1904.

[The Tenth Special Report of this Bureau contains all laws of the various States and Territories and of the United States relating to labor, in force January 1, 1904. Later enactments are reproduced in successive issues of the Bulletin, beginning with Bulletin No. 57, the issue of March, 1905. A cumulative index of these later enactments is to be found on page 657 et seq. of this issue.]

MASSACHUSETTS.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 164.—*Provisions for accidents in factories.*

[See Bulletin No. 73, p. 872.]

CHAPTER 267.—*Hours of labor of women and children—Night work.*

[See Bulletin No. 73, p. 713.]

CHAPTER 269.—*Hours of labor of employees on public works.*

SECTION 1. Section one of chapter five hundred and seventeen of the acts of the year nineteen hundred and six is hereby amended * * * so as to read as follows:

Section 1 (as amended by chapter 570, Acts of 1907). Eight hours shall constitute a day's work for all laborers, workmen and mechanics now or hereafter employed by or on behalf of the Commonwealth, or of any county therein, or of any city or town which has accepted the provisions of section twenty of chapter one hundred and six of the Revised Laws. No laborer, workman or mechanic so employed shall be requested or required to work more than eight hours in any one calendar day or more than forty-eight hours in any one week except in cases of extraordinary emergency. Only a case of danger to property, to life, to public safety or to public health shall be considered a case of extraordinary emergency within the meaning of this section. Engineers shall be considered mechanics within the meaning of this act. But in cases where a weekly half holiday is given the hours of labor upon the other working days of the week may be increased sufficiently to make a total of forty-eight hours for the week's work. Threat of loss of employment or threat to obstruct or prevent the obtaining of employment, or threat to refrain from employing in the future shall be considered requiring, within the meaning of this section. This section shall not apply to persons employed in any State, county or municipal institution, on the farm, or in the care of the grounds, in the stable, in the domestic or kitchen and dining-room service, or in storerooms and offices.

SEC. 2. Section two of said chapter five hundred and seventeen is hereby amended * * * so as to read as follows:

Section 2. Every contract, excluding contracts for the purchase of material or supplies, to which the Commonwealth, or of any county therein, or of any city or town which has accepted the provisions of section twenty of chapter one hundred and six of the Revised Laws, is a party which may involve the employment of laborers, workmen or mechanics shall contain a stipulation that no laborer, workman or mechanic working within this Commonwealth in the employ of the contractor, subcontractor or other person doing or contracting to do the whole or a part of the work contemplated by the contract shall be requested or required to work more than eight hours in any one calendar day and every such contract which does not contain this stipulation shall be null and void.

SEC. 3. Section four of said chapter five hundred and seventeen is hereby amended * * * so as to read as follows:

Section 4. Any person or contractor or subcontractor, or any agent or person acting on behalf of any contractor or subcontractor, or any agent or official of the Commonwealth or of any county, city or town who violates any provision of this act shall be subject to a penalty of fifty dollars for each offense.

Approved April 3, 1907.

CHAPTER 373.—*Examination, etc., of stationary engineers and firemen.*

SECTION 1. Section seventy-eight of chapter one hundred and two of the Revised Laws is hereby amended * * * so as to read as follows:

Section 78. No person shall have charge of or operate a steam boiler or engine in this Commonwealth, except boilers and engines upon locomotives, motor road vehicles, boilers and engines in private residences, boilers in apartment houses of less than five flats, boilers and engines under the jurisdiction of the United States, boilers and engines used for agricultural purposes exclusively, boilers and engines of less than eight horsepower, and boilers used for heating purposes exclusively which are provided with a device approved by the chief of the district police limiting the pressure carried to fifteen pounds to the square inch, unless he holds a license as hereinafter provided. The owner or user of a steam boiler or engine, other than boilers or engines above excepted, shall not operate or cause to be operated a steam boiler or engine for a period of more than one week, unless the person in charge of and operating it is duly licensed.

SEC. 2. Section eighty-two of said chapter one hundred and two, as amended * * * is hereby further amended by striking out said section and inserting in place thereof the following:

Section 82. Licenses shall be granted according to the competence of the applicant and shall be distributed in the following classes:—Engineers' licenses:—First class, to have charge of and operate any steam plant. Second class, to have charge of and operate a boiler or boilers, and to have charge of and operate engines, no one of which shall exceed one hundred and fifty horsepower, or to operate a first class plant under the engineer in direct charge of the plant. Third class, to have charge of and operate a boiler or boilers not exceeding in the aggregate one hundred and fifty horsepower, and an engine not exceeding fifty horsepower, or to operate a second class plant under the engineer in direct charge of the plant. Fourth class, to have charge of and operate hoisting and portable engines and boilers. Firemen's licenses:—Extra first class, to have charge of and operate any boiler or boilers. First class, to have charge of and operate any boiler or boilers where the pressure carried does not exceed twenty-five pounds to the square inch, or to operate high-pressure boilers under the engineer or fireman in direct charge thereof. Second class, to operate any boiler or boilers under the engineer or fireman in direct charge thereof. Any person holding a first class or second class fireman's license at the time of the passage of this act shall receive a first class fireman's license under this act. A person holding an extra first class or first class fireman's license may operate a third class plant under the engineer in direct charge of the plant. A person holding an engineer's or fireman's license who desires to have charge of or to operate a particular steam plant or type of plant may, providing he holds an engineer's or fireman's license, if he files with his application a written request signed by the owner or user of said plant for such examination, be examined as to his competence for such service and no other, and if found competent and trustworthy shall be granted a license for such service and no other. No special license shall be granted to give any person charge of a plant over one hundred and fifty horsepower.

SEC. 3. Section eighty-four of said chapter one hundred and two is hereby amended by striking out the said section and inserting in place thereof the following:

Section 84. A person who is aggrieved by the action of an examiner in refusing or revoking a license may appeal therefrom to the remaining examiners, three or more of whom shall together act as a board of appeal, and shall have the power to hear the parties and pass upon the subjects of appeal. If appeal is taken it must be within one month after the decision of the examiner. The appellant may have the privilege of having one first class engineer present during the hearing of his appeal, but he shall take no part therein. The decision of the majority of such examiners so acting as a board of appeal shall be final if approved by the chief of the district police.

SEC. 4. Section eighty-five of said chapter one hundred and two is hereby amended * * * so as to read as follows:

Section 85. An engineer's or fireman's license, granted under the provisions of the seven preceding sections or the corresponding provisions of earlier laws, shall be placed so as to be easily read in a conspicuous place in the engine room or boiler room of the plant operated by the holder of such license. The person in charge of a stationary steam boiler upon which the safety valve is set to blow off at more than twenty-five pounds pressure to the square inch, except boilers upon locomotives, motor road vehicles, boilers in private residences, boilers in apartment houses of less than five flats, boilers under the jurisdiction of the United States, boilers used for agricultural purposes exclusively, and boilers of less than eight horsepower, shall

keep a daily record of the boiler, its condition when under steam and all repairs made and work done on it, upon forms to be obtained upon application from the boiler inspection department. These records shall be kept on file and shall be accessible at all times to the members of the boiler inspection department.

Approved May 4, 1907.

CHAPTER 465.—*Inspection of steam boilers.*

[See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 872-876.]

CHAPTER 537.—*Inspection of factories and workshops—Inspectors of health.*

SECTION 1. The State board of health shall, as soon as may be after the passage of this act, divide the Commonwealth into not more than fifteen districts, to be known as health districts, in such manner as it may deem necessary or proper for carrying out the purposes of this act.

SEC. 2. After the division aforesaid has been made, the governor, with the advice and consent of the council, shall appoint in each health district one practical and discreet person, learned in the science of medicine and hygiene, to be State inspector of health in that district. Every nomination for such office shall be made at least seven days prior to the appointment. The said State inspectors of health shall hold their offices for a period of five years from the time of their respective appointments, but shall be liable to removal from office by the governor and council at any time.

SEC. 3. Every State inspector of health * * * shall inform himself concerning the health of all minors employed in factories within his district, and, whenever he may deem it advisable or necessary, he shall call the ill health or physical unfitness of any minor to the attention of his or her parents or employers and of the State board of health.

SEC. 5. The State inspectors of health shall, under the direction of the State board of health and in place of the inspection department of the district police, enforce the provisions of section forty-one of chapter one hundred and four of the Revised Laws so far as said section provides that factories shall be well ventilated and kept clean, sections forty-one, forty-four and forty-seven to sixty-one, inclusive, of chapter one hundred and six of the Revised Laws, chapter three hundred and twenty-two of the acts of the year nineteen hundred and two, chapter four hundred and seventy-five of the acts of the year nineteen hundred and three, chapter two hundred and thirty-eight of the acts of the year nineteen hundred and five, and chapter two hundred and fifty of the acts of the year nineteen hundred and six; and the powers and duties heretofore conferred and imposed upon the members of said inspection department of the district police by section eight of chapter one hundred and eight of the Revised Laws in respect to the foregoing sections and acts, and in respect to all acts in amendment thereof or in addition thereto, and in respect to any other laws, are hereby conferred and imposed upon said State inspectors of health or such other officers as the State board of health may from time to time appoint: *Provided, however,* That neither said board of health nor any inspector thereof shall have authority to require structural alterations to be made in buildings, but shall report the necessity therefor to the inspection department of the district police. Wherever in said provisions of law the words "inspector" or "inspectors of factories and public buildings," "inspection department of the district police," "inspector" or "inspectors of the district police," "district police," "factory inspector" or "inspectors," and "member" or "members of the district police" occur, they shall be taken to mean State inspector or inspectors of health. Wherever the words "chief of the district police" occur, they shall be taken to mean the State board of health.

SEC. 6. The governor, with the advice and consent of the council, shall establish the salaries of said State inspectors of health, having regard in each district to the extent of territory, the number of inhabitants, the character of the business there carried on, and the amount of time likely to be required for the proper discharge of the duties. The salaries thus established shall be paid from the treasury of the Commonwealth monthly.

SEC. 7. There may be expended out of the treasury of the Commonwealth annually, for the purposes specified in this act, for salaries, a sum not exceeding twenty-five thousand dollars, and for other expenses, a sum not exceeding five thousand dollars.

SEC. 8. For the purpose of carrying out the provisions of this act the State board of health may employ from time to time experts in sanitation.

Approved June 19, 1907.

CHAPTER 577.—*Weekly day of rest.*

SECTION 1. Except in cases of emergency or except at the request of the employee, it shall not be lawful for any person, partnership, association or corporation to require an employee engaged in any commercial occupation, or in the work of any industrial process, or in the work of transportation or communication, to do on the Lord's day the usual work of his occupation, unless such employee is allowed during the six days next ensuing twenty-four consecutive hours without labor.

SEC. 2. This act shall not be construed as authorizing any work on the Lord's day not now authorized by law; nor as applying to farm or personal service, to druggists, to watchmen, to superintendents or managers, to janitors, or to persons engaged in the transportation, sale or delivery of milk, food or newspapers.

SEC. 3. Whoever violates the provisions of this act shall be punished by a fine of not more than fifty dollars for each offense.

Approved June 28, 1907.

MICHIGAN.

ACTS OF 1907.

ACT No. 124.—*Guards to be placed on corn huskers.*

[See Bulletin No. 73, p. 882.]

ACT No. 140.—*Fire escapes on factories.*

[See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 878, 879.]

ACT No. 152.—*Iron foundries—Inspection, etc.*

[See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 882, 883.]

ACT No. 169.—*Factories and workshops—Inspection, etc.*

[See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 722, 879-881.]

ACT No. 234.—*Railroads—Safety appliances.*

SECTION 1. It shall hereafter be unlawful for any common carrier owning or operating any portion of a railroad wholly or partly in this State to haul or permit to be hauled or used on its line within this State any car used in moving traffic not equipped with couplers coupling automatically by impact, and which can be uncoupled without the necessity of men going between the ends of the cars: *Provided*, That nothing in this act contained shall apply to trains composed of four-wheeled cars or to trains composed of eight-wheeled standard logging cars where the height of such car from top of rail to center of coupling does not exceed twenty-five inches, or to locomotives used in hauling such trains when such cars or locomotives are exclusively used for the transportation of logs.

SEC. 2. Any such common carrier hauling or permitting to be hauled or used on its line any car in violation of the provisions of this act shall be liable to a penalty of not more than one hundred dollars for each and every such violation, to be recovered in an action of assumpsit brought in the name of the people of this State, and it shall be the duty of the prosecuting attorney of the proper county to bring any such action at the request of the commissioner of railroads.

SEC. 3. Act number one hundred forty-seven of the public acts of eighteen hundred eighty-five [secs. 5511, 5512, C. L.] and all other acts or parts of acts contravening any of the provisions of this act are hereby repealed.

Approved June 27, 1907.

ACT No. 252.—*Mattress factories—Hair picking machines.*

[See Bulletin No. 73, p. 883.]

ACT No. 281.—*Free public employment offices.*

SECTION 1. Free employment bureaus are hereby authorized to be created in cities in this State, having a population of thirty thousand or over, for the purpose of receiving applications of persons seeking employment, and applications of persons seeking to employ labor. Such bureaus shall be designated and known as Michigan free employ-

SEC. 2. The commissioner of labor shall organize, establish and control the free employment bureaus authorized by section one of this act: *Provided*, That not more than five such bureaus shall be established, and that no two thereof shall be located within a radius of twenty-five miles. No compensation or fee shall be charged or received, directly or indirectly, from persons applying for employment or help through any such bureau. It shall be the duty of said commissioner of labor to use all diligence in securing the cooperation of employers of labor with the purpose and objects of said employment bureaus. To this end it shall be competent for said commissioner to advertise in the columns of newspapers or to use other mediums, for such situations as he has applicants to fill, and for such help as may be called for by employers. He may also advertise in a general way for the cooperation of large contractors and employers, in such trade journals or special publications as reach such employers, whether such trade journals are published within the State of Michigan or not, and may pursue such other methods as, in his judgment, will best tend to accomplish the purpose of this act: *Provided further*, That one such bureau, as above provided for, shall be established at the city of Kalamazoo, and one at the city of Saginaw.

SEC. 3. When the commissioner of labor shall establish a free employment bureau under the provisions of this act, the board of State auditors shall provide a suitable office for the same, with necessary furniture, and all printing, binding, blanks, stationery and supplies shall be done and furnished under any contract which the State now has, or shall hereafter have, for similar work with any party or parties, and the expense thereof shall be, in the discretion of the board of State auditors, audited and paid for in the same manner as other State printing and supplies are paid for.

SEC. 4. Said commissioner of labor is authorized to appoint such assistants as may be necessary. All such assistants shall be under the control and direction of the commissioner of labor, and shall receive such compensation as he shall determine. All compensation for services and expenses provided for in this act shall be paid by the State treasurer upon the warrant of the auditor general, in the same manner as other salaries and expenses are paid.

SEC. 5. The sum of five thousand dollars, or so much thereof as may be deemed necessary by the commissioner of labor, is hereby appropriated annually for the fiscal year ending June thirty, nineteen hundred eight, and for each fiscal year thereafter, out of which shall be paid all salaries, advertising and contingent expenses authorized by sections two and four of this act.

SEC. 6. The auditor general is hereby directed to add to and incorporate in the State tax for the year nineteen hundred seven, the sum of five thousand dollars, and for each fiscal year thereafter the sum of five thousand dollars, which, when collected, shall be credited to the general fund to reimburse the same for the money hereby appropriated.

SEC. 7. Act number thirty-seven of the public acts of nineteen hundred five, entitled "An act to provide for the establishing and maintaining of free employment bureaus," approved March thirty, nineteen hundred five, is hereby repealed.

Approved June 27, 1907.

ACT No. 313.—*Bureau of Labor.*

SECTION 1. Sections two and four of act number one hundred fifty-six of the public acts of eighteen hundred eighty-three, * * * are hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 2. The duties of such bureau shall be to collect in the manner herein provided, assort, systematize, print and present to the governor, * * * statistical details relating to all departments of labor in this State, including the penal institutions thereof, particularly concerning the hours of labor, the number of laborers and mechanics employed, with the nativity, age and sex of such laborers and mechanics, whether married or single, the daily wages earned and savings therefrom, the number and character of accidents, the sanitary conditions of establishments or institutions where labor is employed, the subjects of strikes, cooperation, labor difficulties, organized labor, their effects on labor and capital, with such other matter relating to the industrial, social, educational and sanitary conditions of the laboring classes and to the productive industries of the State, including the names of firms, companies or corporations where located, capital invested in grounds, buildings and machinery, the kinds of goods produced, or manufactured, the time operated each year, the amount paid annually for materials, rent, taxes, and insurance, the number of employees, male and female, the number engaged in clerical work and manual labor, with a classification of the number of each sex engaged in each occupation and the average daily wages paid each. The commissioner of labor is authorized to appoint special agents to represent the bureau, with authority to visit firms and establishments

and to collect such statistics, and perform such other duties as may be required, with like power as if conferred on said commissioner: *Provided*, That the commissioner of labor nor any one connected with his office, shall not publish, make public, nor give to any individual or to the public the separate individual statistics obtained from any manufacturing establishment, but all such statistics must be published in connection with other similar statistics and given to the public in aggregates and averages.

Section 4. The compensation of such commissioner shall be two thousand dollars per annum, and that of his deputy fifteen hundred dollars per annum, which compensation, together with all necessary expenses, including the employment and the paying of the expenses, of such assistants as are provided for in section one of this act, also the expenses provided in section three of this act shall be audited and paid in the same manner as the salaries and expenses of other State officers: *Provided*, The amount thereof, exclusive of the compensation allowed to said commissioner and his deputy, shall not, in any one year, exceed the sum of ten thousand dollars: *And provided further*, That in addition to the above allowance for expenses said bureau shall be authorized to have printed not to exceed four thousand copies of its annual reports for the use of the bureau, for general distribution, and all printing, binding, blanks or map work, and all supplies shall be done or furnished under any contract which the State now has or shall have for similar work with any party or parties, and the expense thereof shall be audited and paid in the same manner as other State printing.

Approved June 28, 1907.

CUMULATIVE INDEX OF LABOR LAWS AND DECISIONS RELATING THERETO.

[This index includes all labor laws enacted since January 1, 1904, and published in successive issues of the Bulletin, beginning with Bulletin No. 57, the issue of March, 1905. Laws enacted previously appear in the Tenth Special Report of the Commissioner of Labor. The decisions indexed under the various headings relate to the laws on the same subjects without regard to their date of enactment and are indicated by the letter "D" in parenthesis following the name of the State. Opinions of the Attorney-General on the construction, etc., of labor laws are similarly indexed, and are indicated by the abbreviation "Op." in parenthesis.]

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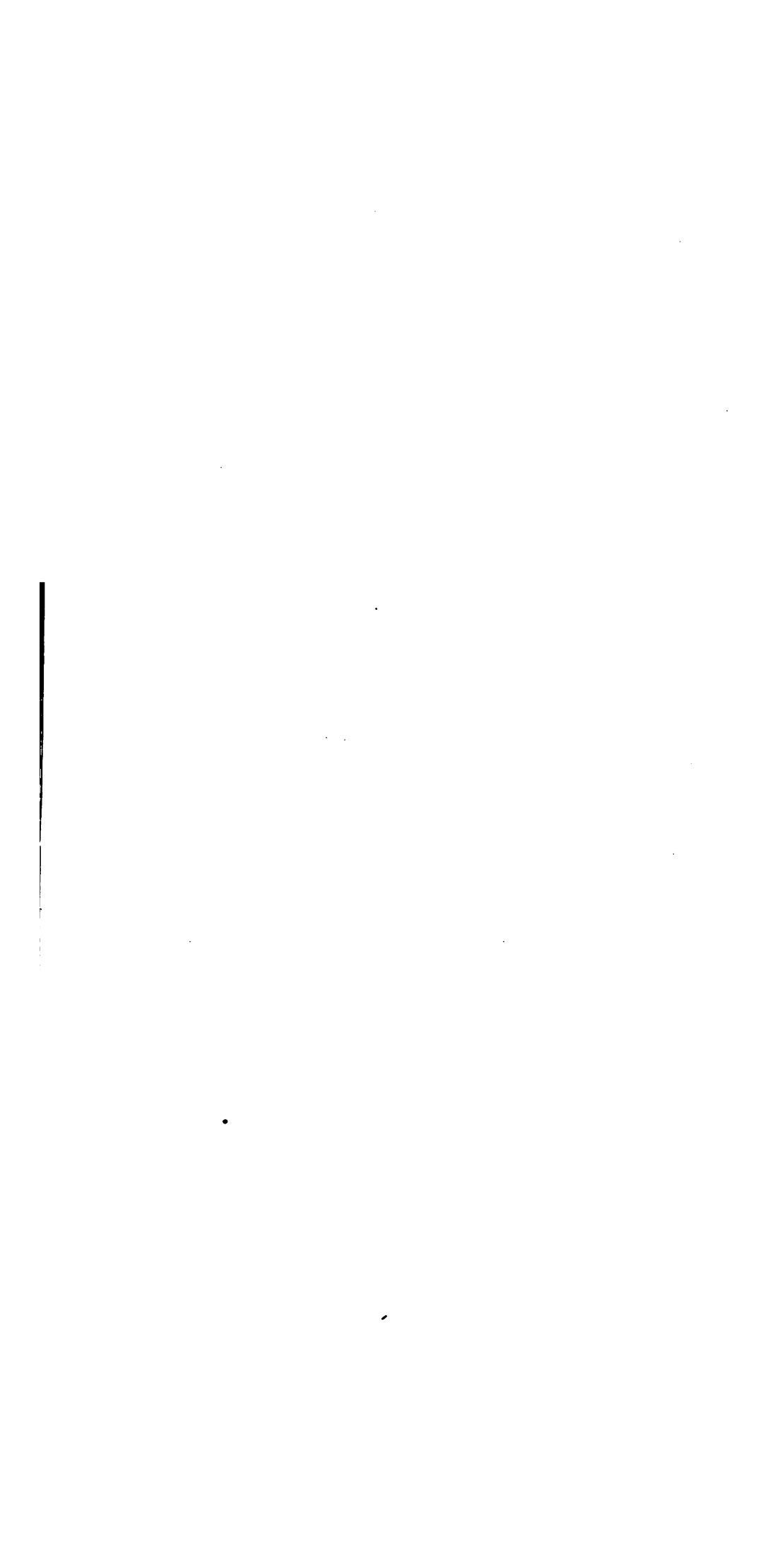
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THE CANADIAN INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES INVESTIGATION ACT
OF 1907.

BY VICTOR S. CLARK, PH. D.

INTRODUCTION.

The Industrial Disputes Investigation Act of Canada became a law March 22, 1907, following several prior acts—the last a consolidation, made only a year before, of previous statutes—for the voluntary conciliation, investigation, and arbitration of labor difficulties. The immediate occasion of the new law was a strike of great local interest and public importance in the coal mines of southern Alberta, which the previous autumn had threatened to leave the prairie Provinces without a winter's supply of fuel. Consequently the dominant motive of the act was to prevent strikes that seriously and directly affect the general welfare. The method of the law in such disputes is to prohibit a cessation of industry, under adequate penalties, until the public is officially informed of the grounds of the controversy.

The act differs from the compulsory arbitration laws of Australasia in that strikes and lockouts are not prohibited after an investigation of their causes has been made. The power of well-informed public opinion is then relied upon to prevent or shorten such disturbances. Another important difference is that the provisions of the Canadian law extend only to public utilities—such as steam and electric railways, power and lighting plants, and similar industries—and to mines. Coal mines may perhaps be considered as public utilities, but the extension to metal mines is a departure from the leading theory of the law.

Therefore the act is the logical first step toward government intervention in labor disputes, if a policy of intervention is to be adopted. *It recognizes the right of the public to continuous service in indus-*

tries established primarily for the general convenience, like its right to continuous military and police protection, and at the same time it preserves the right of workmen and employers to terminate their contracts. It is not, like the compulsory laws of Australasian countries, an attempt to regulate in detail the administration of private business or to control the organization of labor. Yet in requiring a public investigation of certain disputes before permitting a strike, the law goes beyond previous legislation, which became effective only at the option of the parties, and therefore did not constitute true intervention.

The law provides for boards of conciliation and investigation, appointed for each dispute. Each board consists of three members, one selected by the workers, another by the employers, and the third by these two members, or, when they disagree, by the government.

THE LAW AS AN AID TO STRIKE PREVENTION.

As the law is intended to prevent, not to prohibit, strikes and lockouts, and applies to only a limited number of industries, strikes have not ceased entirely in Canada, and occur occasionally even in the industries subject to the act. Four strikes—two in coal mines, one upon a railway, and one among dock laborers—were begun so soon after the act went into force that the workers could fairly plead ignorance of its provisions. In all these cases they resumed work after the law was explained. One lockout in a western coal mine occurred under similar circumstances. The Montreal longshoremen went on a strike in disregard of the act, and the coal miners at Springhill struck after an award had been given. No strikers have been convicted under the penal provisions of the law; but two union officers have been fined for inciting strikes, and one employer has been fined for instituting a lockout.

From March 22, 1907, when the act went into effect, to January 15, 1908, thirty disputes became subject to investigation, though some were settled before a board was appointed or held hearings. One board has been applied for and rendered its decision since the latter date. Five strikes, begun in ignorance or disregard of the law, and one lockout, were ended pending or after investigation, though not in all cases directly by a board. Out of the remaining twenty-five disputes but two resulted in a strike.^(a) Friends of the act claim further that some disputes that otherwise might have resulted in a strike have been settled without a board, because the parties did not want a public investigation.

^a This includes a three days' strike in British Columbia, at the conclusion of a mine award, not mentioned in the official return. After ceasing work three days the men accepted the board's decision. (See Appendix, p. 731.)

It seems, therefore, a fair conclusion that the act has prevented strikes, some of which might have been serious. Opinion differs as to what disputes would have so resulted without the good offices of the boards, and there is no way of deciding this point. An international officer of a railway union, opposed to the law, writes: "There is not one single instance during the past thirty-five years, in this country, much less since the enactment of the Railway Labor Disputes Act, 1903 (which provided for voluntary conciliation), wherein the public has been inconvenienced to any appreciable extent, on account of disputes between railway companies and their employees, that would justify the application of the Industrial Disputes Act, 1907, to them." Nevertheless, in the case of the Canadian Pacific Railway telegraphers, last summer, a very serious strike was threatened, so that the prospective interference with traffic was a matter of much public concern. In the spring of 1908 a troublesome coal mine dispute in Nova Scotia, involving nearly seven thousand men, which many believed would result in a disastrous strike, was settled amicably. In both these cases a settlement might have been secured had no law been in force. But taking the twenty-six disputes that occurred after the provisions of the act were generally known—and this includes the Montreal dockers' strike—the law of averages leads to the belief that more strikes would have followed had they been left to the usual methods of settlement.

INFLUENCE OF THE ACT ON CONDITIONS OF EMPLOYMENT.

Some things are worse than strikes, and if it were certain that the act had affected adversely conditions of employment for the 25,000 men said to be working under board agreements or had prevented normal improvement in those conditions, then, in spite of the strikes prevented, it might be well to repeal the law. At the outset it should be noted that the Canadian act was put in force just before an industrial depression, on the verge of a period of unemployment and falling wages. Therefore in its natal year it was put to a severer test than have been the Australasian laws in the twelve years of their operation. In some cases wages have been lowered, and in others expected increases have been denied. But most of the agreements made under the auspices of the boards have either increased wages or shortened hours of work, and some of them have done both. Such results go further by implication than appears on the surface and show a flexible treatment of wage relations that has not been possible where compulsory arbitration is in force.

Relatively less success has attended the mediation of the boards in mining disputes than in railway negotiations. Possibly the adjust-

ment of piecework rates and the regulation of other conditions peculiar to mines is more difficult for outside authorities than is the adjustment of salaries and wages on railways. Some board decisions have been entirely disregarded by mining companies without bringing on a strike. In more instances the decision of the board has been used as a basis for a settlement by direct negotiation between employers and employees. Indeed, settlements by parties not involved in the original dispute have sometimes been based on board decisions in neighboring mines. In comparatively few cases has a board's decision been accepted without modification by the parties interested. Instead of indicating a weakness of the act, however, this apparent laxness may be a source of strength, for in most such cases it is fair to assume that the board's decision was in some respect defective, as might be expected unless it were made by experts. To enforce such a decision by law would burden both employees and the industry itself with uneconomic regulations.

But the negative result in case of mining disputes is more apparent than real. The recommendations of the boards have favored the demands of the men in most instances, and where the final settlement did not coincide with the recommendation, the latter has usually influenced the terms conceded. Merely by preventing strikes the act has in a sense bettered the condition of mine workers. More decisive have been the cases where an agreement directly improving conditions of employment has been secured through a board. A district president of the United Mine Workers writes: "This result (the satisfactory settlement of three coal-mine disputes) is due to the boards of conciliation and investigation appointed under the Industrial Disputes Act of 1907. Agreements were signed by the respective parties * * *. These agreements give the workmen improved conditions of employment and increases of wages varying from 5 to 17½ per cent. I am convinced that the operation of the act, coupled with the tact of [the chairman of the board] averted a serious strike." These agreements were made just after the financial panic of 1907. The most important case in numbers affected that has been heard under the law was the application of the coal miners of Cape Breton—some 7,000 in all—for an increase of wages in the spring of 1908. The representative of the miners upon the board thus comments on its decision: "The award amounts to a substantial victory for the men, and this, too, in the face of a demoralized coal trade in the Eastern States and the consequent weakness of the coal trade in Montreal, where during the past two months efforts have been made by American coal interests to place orders in competition with coal from Cape Breton. The award adds about \$70,000 to the wages to be paid this year. The amount is based upon last year's business, and will be *mostly distributed among the classes of lowest paid labor, who were*

in the greatest need of an increase." In this case the miners presented the board with a vote of thanks at the conclusion of the settlement.

The disposition of the boards to favor the workers wherever possible is thus described by a large mining employer in British Columbia: "From the beginning [of the board proceedings] it was apparent that if a question involved a close decision, and there was approximately an equal amount in favor of each side, the company would stand absolutely no chance. Our own arbitrator put the case very frankly in telling me that the best we could expect was a recommendation in favor of the wages we had been compelled to concede the union in May, which were exceptionally high. He intimated that there was no chance of an arbitration board's recommending a reduction in wages we had ourselves conceded, regardless of whether or not conditions had changed. Had not the Butte branch of the Western Federation accepted the 50 cents a day reduction provided for in their contract, had not the Rossland and Trail branches voluntarily returned to their old wages, and had not the Boundary mines completely closed down, the arbitration board would unquestionably have recommended the continuance of the present abnormally high wage scale. The facts of the decline in metals, the financial depression, and that a big majority of the mines could not make a dollar at those wages, would not have influenced their decision." This is an instance where a temporary reduction of wages, based on a sliding scale adjusted to the price of metals, was recommended, and the decision of the board was undoubtedly due to the precedent given by reductions voluntarily accepted by miners at other places.

In railway disputes most board recommendations have granted to the workers an increase of wages or other substantial advantages. The number of employees receiving higher wages through such decisions is 3,650. Shorter hours, without an increase of wages, were granted 1,215 carmen. Upon another system 800 carmen, who presented their case in the midst of the season of unemployment following the financial crisis, failed to obtain better wages or shorter hours, though they prevented reductions and secured some improvement in general conditions. A jurisdictional dispute between the engineers and firemen upon the Canadian Northern system was settled without a strike. Clearly, therefore, the board decisions in railway disputes have improved the condition of workers. Whether still better conditions might have been obtained by private negotiations is a matter of argument that an outsider can not pretend to decide. But four of the boards were applied for by employees, who made affidavit that a strike was threatened; and a possible improvement of conditions through a strike must be discounted by the strike to all parties concerned, including the genera

Outside of mines and railways the act has been applied as yet in too few cases to justify conclusions as to its effect on conditions of employment in other industries.

In making their recommendations boards have much more leeway than does an arbitration court. In the first place, one agreement is not necessarily a precedent for its successors. It has not the same force as a court award, and therefore each party is less insistent upon establishing in it immutable principles to govern the future relations of employers and employees in the industry. For instance, the unions in Canada have not insisted in all cases upon a standard wage. They have allowed that under certain circumstances a company should be required to pay what it was able, and that where two companies were operating under conditions so different that the profits of one were larger than the profits of the other the wages paid for the same service by one might be higher than those paid by the other. Moreover they have acceded to a flexible adjustment of wages in neighboring towns or districts, based on the supply of labor as well as the cost of living. Expenses are lower at Stratford than at near-by Toronto, but railway machinists are allowed a higher wage at the former place, because the attractions of the larger city make men prefer to work there. The closed shop has not been urged as it has been in New Zealand and Australia, because the unions assume no responsibility under the act, and therefore have no claim in equity from those administering it. So long as employers do not discriminate against union men after a settlement has been made, this issue may lie dormant. But it threatens trouble even under the present law, if unionists are victims of reprisals for conducting cases before the boards. Finally, the boards have been able to avoid taking up matters that relate to the administration of a business rather than to conditions of employment. They have secured the consent of unions to waiving a claim that promotions in a certain occupation should be exclusively by seniority. In a word, the boards have been able to keep down to fundamental issues and to make the coat fit the individual wearer, so to speak, much better than have the arbitration courts of Australasia.

This is in many ways an advantage. When well established as a rule of action, it lessens the number of complaints brought up for official cognizance. By confining attention to material issues, minor causes of irritation between employers and employees—often more difficult to remove than more important differences—are partly avoided. This clarifies the situation for the public. Wages and hours of work, and sanitary conditions of employment, are things that every man can understand, upon which he can form an intelligent opinion, and in which he is likely to take a real interest. The moral support of the public for the right side in a labor dispute is *more assured when issues are not too complicated.* Nevertheless

the fact can not be overlooked that minor grievances are behind some of the bitterest animosities between employers and workmen. There are times when they have to be considered, and it is well that the law is flexible enough to permit of this being done.

How far the act has affected the condition of workers, by rendering their everyday intercourse with employers more amicable or the reverse, must be left to individual opinion. Many workingmen say that a better feeling prevails now than formerly. Some labor leaders assert that petty grievances are accumulating, and that less true friendliness prevails than before the act went into force. Probably conditions vary in different cases in this respect. But the material condition of the workers subject to the act, as indicated by wages and hours of labor, has clearly improved during its operation.

INFLUENCE OF THE ACT UPON INDUSTRY.

The act has been in force but little over a year, and therefore its influence upon industry is as yet difficult to determine. Nor will this influence ever be susceptible of statistical statement. The saving to industry by the prevention of a single railway or coal strike might reach millions of dollars in Canada, and possibly almost as much in the United States—so closely is the business welfare of the two countries related. Ardent supporters of the law can figure up several millions saved by the act the past year, through the avoidance of two threatened railway strikes—and, if we can be sure the strikes would have occurred without the act, the estimate is well grounded. But, as we can not know what might have happened under those circumstances, speculations of this sort are more alluring than valuable.

But another aspect of the influence of the law upon industry is better worth study. Have agreements made under the law hampered the administration of business, unduly increased costs either for the producer or the consumer, or thrown new burdens on any section of the people for the benefit of another section? These questions are very important in case of compulsory arbitration. They are chiefly interesting for their absence in connection with the Canadian law. That they are almost entirely absent is possibly the most important single thing that can be said about that law. It will be a great gain if Canada succeeds permanently in regulating conditions of employment sufficiently to prevent serious strikes, without interfering with processes of production and exchange so as to disarrange the functions of the business organism. As the act stands at present, this end is attained by limiting the application of the law to a few industries, and by limiting its application within the industry to a few essential matters. The latter limitation comes from the *policy of administration more than from statutory provisions*, instead of

being public orders, are private contracts made under public auspices. Consequently the good judgment of all parties is fully consulted, and the boards can not radically interfere with business conditions. So far the act seems not to have affected industry otherwise than by securing greater continuity of operation. No employer complained that the law hampered his business; and it is not reported to have influenced prices.

ADMINISTRATION AND INTERPRETATION OF THE ACT.

Administration covers two matters, general administration by the minister of labor and procedure by the boards. The two important functions of general administration are to decide what disputes shall be investigated—that is, the extensive jurisdiction of the act—and to select members of boards where the disputants fail to do so or to agree upon a chairman. As subsequent procedure and the success of an investigation depend on the personnel of each board, the latter is the most important single act of administration. The appointments made by the government have in some cases been criticised, not on the ground of the bias of the whole board, but in regard to the propriety of some single member's serving. The main objection has been to the appointment of general officers of labor organizations as representatives by the workers. These appointments have been accepted by the government—and are considered expedient by some well-informed employers—on the ground that these men are often experienced negotiators, who can make a settlement that will carry weight with the workers better than any other person. Attorneys for labor organizations and for employing corporations have served as board members for their respective clients, usually with success. All such appointments are thought improper by those who regard the boards as judicial tribunals. But it has not been the policy of the government or the wish of the disputants, as indicated by their appointees, to secure an absolutely nonpartisan board, but rather a board familiar with conditions and having the confidence of the parties represented. However, if two members of a board are nothing more than partisans of their respective sides they morally simply fill a place at the table, for their presence contributes little or nothing to the settlement of the dispute. In practice the chairman is forced in such cases to negotiate for mutual concessions, over their heads, with the principals whom they represent. Therefore for either side to select a mere tool as its representative is really to weaken its case, for it thus deprives itself of a sympathetic arbitrator to secure an advocate, who is usually unauthorized to make the concessions that go with every settlement, and whose final report on the investigation, if no settlement is made, is discounted by his presumed par-

tiality. The chairmen of the boards, whether agreed upon by the other two members or selected by the government, have in nearly every case been above suspicion as to bias, and in all cases men of integrity. When any bias is suspected a board is nearly sure to result in failure. The system of having temporary boards instead of a permanent board or court, as in New Zealand and Australia, possesses the great advantage that unsuitable men are dropped after one experience, but has the weakness that entirely unfitted men may be selected or appointed in any new dispute. The tendency is to select the same board members repeatedly, so that several boards have been identical in different disputes, and one chairman—a professor of economics—has served acceptably on eleven of the twenty-eight boards that have been established.

The procedure adopted by the boards depends on their interpretation of the act. Two opposite lines of interpretation have developed, one looking toward compulsory arbitration and emphasizing the police features of the law, and the other putting a purely conciliatory construction on that measure. Boards adopting the first interpretation have laid more stress upon a judicial inquisition into the causes of a dispute than upon bringing the parties to an amicable settlement. They have relied upon public opinion and penalties to force the parties into an agreement. This method has failed, and if generally adopted would logically lead to increasing the powers of the boards—in order to get some results—and ultimately to compulsory arbitration. Fortunately most boards have recognized that the spirit and intent of the law is conciliation, and that this can best be secured by informal procedure, leaving penalty features of the law in the background, and depending on mutual understanding and good will even more than upon public opinion for a settlement.

Ultimately procedure usually depends upon the chairman of the board. Some of the least successful chairmen have been judges, though judges and lawyers are in other cases the first to grasp the distinction between conciliatory and judicial proceedings. A judge who organizes a board after the fashion of a court, sets it up on a dais, takes testimony according to legal rules of evidence, enforces legal technicalities, and checks up his witnesses by stenographic proceedings—so far as Canadian experience goes—leaves the parties at the end of their negotiations farther apart than at the beginning, and crystallizes tentative issues into insolvable difficulties. The most successful chairmen have been those who conducted their proceedings in the most informal manner, the members of the board and the representatives presenting the case for the two sides sitting around a table, interviewing witnesses rather than examining them, and talking each other into an agreement. The most important dis-

putes considered under the act have been settled without a stenographic report of the meetings and without taking formal testimony.

Success, then, depends almost entirely upon procedure. An experienced board chairman in Canada said: "The most important work is often done outside of regular sessions of the board. We talk to the different parties individually and get to a mutual understanding that way. We never allow the disputants to leave important matters to the board. We insist that they themselves shall agree on main points. Interpretation can be left to the board, which can be reconvened to clear up points previously considered and settled, but under such circumstances a board should not take up new points. Boards ought not to admit matters of administration purely. It is well to have a preliminary discussion before bringing the parties together, and after the hearing we usually wind up the proceedings without bringing them together again for that purpose. During adjournments the chairman may find it of advantage to alter the form of the proposals submitted by the opposing parties without modifying their substance. We find that it is better to let each man talk himself out with as little interruption as possible, for he is more ready to consider proposals after he has aired his grievances and finished stating his own case. Where differences arise as to questions of fact, little or nothing is gained by swearing witnesses. It then becomes a contest between the two parties each to prove itself right, and neither will modify its statements. But discrepancies in informal testimony can generally be traced to a misunderstanding, and when that is made clear the parties agree."

An eminent lawyer, formerly a justice of the Dominion supreme court, who has served on several boards and who is personally familiar with legal procedure in both the United States and England, said: "The great difficulty you would have in operating such a law in the United States is the tendency of your legislators, courts, and lawyers to sacrifice everything to formality. I fear this spirit would affect even nonlegal tribunals like our conciliation boards. You would allow objections to evidence and such technical frivolities to defeat substantial justice. Your big labor leaders understand the matter much better, and I can see the force of their objection to statutory arbitration in the States. Formalities, differences as to admitting evidence, etc.—often in matters of detail and on minor points involving no general principle—breed a lot of ill feeling and prevent conciliation."

Therefore the government in appointing boards, and the most successful boards in conducting proceedings, have interpreted the act as a statute for conciliation by informal methods, looking toward a voluntary agreement between the parties as its object.

OPERATION OF THE LAW IN PARTICULAR CASES.

Opportunity was afforded the writer of attending conciliation proceedings before two boards. In one case the proceedings involved the claims of an international railway union against the Grand Trunk Railway for advances in wages, overtime, and minor changes in conditions of employment. The session occupied one day and was entirely informal. The more important issues, especially those relating to wages, were last considered. After five hours' discussion only two matters remained, including the wage question, that had not been compromised. Thereupon the board rose, and the members labored individually with the parties on the two sides, who had retired to different rooms on the rising of the board, finally inducing them to accept an agreement relating to the points that remained in dispute. The more important railway settlements have not been concluded so easily; but the procedure has been practically the same. In these railway cases the representatives of the two sides have usually been men of influence, commanding the confidence of the parties who selected them, but independent enough to propose and urge compromises upon their own people.

The second board hearing attended was at Glace Bay, Cape Breton, and involved a settlement of labor conditions among 7,000 coal miners. The proceedings lasted over a week and were attended by many miners. One day was taken by the board to visit certain of the principal mines, agreed upon by the disputants, under the guidance of representatives of both sides. The case for the mining companies was presented by the general manager and the mine superintendents and that for the men by a committee headed by the general secretary of the Provincial Workers' Association, the strongest single labor organization in eastern Canada if not in the Dominion. Several days were employed in hearing testimony, all of which was informal. The spirit of the inquiry was to get at the facts, not to disprove or prove any man's statements. Both parties learned things relating to the conditions in the mines that they did not know before. A settlement, said to be satisfactory to both parties, and expected to remain in force for a considerable period, was finally agreed upon. So far as appeared to an outside observer, the effect of the proceedings was to promote good feeling between the parties as well as to bring them to a business understanding.

Failure in regard to a negotiation is relative; for though a settlement may not have been reached, and a strike may even occur after a board has reported, that report may afford a basis for a future settlement. Two of the most notable failures in this relative sense are the Montreal harbor strike and the Springhill coal dispute. The board in the Montreal case was instituted after a strike - actually

under way. The longshoremen have worked for a number of years under an agreement which could be terminated at a certain date each year by either party. Differences arose early in 1907, when the men demanded increased pay for the new season. As Montreal is a closed port during the winter, stevedoring is a seasonal occupation. The Shipping Federation declined to consider the proposals of the men, and without formal action by the union the latter ceased work. What is sometimes called a "runaway" strike occurred, for which the union disclaims responsibility. The employers petitioned for a board under the new law, and this was granted; but before members were appointed the Shipping Federation, which was getting the upper hand of the strike, withdrew its application. Later the union, seeing that it was losing ground, asked for a board, and this request was granted. Employers criticise this action of the government, saying that they had won their battle with the men, and the board afforded the latter an opportunity to fight over the same issue with new procedure. The new board, of which the Archbishop of Montreal was chairman, gave a decision which the men refused to accept, but which was substantially put in force by the Shipping Federation. This decision gave the men an increase of wages about as great as they had asked for in the beginning—and higher than had been voluntarily conceded by employers before the board reported. In a word, a strike in fact—whether technically a strike or not—was begun without appealing to the act; the men went to work, after some concessions by the employers, without the union's declaring the strike off and before a board was appointed; and after a board decision was obtained it was put into effect by employers without being accepted by the union. Apparently the existence of the act had no influence upon the men in regard to striking, and the employers claim that it had no influence in making the men return to work. But the board did afford a means of making public conditions of employment on the wharves, and proposed a settlement which is, in its main features, in actual operation.

The Springhill coal dispute occurred in a group of coal mines at Springhill, Nova Scotia. These mines have been worked many years and constitute the only important industry in a thriving town of some 6,000 people. Most of the miners are Canadians or British, and are home owners and intelligent men. They belong to the Provincial Workers' Association, a strong local organization not associated with other labor unions. Many strikes have occurred in these mines, though none has been attended with lawlessness. About the time the act of 1907 went into effect the men struck to enforce the closed shop, being under the impression that the new law did not apply to Nova Scotia; but they soon returned to work and were not prosecuted for violating the act.

Soon new difficulties arose in connection with payment for pillar work and other mining operations. The company applied for a board. Unfortunately the chairman, a justice of the provincial supreme court, organized the board as he might a court, enforced rather strict legal procedure, and made the men think that they were at the mercy of legal technicalities and would be denied substantial justice because they were not lawyers. Consequently they only awaited the decision of the board, which was in their favor as to minor points but against them on the main issue, to strike. The strike lasted three months, when the men returned to work on the company's terms. Meanwhile new differences arose, and while the strike was on two new boards held hearings, one of which reviewed a point decided by the previous board. The company for this reason refused to take part in the proceedings. The technical objection was also raised that the board had no authority, as the men who applied for it were on a strike, and therefore not employees of the company. Local politics were involved with the constitution and procedure of the later boards. A fourth board has recently been applied for by men working for the same employers. So far as any real settlement of the labor difficulties at Springhill is concerned, the act has been inoperative. The appointment of a number of boards in quick succession deprived the recommendations of any one board of moral weight. It did not appear that the board decisions had any influence on public opinion. Few people knew what these decisions had been.

Against the two failures or partial failures must be placed the far larger number of successes, where settlements—though not in every case quite satisfactory to all parties—have been accepted. It should be remembered, too, that the law has been in operation only a year; that it has been worked, in many cases, by men inexperienced in arbitrating industrial disputes, and that neither employers nor unions have fully understood the law or their rights and responsibilities under it. Unless very bitter controversies between capital and labor arise the coming year, more difficult to settle than those of the immediate past, it is probable that the act will have relatively greater success in the future.

Employers and employees both show a disposition to appeal to the act, though three-fourths of the applications are from workmen. There is little evidence that the law has, like those of New Zealand and Australia, fostered disputes by making litigation easy. In 1907 the number of disputes in transportation industries was 14, or the same number as the previous year, when no law was in force; difficulties involving longshoremen increased from 1 to 3, but they have averaged about 3 a year since 1900; mining disputes numbered 14, as compared with 13 the preceding year. As the findings of the board will not be accepted by either party if it considers them un-

reasonable, the issues brought up for settlement are usually fair subjects of controversy.

The most valuable feature of the act is that it establishes a regular form of procedure for bringing the parties together before a strike or lockout is declared. Cases are very rare where either party wishes to resort to these extreme measures before conciliatory negotiations, but lack of initiative or mutual distrust often prevents the latter from being undertaken unless they are made necessary and official. The punitive features of the act—for punishing men or employers engaging in strikes and lockouts—are probably relatively less important than they appear to the casual observer. They may be a good thing to have in the background, but it is no criticism of the act that they are not always enforced. The reports of the board will doubtless have some weight with public opinion where a conciliatory settlement fails; but their influence on popular sentiment is possibly overestimated by legislators and industrial theorists. Granted that such a report may have weight in case of a threatened strike exciting great public interest, most cases where the act has been applied in Canada have not commanded that interest, and comparatively few people even knew that a report had been given. In minor disputes and those involving technical issues, such as the regulations to govern railway telegraphers and train dispatchers, the average person can not form an intelligent opinion of the justice of a report. Finally, where very important matters are at stake and the parties are really wrought up over the questions in dispute, a board decision it is not likely to be unanimous. The main reliance of the act must be the greater chance of securing a voluntary settlement under its provisions. But even where an agreement fails, the influence of the board's report will be good. It is not a complete remedy—it will not always induce workmen to refrain from an unjust strike or force employers to grant just concessions—but it will in most cases pave the way to a right settlement.

ATTITUDE OF EMPLOYERS TOWARD THE ACT.

The attitude of both employers and workers toward the act must be discounted somewhat on account of political bias. On party grounds many conservatives disparage, if they do not oppose, the law. Among the liberals there is some indiscriminating praise of the act, and occasionally a tendency to minimize its defects and attribute even honest criticism to party motives. These conditions are not only generally recognized in public discussion, but are obvious to a stranger. A very fair-minded labor leader writes in April, 1908: "My personal opinion is, that after the atmosphere is clear of politics, which may be about October, the Disputes Act will be given credit for all it is worth." *These ulterior influences underlying both public and pri-*

vate discussion make it more difficult to get a true opinion of the working of the law from either side.

However, all employers agree to the "principle" of the act. They sometimes feel aggrieved by the way it has been administered. In this respect they take precisely the position assumed by most employers in New Zealand and Australia with regard to compulsory arbitration, and use almost the same phrases in discussion. The secretary of the largest association of employers in the Dominion said in a recent address: "Generally speaking, the verdict of employers, so far as I have been able to gather, is favorable to the act. There are, of course, some exceptions, but the consensus of opinion, even where everything did not go the way the employer wanted it, seems to be that the act on the whole is a good thing." No employer was found who was not favorable to the law, as better than no legislation, so far as it applied to railways. Most employers say they prefer to have the law in force in their own business, though there are exceptions to this. All employers interviewed who have had actual experience with the act in the industry they are connected with favor its general policy, if not all its details.⁽⁹⁾

Some employers—including the largest in Canada—are outright partisans of compulsory arbitration, and would amend the present act to make the awards of the boards binding on both parties. A prominent railway manager said: "I favor the present act because I think it is better than no law. But I would rather see compulsory arbitration, so both sides would have to obey the awards." This attitude may be due to conditions peculiar to Canada as compared with the United States. For instance, a great railway system or mining company operating in sparsely settled country is often at the mercy of its men in case of a strike. In the New West public sympathy is almost certain to be with the employees against a great corporation. Experience with these conditions makes managers favorable to any method of solving labor disputes that will throw the preponderant influence in settling them farther eastward, to more conservative centers. Even in Nova Scotia, where conditions are quite different, some coal-mine employers want compulsory awards. But this is probably due to the local example of a union striking against a board decision. Other amendments suggested by employers and their representatives are mentioned elsewhere.

⁹ This should be modified by the following statement in a letter received after this report was written, from a prominent mine manager in British Columbia: "It is my opinion that metal mine operators and smelter managers would have preferred that the Lemieux Act had not been passed, as they feel (as is apt to be the case in such acts) that the company will and can be legally and morally bound by its terms, while there is not a great deal of likelihood that the unions will be bound or that the government will enforce fines and punishment upon the laboring men or the unions."

ATTITUDE OF LABOR TOWARD THE ACT.

Only organized labor has been in a position to express an opinion regarding the act. There are five chief bodies of working people concerned directly or indirectly in its provisions. The organized skilled trades of eastern Canada are not directly affected by the law, except in so far as they are employed in connection with railways and other public utilities. Many union officers have little information of the practical working of the act and no intelligent opinion as to its effect on labor interests. But those who have made a study of the subject are favorable to the law. This is especially true of union officers in Montreal and Toronto and of the leading labor representatives in the Dominion Parliament. One of the latter writes: "I am strongly in favor of the principle of the act. I am not, however, wedded to all its provisions. But the act has not been long enough in actual operation to enable me to suggest other amendments than those proposed at the Winnipeg convention of the Dominion Trades and Labor Congress. My impression is that the sentiment in favor of the bill is gradually spreading as the advantages of the act to workmen become more apparent." Similar opinions might be repeated from a score or more other prominent labor leaders, but the above is fairly representative of the sentiment generally found among the organized skilled trades in Ontario, Quebec, and the maritime Provinces.

The leading organizations of railway employees opposed the law at the time of its passage, and still regard it with cold favor. Canadian officers of the international unions of locomotive engineers, firemen, telegraphers, and of the conductors and carmen, both in interviews and correspondence expressed their displeasure at being made subject to the law. Among the rank and file of the members, to judge from a limited number of interviews, this sentiment is not so unanimous. The specific objections are mostly to penalizing strikes begun before an investigation, and they are more fully explained in the comments to sections 56 to 61 of the act which follow. However, eight railway disputes, involving some of the most important unions, have been settled by boards constituted under the act. In fact, the practical value of the law seems to have been more clearly shown in railway difficulties than in any other kind of labor disturbances.

The Provincial Workers' Association of Nova Scotia, which has been mentioned in connection with certain coal-mine disputes, is a composite union, composed chiefly of men working about coal mines, and purely local, though its lodges extend throughout the Province. The organization is criticised by regular trade unionists because of its composite character, in the same way that the principle of organi-

zation of the Knights of Labor is opposed by the strictly trade societies that form the American Federation of Labor. The Provincial Workers' Association is protected by a provincial act allowing its lodges to incorporate by a simple formality, its representatives are usually heard by the Province ministry with regard to local labor legislation, and it wields a large influence in politics. This society adopted a resolution, soon after the passage of the Industrial Disputes Act, in opposition to that measure. When the bill was before the Dominion Parliament a clause was inserted, but afterwards stricken out, providing that where a Province already had an act for the investigation and conciliation of disputes the federal act should not apply. This probably had reference to such an act in Nova Scotia, passed partly through the influence of the Provincial Workers' Association. The sponsors of the local act and other labor leaders opposed to the party in power at Ottawa are reported to have been responsible for the resolution. Labor leaders in Nova Scotia, some of them prominent members of this organization, admit that other than purely trade union or labor motives influenced the convention. However, the Provincial Workers' Association has regularly appealed to the federal law in disputes with employers, and of some twenty or twenty-five members of the organization interviewed none opposed the act in private conversation, and many—including some of the officers—expressed themselves as in its favor. An intelligent coal miner, a member of this order, who has seen the law work under conditions not altogether in its favor, writes: "The more I learn about the Canadian act the more I like it. Strikes are foolish things and come from men's unreasonableness and impatience. The State is the guardian of its people, and does wisely every time it enacts a law that will make it impossible for one class of people to act in any way which must of necessity mean suffering and loss to other people who are not to blame." A leading official of the Provincial Workers' Association writes: "I believe it [the act] is destined to become popular in Canada." These statements are representative of nearly all made by labor men in the maritime Provinces, where the Provincial Workers' Association is far the most important organization.

In the western mining fields there are two not altogether sympathetic associations of workers occupying the same relative position as in the United States—the United Mine Workers and the Western Federation of Miners. The former society was not especially friendly to the law at the time it was passed, but its leaders in Canada are now said to be in favor of its provisions. The members are employed mostly in the Alberta and British Columbia coal mines, where a number of settlements—mostly satisfactory to the union—have been made under the act. The district president has been active in

administering the law, having served on most of the boards in the western coal fields, and attributes many successful settlements to its influence. But local officers said that the sentiment in union meetings showed that the men would prefer not to have the act. An officer whose local was opposed to the law, expressing his private opinion, said: "Speaking as a fair-minded man I am not afraid of the law in any way. I think it can be worked by both sides as a fair law. When an investigation is made nothing can be kept back by either side, so you have sure ground to go ahead on. Many things crop up of very small importance that lead in time to serious trouble; but if they are fairly investigated they can be settled before they cause trouble." Among the United Mine Workers, then, opinion is divided, the rank and file rather opposing the law and the officers in some cases favoring it.

The Western Federation of Miners has had experience with the act, which has been applied to metal miners in northern Ontario and in the western Provinces. At Cobalt, Ontario, officers of this organization have been heavily fined for advising a strike, in violation of the provisions of the law, before an investigation. At the union headquarters in Cobalt, when the camp was visited in March, 1908, the miners were violently hostile to the law, claiming that employers evaded all its provisions—shutting down mines for a day to avoid technical lockouts in order to enforce lower schedules, nagging the men by encroaching on their rights and privileges little by little, and by other aggressions—while the men themselves were held strictly accountable for violations. A few conservative old miners with families and some property, who were perhaps emerging from the wage-earning class, thought well of the law; but labor sentiment seemed to be overwhelmingly hostile.

In British Columbia the Western Federation is officially on record as opposed to the law, and members of the organization interviewed left no doubt as to their sympathy with this attitude. At the district convention at Greenwood, representing practically all the members of the organization subject to the act in western Canada and all the metal miners in British Columbia, held last January, a resolution was unanimously passed calling for the repeal of the law. At a convention of the boards of trade of British Columbia, recently held at Rossland, representatives of the Western Federation refused to suggest amendments to the law, on the ground that it should be wholly repealed. Consequently the almost undivided sentiment of this organization is opposed to the act.

The most influential labor body in Canada is the Dominion Trades and Labor Congress, composed of representatives from the federated trades and United Mine Workers, but not including the Western Federation of Miners, the Provincial Workers' Association, or

the larger railway unions. The congress is probably the best exponent of labor sentiment throughout the Dominion, and carries most weight with political parties. Its president is a member of Parliament. The following report by the executive officers was accepted by the congress:

"The Trades Dispute Investigation Act, 1907." Your executive, after careful consideration, gave its hearty endorsement to the principle of the bill. Organized labor does not want to strike to enforce its demands if the consideration of them can be attained without recourse to that remedy. The strike has been our last resort, and as the bill continued our right to strike, but assured a fair hearing of the demands of the workers, there was nothing to do but to give our support to it. Nor is organized labor blind to the fact that in every great industrial struggle the public have a large interest as well in the result as in the means adopted to reach that result. The least the public are entitled to is a knowledge of the merits of the dispute. This knowledge will be given to them under the procedure outlined in the bill. Your executive believe it will be a happy day when every labor dispute can be settled by the parties meeting together in the presence of an impartial tribunal to discuss their differences. Our great difficulty in the past has been that we could not get a hearing. The act has been tested already in the case of the Machinists and the Grand Trunk Railway Company, and no better tribute could be paid to it than the settlement arrived at in that case, which was reported to your executive at the time of writing this report as being satisfactory to both parties. The arbitration lasted three days, thus meeting the objections of those who, not unnaturally, thought that the delay possible under the bill might be too great to make its provisions of any avail.

The congress indorsed the act by a vote of 81 to 19. The words of the resolution are as follows:

Whereas organized labor has from time to time expressed its disapproval of strikes except as a last resort in industrial disputes; and whereas particularly in disputes connected with public utilities the public have rights that must be respected and considered; and whereas the Lemieux bill is designed to avoid strikes and lockouts in connection with industrial disputes in certain utilities until such time as the merits of the dispute are publicly investigated; and whereas organized labor always courts investigation of its grievances by reason of the justice of its claims and its desire to be fair: *Resolved*, That this Trades and Labor Congress of Canada hereby express its approval of the principle of the Lemieux bill as being in consonance with the oft-expressed attitude of organized labor in favor of investigation and conciliation.

In the debates preceding the indorsement of this resolution the eastern delegates as a rule supported the law, while those from the west in many cases opposed it. Some socialist members based their opposition on the ground that it bolstered up a vicious capitalistic organization of industry. But the arguments that carried most force in opposition to the law were those presented by regular trade-

unionists, who feared the temporary prohibition of strikes might weaken the unions by depriving them of a weapon that is most effective when used suddenly.

It needs to be noted that the principal opposition to the act has manifested itself among the unions to which it most directly applied. The members of the railway orders and the mine workers are interested at first hand, while the members of the federated trades have only the general interest in the law that comes from sympathy with their fellow workers. The latter are not usually employed in mines or upon public utilities. But the Trades and Labor Congress showed that its approval of the act was sincere by voting—59 to 22—in favor of an amendment for bringing all trades under its operation.

In summing up the different attitudes adopted toward the act by different bodies of labor, it seems fair to remark that sentiment in its favor is probably stronger among the rank and file of the workers than among the leaders. Such casual information as one can pick up through talking with the men indicates this. In one list of interviews, including miners and railway men, every one of the workmen—thirteen in number—was favorable to the law. An intelligent member of one of the larger railway orders said: "The better class of men in our organization are favorable to the law. Some men, whose opinion I wouldn't take on anything, are against it. Middle-aged and married men, who have responsibilities, welcome the law."

The hostility of the Western Federation may be due partly to the fact that the law has been applied during a period of unusual depression in metals, when mines have had to make reductions or cease working. Therefore the act may be held responsible for conditions with which it has had nothing to do. Except in this organization the evidence indicates that the attitude of workers becomes more friendly to the act with longer experience. But it would be impossible to say definitely whether or not a popular vote of the working people of Canada, especially of those directly affected by the law, would indorse the act at the present time.

ATTITUDE OF THE PUBLIC TOWARD THE ACT.

No great labor disturbances have recently occurred in Canada to arouse public opinion on the subject of settling industrial disputes, and therefore many people take a passive attitude with regard to the present law. They have very inaccurate ideas of its purpose and provisions. In eastern Canada confidence in the efficacy of the act has been somewhat shaken by the failure to prevent the Montreal dockers' strike in 1907. Many men seem to think that such a law should be enforced—and can be enforced—like any penal statute, and

that the government ought to proceed the same way against a thousand strikers as against a single pickpocket. Even those that recognize this to be impracticable, fail to see that it would not be equitable. But there is no intelligent opposition to the law, and such sentiment as is tangible enough to report is in its favor. There appears to be little doubt that if a serious labor disturbance, inconveniencing the general public, like a great railway or coal strike, should occur, the law would be seized upon by the people as an important thing, and they would vigorously support it. If it proved inadequate to deal with the particular case in hand there would probably be a strong popular demand to increase its stringency. The labor organizations opposing the act possibly underestimate the strength of this sentiment. It seems very unlikely that the Disputes Act can be repealed. That would generally be regarded as a step backward. If the law disappears it will be because of neglect or unwise administration, not because it is opposed by workmen or employers.

Public men and the press are educating the people with regard to the law, and presenting the equity of its provisions to their hearers and readers. Their argument is well presented in the following quotation from the Winnipeg Telegram of September 19, 1907: "The doctrine of the public's interest in labor disputes is one that has come to stay, and the attempt to express it in legislation is one made along right lines. Every man who directs labor or who labors owes a duty to the State, not only outside his labor as a citizen, but in his labor as a unit in an industrial whole. In every country this principle is becoming better recognized. In all likelihood there will be a great deal of more or less experimental legislation before the public's rights are crystallized in their final form. But this will be done eventually, to the great benefit of the public, by protecting it from many useless and foolish wars between employers and employed." This quotation expresses the attitude of the average man, who knows anything of the law, toward its provisions, as accurately as any single statement met with in Canada. Most of those who are practically familiar with labor matters, though not employers or wage-earners, approve the method of the act as well as its general object. The following memorandum of an interview with one of the latter class is also representative: "The law goes about the matter in the right way. Workingmen and employers usually discuss wages and such subjects in meetings composed of men of their own class exclusively, and so wholly from one point of view. But at board sessions they hear the other side, and this is educative. Proceedings are carried on in a free and easy style; facts come out in an orderly manner without any great show of feeling; all this has a good social effect."

CONCLUSION.

So far as can be judged from the experience of a single year, the Industrial Disputes Act has accomplished the main purpose for which it was enacted, the prevention of strikes and lockouts in public service industries. Apparently, it has not affected adversely the condition of workmen or of industries where it has been applied. It is much more applicable to American conditions than compulsory arbitration laws, like those of New Zealand and Australia, because its settlements are based on the agreement of the parties and do not prescribe an artificial wage, often illy adjusted to economic conditions. Employers and the general public in Canada, with a very few exceptions, favor the law. The working people are divided, many of the stronger organizations directly affected by the act being against it. This opposition is based on two grounds, the general distrust with which workmen regard government intervention in labor matters, and a feeling that they can improve their condition more through negotiations backed by sudden strikes than by negotiations backed by deferred strikes, for which the employer may prepare himself in advance. The distrust of government intervention arises from a feeling that the intervening authority usually has a class bias against labor. A workman said: "The chairman (of a conciliation board) is the whole thing. Unless he has been a workman he will not understand workmen or have any insight into their condition and ambitions. Therefore the burden of proof that his conditions should be improved or kept up to present standard always rests with the workman. He has to make things absolutely, convincingly clear to the mind of a chairman who naturally sees things from the other side, in order to get a just decision, even where the chairman tries to be impartial." However, experience with these laws in Australasia and Canada does not show that this fear is well founded. Though chairmen may not see points from exactly the same position as the workman, they often have social sympathies and theories that dispose them to give him, as presumably the weaker party, the benefit of every doubt, and the result perhaps works out the same as if they saw things from his point of view. Possibly workers do sacrifice something of influence in giving up sudden strikes, but they gain in other ways, especially in having a better alternative to a strike than before. And as part of the general public they profit by the saving of industrial waste through strikes.

But the application of the act to industries should probably be limited—at least for some time to come—to strictly public service industries as defined by the Canadian statute. Less strain would be placed on the act now did it not apply to metal mining.

In the United States constitutional restrictions would prevent a Federal law of such wide application as that of Canada. The idea of compulsory public investigation, and even of prohibiting strikes until such an investigation has been completed, is not new in this country. Fourteen years ago the United States Strike Commission, appointed to investigate the Chicago strike, recommended a permanent strike commission, to deal with disputes affecting interstate commerce, with powers not unlike those granted the boards of investigation and conciliation in Canada. Strikes pending investigation were to be prohibited and the incorporation of unions provided for, though not made compulsory. These recommendations took the following form:

That there be a permanent United States strike commission of three members, with duties and powers of investigation and recommendation as to disputes between railroads and their employees similar to those vested in the Interstate Commerce Commission as to rates, etc.

(a) That, as in the interstate commerce act, power be given to the United States courts to compel railroads to obey the decisions of the commission, after summary hearing unattended by technicalities, and that no delays in obeying the decisions of the commission be allowed pending appeals.

(b) That, whenever the parties to a controversy in a matter within the jurisdiction of the commission are one or more railroads upon one side and one or more national trade unions, incorporated under chapter 567 of the United States Statutes of 1885-86, or under State statutes, upon the other, each side shall have the right to select a representative, who shall be appointed by the President to serve as a temporary member of the commission in hearing, adjusting, and determining that particular controversy.

(c) That, during the pendency of a proceeding before the commission inaugurated by national trade unions, or by an incorporation of employees, it shall not be lawful for the railroads to discharge employees belonging thereto except for inefficiency, violation of law, or neglect of duty; nor for such unions or incorporation during such pendency to order, unite in, aid, or abet strikes or boycotts against the railroads complained of; nor, for a period of six months after a decision, for such railroads to discharge any such employees in whose places others shall be employed, except for the causes aforesaid; nor for any such employees, during a like period, to quit the service without giving thirty days' written notice of intention to do so, nor for any such union or incorporation to order, counsel, or advise otherwise.

But usually such legislation is passed only when the memory of a great and recent industrial conflict has profoundly stirred public opinion. The Australasian legislation followed somewhat tardily the maritime strike of 1890. The Canadian act was passed shortly after the Lethbridge coal strike. After such a law is once on the statute books, however, it usually remains, and in New Zealand, Australia, and Canada it has created a new public attitude toward industrial disputes. This attitude is the result of the idea—readily grasped and generally accepted when once clearly presented—that the public

have an interest in many industrial conflicts quite as immediate and important in its way as that of the conflicting parties. If the American people have this truth vividly brought to their attention by a great strike, the hopeful example of the Canadian act seems likely, so far as present experience shows, to prove a guiding star in their difficulties.

COMMENTS ON THE ACT.

The phraseology of the Canadian law is based largely upon that of the New Zealand Conciliation and Arbitration Act of 1900; but the wording must in each instance be interpreted in accordance with its different purpose. Some paragraphs have been borrowed from the previous conciliation laws of Canada. The act differs from the Australasian statutes in four important ways:

- (1) It applies to a limited number of industries.
- (2) It does not provide for the incorporation of unions.
- (3) It requires the appointment of a new board for each dispute instead of a permanent tribunal.
- (4) It does not contemplate compulsory awards.

The limitations of the Canadian act may be seen by comparison of the definitions of the more important terms. The following is from the Canadian act:

1. This act may be cited as The Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907.

PRELIMINARY.

Interpretation.

2. In this act, unless the context otherwise requires—
 - (a) "Minister" means the minister of labor;
 - (b) "Department" means the department of labor;
 - (c) "Employer" means any person, company or corporation employing ten or more persons and owning or operating any mining property, agency of transportation or communication, or public service utility, including, except as hereinafter provided, railways, whether operated by steam, electricity or other motive power, steamships, telegraph and telephone lines, gas, electric light, water and power works;

The corresponding provisions of the Australasian acts are as follows:

2. "Employer" includes persons, firms, companies, and corporations employing one or more workers.

* * * * *

"Industry" means any business, trade, manufacture, undertaking, calling, or employment in which workers are employed. (New Zealand act, 1900; Western Australian act, 1902.)

2. "Industry" means business, trade, manufacture, undertaking, calling, or employment in which persons of either sex are employed,

for hire or reward, and includes the management and working of the government railways and tramways, the Sydney harbor trust, the metropolitan board of water supply and sewerage, and the Hunter River and district board of water supply and sewerage, but does not include employment in domestic service. (New South Wales act, 1901.)

4. "Industry" means business, trade, manufacture, undertaking, calling, service, or employment, on land or water, in which persons are employed for pay, hire, advantage, or reward, excepting only persons engaged in domestic service. (Commonwealth bill, 1904.)

The quotations following show the more extensive jurisdiction (over industries) provided by the Australasian acts:

"Employing ten or more persons." The minimum number of applicants that may be chartered as an industrial union, and thus come within the scope of the law, is seven in New Zealand and fifteen in Western Australia. This clause should be read with section 21.

"Mining property" to "power works." The governing principle of the act is revealed in this clause, taken in connection with the provisions for publicity in sections 27 and 28. It is intended to make the investigation of a threatened dispute compulsory only in industries the cessation of which would cause public inconvenience and damage to third parties greater than the prospective advantage to either party to the dispute. The advisability of bringing all mining under the law has been questioned. Coal mining is so necessary to the welfare of the people and the continuance of other industries as to justify extreme measures to prevent a stoppage of production. But metal mining belongs to a different category. A cessation of output does not at once deprive the people of a necessary article of consumption. The violence sometimes attending strikes in metal mines is a secondary feature, for which there are other legal remedies. The application of this clause to silver mines was disputed until confirmed by the following court judgment: "Parliament has seen fit, doubtless for good reasons, some of which readily occur to one, to include silver and other mines in the same category in this act, and they can not be separated in interpreting it." (McGee in *Rex v. McGuire*.) The chairman of a board that had dealt with this industry said: "Silver mines are not truly public utilities, and from that standpoint it was hardly advisable to extend the act to them." A western justice, who had served as chairman in both industries, said: "A settlement in a metal mine is very much more difficult than a settlement in a coal mine. Coal has a fixed value compared with metals, so it is easier to draw up a fair wage scale based on selling price. Practically it is much harder to arrive at a good decision in metal mines."

A proposed amendment to this section, adopted by the Trades and Labor Congress, to extend the operation of the law to all industries, has already been mentioned.

The employees embraced within the Canadian act are defined in the following paragraph:

(*d*) "Employee" means any person employed by an employer to do any skilled or unskilled manual or clerical work for hire or reward in any industry to which this act applies;

On the other hand, the New Zealand act, 1901, says:

3. "Worker" means any person of any age, of either sex, employed by any employer to do any skilled or unskilled manual or clerical work for hire or reward.

The disputes to which the Canadian act applies are defined as follows:

(*c*) "Dispute" or "industrial dispute" means any dispute or difference between an employer and one or more of his employees, as to matters or things affecting or relating to work done or to be done by him or them, or as to the privileges, rights and duties of employers or employees (not involving any such violation thereof as constitutes an indictable offense); and, without limiting the general nature of the above definition, includes all matters relating to (1) the wages allowance or other remuneration of employees, or the price paid or to be paid in respect of employment; (2) the hours of employment, sex, age, qualification or status of employees, and the mode, terms and conditions of employment; (3) the employment of children or any person or persons or class of persons, or the dismissal of or refusal to employ any particular person or persons or class of persons; (4) claims on the part of an employer or any employee as to whether and, if so, under what circumstances, preference of employment should or should not be given to one class over another of persons being or not being members of labor or other organizations, British subjects or aliens; (5) materials supplied and alleged to be bad, unfit or unsuitable, or damage alleged to have been done to work; (6) any established custom or usage, either generally or in the particular district affected; (7) the interpretation of an agreement or a clause thereof;

The character of the questions which may come before the New Zealand boards are defined in the following section from the act of 1900:

2. "Industrial matters" means all matters affecting or relating to work done or to be done by workers, or the privileges, rights, and duties of employers or workers in any industry, not involving questions which are or may be the subject of proceedings for an indictable offense; and, without limiting the general nature of the above definition, includes all matters relating to—

(*a*) The wages, allowances, or remuneration of workers employed in any industry, or the prices paid or to be paid therein in respect of such employment;

(*b*) The hours of employment, sex, age, qualification, or status of workers, and the mode, terms, and conditions of employment;

(c) The employment of children or young persons, or of any person or persons or class of persons, in any industry, or the dismissal of or refusal to employ any particular person or persons or class of persons therein;

(d) The claim of members of an industrial union of employers to preference of service from unemployed members of an industrial union of workers;

(e) The claim of members of industrial unions of workers to be employed in preference to nonmembers;

(f) Any established custom or usage of any industry, either generally or in the particular district affected.

The above clause determines the intensive jurisdiction (supervision within each industry) exercised by the boards. Western Australia adopted the words of the New Zealand act, omitting the important subclause (e). New South Wales has approximately the same provisions.

Under the Canadian act "(4) claims on the part of an employer" to "or aliens" empowers the boards to investigate claims for the closed shop and make recommendations regarding them. The chairman having widest experience with the act stated that the question had seldom come up, and that he had never admitted it for consideration. Labor men seem not to have pressed this claim, except in a few cases, either because they thought public sentiment would not support them, or because they relied on other measures to secure their end.

"(6) Any established custom or usage; either generally or in the particular district affected." Canadian boards have usually refused to take up questions relating to the detailed conduct of a business; but have recommended general principles to guide employers where the welfare of workers might be affected. Some claims of railway employees have been dismissed, as coming more properly under the jurisdiction of the railway commission. A board chairman said: "The tendency is to broaden issues before public boards where it is to narrow them in private negotiations. We try to confine ourselves to vital matters. We make the settlement as much like a private contract as possible."

Lockouts and strikes are defined by the Canadian act as follows:

(f) "Lockout" (without limiting the nature of its meaning) means a closing of a place of employment, or a suspension of work, or a refusal by an employer to continue to employ any number of his employees in consequence of a dispute, done with a view to compelling his employees, or to aid another employer in compelling his employees, to accept terms of employment,

(g) "Strike" or "to go on strike" (without limiting the nature of its meaning) means the cessation of work by a body of employees acting in combination, or a concerted refusal or a refusal under a common understanding of any number of employees to continue to

work for an employer, in consequence of a dispute, done as a means of compelling their employer, or to aid other employees in compelling their employer, to accept terms of employment;

The definitions of the New South Wales act, 1901, are in the following words:

2. "Lockout" means the closing of a place of employment or the suspension of work by an employer done with a view to compel his employees or to aid another employer in compelling his employees to accept a term or terms of employment.

"Strike" shall mean the cessation of work by a body of employees acting in combination done as a means of enforcing compliance with demands made by them or other employees on employers.

The Commonwealth arbitration bill follows with minor verbal changes the definitions of the New South Wales act. The laws of New Zealand and Western Australia do not define strike and lockout.

The clause "a suspension of work" of the Canadian act is modified by the following clause in section 56: "Nothing in this act shall prohibit the suspension or discontinuance of any industry * * * for any cause not constituting a lockout." In Western Australia a court has held that when an employer discharges all his employees with the intention of engaging an entirely new force this does not constitute a lockout.

The Canadian act continues:

(h) "Board" means a board of conciliation and investigation established under the provisions of this act;

(i) "Application" means an application for the appointment of a board under the provisions of this act;

(j) "Registrar" means the registrar of boards of conciliation and investigation under this act;

(k) "Prescribed" means prescribed by this act, or by any rules or regulations made thereunder;

(l) "Trade union" or "union" means any organization of employees formed for the purpose of regulating relations between employers and employees.

Administration.

3. The minister of labor shall have the general administration of this act.

4. The governor in council shall appoint a registrar of boards of conciliation and investigation, who shall have the powers and perform the duties prescribed.

(2) The office of registrar may be held either separately or in conjunction with any other office in the public service, and in the latter case the registrar may, if the governor in council thinks fit, be appointed, not by name, but by reference to such other office, whereupon the person who for the time being holds such office, or performs its duties, shall by virtue thereof be the registrar.

The corresponding sections of the New Zealand act, 1900, read as follows:

3. The minister for labor shall have the general administration of this act.

4. The registrar shall be the person who for the time being holds the office of secretary for labor, or such other person as the governor from time to time appoints to be registrar.

BOARDS OF CONCILIATION AND INVESTIGATION.

Reference of disputes to boards of conciliation and investigation.

5. Wherever any dispute exists between an employer and any of his employees, and the parties thereto are unable to adjust it, either of the parties to the dispute may make application to the minister for the appointment of a board of conciliation and investigation, to which board the dispute may be referred under the provisions of this act: *Provided, however,* That, in the case of a dispute between a railway company and its employees, such dispute may be referred, for the purpose of conciliation and investigation, under the provisions concerning railway disputes in the Conciliation and Labor Act.

"Wherever any dispute exists." Some employers suggest that when a board has been appointed to consider a dispute, the same board should consider all subsequent disputes between the same parties for a fixed period. This would allow speedier hearings; and later disputes are sometimes the outgrowth of previous settlements, with which such a board would already be familiar. On the other hand, the occurrence of a second dispute soon after the adjournment of a board may indicate that the board was poorly qualified for its task or had encountered the prejudice of one of the parties, either of which would be fatal to conciliation. At present the disputants and the government are left free to reappoint the old board or to name a new one, as the exigencies of the case seem to require.

"Conciliation and Labor Act." This law provides no penalty for strikes and lockouts pending investigation; but its application in this section is modified by a clause in section 56, which practically obviates this difference between the two laws. With a single exception all railway disputes have been brought under the Industrial Disputes Act.

Minister to appoint boards on application.

6. Whenever, under this act, an application is made in due form for the appointment of a board of conciliation and investigation, and such application does not relate to a dispute which is the subject of a reference under the provisions concerning railway disputes in the Conciliation and Labor Act, the minister, whose decision for such purpose shall be final, shall, within fifteen days from the date at which

the application is received, establish such board under his hand and seal of office, if satisfied that the provisions of this act apply.

"Within fifteen days from the date." A chief advantage of the Canadian law over those of Australia is that it provides for a speedy hearing. On account of the congestion of business before the courts in the latter countries, delays of a year sometimes occur in getting awards.

Members of board.

7. Every board shall consist of three members, who shall be appointed by the minister.

(2) Of the three members of the board one shall be appointed on the recommendation of the employer and one on the recommendation of the employees (the parties to the dispute), and the third on the recommendation of the members so chosen.

The corresponding section of the New Zealand act, 1900, provides:

35. The board of each industrial district shall consist of such unequal number of persons as the governor determines, being not more than five, of whom—

(1) One (being the chairman) shall be elected by the other members in manner hereinafter provided; and

(2) The other members shall, in manner hereinafter provided, be elected by the respective industrial unions of employers and of workers in the industrial district, such unions voting separately and electing an equal number of such members.

"Three members." Employers have suggested that the boards have five members, in order that nonunion men may have a representative when they are numerous. But the presence of union and nonunion men on the same board might prevent conciliation, and certainly would make the law unpopular with labor interests whose cooperation is essential to its success. Some workingmen, however, favor the larger board on the ground that representatives familiar with different districts could be appointed members.

Procedure for appointment of members of board.

8. For the purposes of appointment of the members of the board, the following provisions shall apply:

(1) Each party to the dispute may, at the time of making application or within five days after being requested so to do by the minister, recommend the name of one person who is willing and ready to act as a member of the board, and the minister shall appoint such person a member of the board.

(2) If either of the parties fails or neglects to duly make any recommendation within the said period, or such extension thereof as the minister, on cause shown, grants, the minister shall, as soon thereafter as possible, appoint a fit person to be a member of the board; and such member shall be deemed to be appointed on the recommendation of the said party.

(3) The members chosen on the recommendation of the parties may, within five days after their appointment, recommend the name of one person who is willing and ready to act as a third member of the board, and the minister shall appoint such person a member of the board.

(4) If the members chosen on the recommendation of the parties fail or neglect to duly make any recommendation within the said period, or such extension thereof as the minister, on cause shown, grants, the minister shall, as soon thereafter as possible, appoint a fit person to be a third member of the board, and such member shall be deemed to be appointed on the recommendation of the two other members of the board.

(5) The third member shall be the chairman of the board.

The provisions of the New Zealand act, 1900, read as follows:

39. (1) As soon as practicable after the election of the members of the board, other than the chairman, the clerk shall appoint a time and place for the elected members to meet for the purpose of electing a chairman, and shall give to each such member at least three days' written notice of the time and place so appointed.

(2) At such meeting the members shall, by a majority of the votes of the members present, elect some impartial person who is willing to act, not being one of their number, to be chairman of the board.

45. In any case where the registrar is satisfied that for any reason the proper electing authority has failed or neglected to duly elect a chairman or other member of the board, or that his election is void, the governor may by notice in the Gazette appoint a fit person to be such chairman or other member, and, for the purposes of this act, every chairman or other member so appointed shall be deemed to be elected, and shall hold office for the unexpired residue of the ordinary term of office.

"The minister shall * * * appoint a fit person to be third member of the board." This is a controversial clause of the act. Some fear that a designing ministry will use this power for political purposes. In case of an important dispute just before election, involving several thousand miners or railway employees, employers claim that any elective officer is likely to make appointments for the purpose of winning votes. No specific charge that the act had been so used was made, except that in one instance local politics were thought to have influenced the appointment of a board. In eastern Canada this objection was usually presented by employers and in western Canada by employees. In one important dispute a captain of industry went down to Ottawa and returned claiming that he had got his man made chairman. If so, he made a mistake in his selection, for the decision of the board went against him. But had this boast come to the ears of the workers it might have imperiled the success of the negotiations as well as have left much bitterness and distrust of the act afterwards. As a rule, however, the employers are the suspicious ones. A very fair-minded chairman said: "Employers are more suspicious than workmen of government appointees, because

the latter have more votes. The opposition party, when it comes into power, will be more likely to make bad appointments than the present party, because it will not feel the same responsibility for the success of the act. Sometimes one party refuses to agree with the other on a third member of the board in order to justify its refusal to accept the settlement recommended. In other cases one party will refuse to agree because it thinks the government will appoint the man it wants as chairman, and the latter's decision will have more moral weight if he is not recommended by that party." An employer experienced with the act said: "Under our system of government it is impossible to administer the law fairly. Politics will come in and spoil it." A Western Federation member in British Columbia objected: "The board is nearly always made up of a man appointed by the government and a man from each side. The government's man always sides with the capitalists, so it is two to one against the workingman." But a western socialist scouted the idea that politics would seriously interfere with fair board appointments.

A suggestion that the chief justice of the Dominion supreme court, or of the provincial supreme courts, appoint the chairman when the parties failed to do so, was received with different favor by different persons. One premier said the chief justice would not be responsible enough to public opinion. Leading lawyers present at the time favored such a method, claiming that a justice would select impartial and practical men, as he would in business arbitrations. In the west the proposal was not well received even by lawyers. A leading solicitor in British Columbia said: "Most judges being reared and educated in an atmosphere far removed from labor, their minds don't take in a situation from a labor point of view at all. Board appointments should be made, when necessary, by men who have given thought to labor questions. Appointments by a judge or chief justice would be an incentive for the men to strike." An Irish justice, who had served as a board chairman, remarked, with a twinkle in his eye: "It would put the chief justice in an awkward position to have to appoint these boards. Why not leave it to the Archbishop of Canterbury?" A labor official favored making boards permanent and elective.

Employers sometimes have difficulty in getting a qualified representative on the boards. One manager writes: "We had great difficulty in getting anyone to represent us on that board. It seemed as if a mining man of fair business experience would have been the best. We asked several, but, while they did not flatly refuse, yet it was evident that they greatly preferred not to act, probably on account of the prejudice it might excite on the part of their employees should they give a decision favoring the company. We then tried one or two solicitors, none of whom was able to act. No one connected with

mining, no employer of labor, no merchant, doctor, or anyone connected with politics or with political aspirations would ever care to act for a company upon an arbitration board involving wages."

Notification to be given parties of members of board.

9. As soon as possible after the full board has been appointed by the minister, the registrar shall notify the parties of the names of the members of the board and the chairman thereof, and such notification shall be final and conclusive for all purposes.

The New Zealand act of 1900, as amended by the act of 1901, says:

40. (1) As soon as practicable after the election of the chairman, the clerk shall transmit to the registrar a list of the names of the respective persons elected as members and as chairman of the board, and notice of the names of the members and chairman of the board shall be inserted in the Gazette by the registrar.

(2) Such notice shall be final and conclusive for all purposes, and the date of gazetting of such notice shall be deemed to be the date of the election of the board.

Term of office.

10. Every member of a board shall hold office from the time of his appointment until the report of the board is signed and transmitted to the minister.

"Until the report of the board is signed and transmitted." The board ceases to exist when the investigation for which it was appointed is concluded. In Australia and New Zealand the arbitration boards and courts are appointed for fixed terms, and consider all disputes coming up during that period. Public opinion in Canada is not agreed as to which method is the better. The determining considerations causing Parliament to make the boards temporary are thus summarized by a federal official: "It would have been impossible for a single (permanent) board to deal with all the differences that have been referred under the act, scattered as they have been over the country from Nova Scotia to British Columbia." But this objection would apply to a number of permanent boards instead of one. A chairman who has had experience on eleven boards said: "I don't think permanent boards would be as successful as those we have. Under the present arrangement the government can try out men, until it finds those best adapted for its work. At the same time the government can drop a man whenever his usefulness is over. A single bad decision may prejudice one side permanently against a chairman. If the boards were permanent, too, their decisions would have the additional importance of forming precedents, indicating the permanent tendency of the chairman's mind. So one side would begin its case feeling at a disadvantage." A party of workmen appearing before a board said they opposed permanent appointments because the companies would find some way to "grease

the hands" (euphemism for "fix") of the members. A leading public man thought politics would be more likely to affect appointments on permanent boards, as the positions would then be important enough to be solicited by political workers. The attorney of a western miners' organization opposed permanent boards because it would be hard to get rid of bad appointees.

However, the weight of opinion—numerically—was in favor of permanent boards, or at least of a permanent chairman. A railway manager, familiar with the law, thought a permanent chairman with temporary appointees by each party for every new dispute, would combine the advantage of special knowledge of the case in hand with broad experience and a permanent policy in administering the act. Some favor permanent boards as likely to prevent delays, which sometimes attend the appointment of new boards, while others oppose them as likely to cause delays when two or more disputes occur at the same time. Australasian experience indicates that on account of the bunching up of business before any system of permanent boards, they would at times protract rather than expedite proceedings. A mining manager preferred permanent boards, though he foresaw the possibility of delays and of lack of technical knowledge on the part of the members. But he thought that permanent appointees would be selected with greater care and regard for public opinion than appointees for a single dispute. A representative of a railway union, who had conducted proceedings before a board, favored a permanent chairman for each industry, such as coal mining and metal mining, and two chairmen for railways—one for the operating and one for the maintenance department. The secretary of a western miners' union favored permanent boards, selected by workmen and employers, on the ground that they could become familiar with conditions throughout an entire district and so give better awards than a board that had studied only a local situation. A district president of the United Mine Workers writes: "I think permanent boards should be appointed, especially for the coal trade, as owing to the technical nature of the mass of evidence submitted it is absolutely necessary in order to render a fair decision that the chairman should acquaint himself with the meaning of the terms used in coal mining. This can not be done to advantage under the present method of appointing boards. I feel certain that if a permanent board was appointed in the coal trade, the members would soon become competent to deal with any dispute brought before it. The moral influence of such a board would be great, and in time it would be looked up to by both parties." The solicitor of a mining company who had served on a board said: "I am inclined to favor permanent boards, because we want to get as far away from local prejudices as possible. Business reasons influence people more or less in giving

decisions affecting their own locality. At any rate we should have a permanent chairman, leaving each side to select its representative as at present. It is not a bad thing if these two members are more or less partisans of their sides, if they are familiar with conditions; for then a good deal of business can be threshed out in the private conferences of the board members." The president of two boards, himself a judge, used similar arguments, based on his own experience: "I should like to see permanent boards, like our railway commission. They would become sufficiently familiar with conditions in the industry they represented. There should be a board for each industry, in each section of the country; but it would be better to have it composed of men from outside the district, so that they would have no local ties to influence them or to make either side think they were influenced. But there is an advantage in having the representatives of each side partisans, for they enable* the board to get at the real ground of the dispute more quickly." An employer of several thousand men, some of whom are working under an agreement based on a board decision, writes: "I believe a permanent arbitration board or a permanent chairman would be preferable. Could not an arbitration commission be established something on the same lines as the railway commission? * * * I really think it would be better that one arbitrator representing each side should be either a solicitor or officer of the union and the company, or admittedly prejudiced. If the above plan were adopted I would advise that the third man should invariably be chosen from outside the district, preferably in eastern Canada (the writer's interests are in the west), in order that neither he, his family, nor his business should in any way suffer from either side. If * * * there were many cases likely to come up, you might have several such arbitrators, in the same way that you have several district judges." Throughout western Canada similar opinion seems to prevail. The following very reasonable view of this question was given by a gentleman who had watched the operation of the act carefully and had served upon an important board: "I think we shall come to permanent boards eventually, but that temporary boards are better until we have had more experience with the act. It was wise to have temporary boards to break the ground. Ultimately there should be boards either for different districts or for different industries, or for both. After growth and experience we may come to compulsory arbitration. I fancy public opinion will drift round that way, as it did in case of the railway commission. That now regulates the relation of railways to our cities and to private patrons to general satisfaction; and it has practically ended the old squabbles and political intrigues relating to railway privileges, services, and agreements."

A practical embarrassment results from the fact that the transmittal of its report terminates the existence of a board. Often after a settlement has been made and the board has dissolved difficulties arise over the application of the settlement to particular cases. Thus, in case of the Grand Trunk machinists, several rather acute misunderstandings came up as soon as the company began to put the new agreement into force. As a practical solution of the difficulty, the board was reconvened and gave an interpretation of the particular points in question. The statute seems to make no provision for emergencies of this kind. It is understood that a board that has been assembled to interpret its own settlement acts by the consent of the parties, and is not authorized by law or regulations to take up any new point not brought before the board and acted upon at its previous sittings.

Members not to have pecuniary interest.

11. No person shall act as a member of a board who has any direct pecuniary interest in the issue of a dispute referred to such board.

"Direct pecuniary interest." No Australasian act makes this specific provision, but it is assumed that board and court members will be governed by judicial precedents in cases in which they have an interest. In Western Australia a plumber refused to sit on the arbitration court while a case concerning plumbing was being heard.

In Canada the words have been variously interpreted in public discussion; but the government has not construed them too prudishly. It has confirmed the appointment by the miners of their district president as member of a number of boards. An eminent lawyer, holding retainers from large corporations, has served acceptably on several boards by which the interests of those corporations were directly affected. Other similar appointments have been made. These are criticised on principle, though no complaint is made that unfair decisions have resulted. A railway manager in criticising the selection of such members said: "After the labor people had appointed one of their salaried officers, I chose a man to represent us who I knew would do what I told him to. I had to do that to be even. But the investigators ought to be economic experts, like your census and corporation experts at Washington, and not partisan representatives who serve contrary to the spirit of the act. Employers usually select a big man as their representative, who is not so subservient to his constituents as are the labor representatives, who have no independence. They can't be independent when they depend on the unions for their daily bread." A western mine manager said: "I have no use for our boards out here, because they have not been properly constituted. The decisions aren't fair, and couldn't be with union officers repre-

senting the miners. Would you appoint John Mitchell to such a board in the United States, if you had to organize a new coal strike commission? I would not allow either party to have any say at all in appointments. The idea of the act is that public opinion shall settle strikes; so our boards are worthless, because they do not command public confidence. They never have more than one unbiased member. Besides we would not disclose business matters or show our books to such boards as have been appointed hitherto, with labor union officers on them; and so how can a board get at facts so as to command public confidence for its decisions?" In the comments on the preceding section of the act quotations from letters and interviews are given showing that other employers think the representative members of the boards should be partisans. This difference of opinion comes from a different interpretation of the act. Those who see an analogy between the boards and law courts naturally criticise such appointments. And if public opinion is really to be the final arbiter of most settlements obtained through boards, this view may be correct. But if the boards are not quasi courts, but negotiating bodies—public facsimiles of the boards that conduct private negotiations between large associations of employers and the great labor organizations of the United States and England—the policy of partisan appointments is well justified. And it is this second conception of the act that has guided the most successful boards and won popularity for the law where formerly there was distrust.

Some of the current discussion of this section of the law is based on a careless reading. A Canadian authority recently remarked in a public address: "The clause forbidding anyone who is directly or indirectly interested in either side to a dispute from serving on the board of investigation is more frequently honored in the breach than in the observance." The clause disqualifies from serving only those who have "direct pecuniary interest"—words that admit of very strict construction.

How vacancy to be filled.

12. Every vacancy in the membership of a board shall be supplied in the same manner as in the case of the original appointment of every person appointed.

The New Zealand act, 1900, reads as follows:

43. (1) Every casual vacancy shall be filled by the same electing authority, and, as far as practicable, in the same manner and subject to the same provisions, as in the case of the vacating member.

Oath of office and secrecy.

13. Before entering upon the exercise of the functions of their office the members of a board, the chairman, shall make oath or affirm: that they will faithfully and discharge their office, and also that,

except in the discharge of their duties, they will not disclose to any person any of the evidence or other matter brought before the board.

The New Zealand act of 1900, as amended by the act of 1901, says:

53. * * * (11) Before entering upon the exercise of the functions of their office the members of the board, including the chairman, shall make oath or affirmation before a judge of the supreme court that they will faithfully and impartially perform the duties of their office, and also that except in the discharge of their duties they will not disclose to any person any evidence or other matter brought before the board. In the absence of a judge of the supreme court, the oath or affirmation may be taken before a stipendiary magistrate or such other person as the governor from time to time authorizes in that behalf.

Clerical and other assistance.

14. The department may provide the board with a secretary, stenographer or such other clerical assistance as to the minister appears necessary for the efficient carrying out of the provisions of this act.

PROCEDURE FOR REFERENCE OF DISPUTES TO BOARDS.

Manner in which application for appointment of board to be made.

15. For the purpose of determining the manner in which, and the persons by whom, an application for the appointment of a board is to be made, the following provisions shall apply:

(1) The application shall be made in writing in the prescribed form, and shall be in substance a request to the minister to appoint a board to which the existing dispute may be referred under the provisions of this act.

(2) The application shall be accompanied by—

(a) A statement setting forth (1) the parties to the dispute; (2) the nature and cause of the dispute, including any claims or demands made by either party upon the other, to which exception is taken; (3) an approximate estimate of the number of persons affected or likely to be affected by the dispute; (4) the efforts made by the parties themselves to adjust the dispute; and—

(b) A statutory declaration setting forth that, failing an adjustment of the dispute or a reference thereof by the minister to a board of conciliation and investigation under the act, to the best of the knowledge and belief of the declarant, a lockout or strike, as the case may be, will be declared, and that the necessary authority to declare such lockout or strike has been obtained.

(3) The application may mention the name of a person who is willing and ready and desires to act as a member of the board representing the party or parties making the application.

“The necessary authority to declare such lockout or strike has been obtained.” The object of this clause is to prevent applications for boards without well-grounded grievances. Speculative applications for awards, sometimes called “manufactured disputes,” cause trouble in Australia and New Zealand under compulsory arbitration. Unions

apply for awards on the gambling chance of getting something, knowing they are not likely to lose any existing privileges, and so expensive and irritating litigation is encouraged. It is doubtful if 10 per cent of the cases brought before compulsory arbitration courts would cause strikes if left unsettled. But this clause in the Canadian act is much criticised. A leading member of a large labor organization said: "Here is a great fault of the law. In our organization there is no power to declare a strike unless a vote of all the members has been taken. To make application for a board we have to declare that a strike will result if the application is not considered. Now, that forces us to authorize a strike in regular form, and to place a power and responsibility in the hands of our executives we would not otherwise give them. It makes it easier to strike if negotiations don't come out as we want them." An officer of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, an order opposed to the law, made this criticism: "As the act stands now it requires us to take a general vote to declare a strike before we can come into conference with our employers. That is a big expense of time, labor, and money. The vote stirs the men up and causes uneasiness and an unsettled feeling throughout the membership and generally along the road. It makes small things look big, and after taking the stand that they will strike over a grievance—perhaps one that might be compromised—the men are more likely to hold out for the settlement they have fixed on beforehand." A large employer writes: "The officers of the union should not necessarily have to secure authority from the union to order a strike in order to comply with the affidavit provided for in the act. If the law be strictly carried out (I do not think it has), a labor leader might be compelled to work the union up to the point of a strike before he could secure the arbitration, and this agitation is not good for either side." There is not the same need for such a clause that there would be if the awards were compulsory. So long as the applicants know that the other side is bound to accept no settlement to which it itself does not voluntarily consent, they are not so likely to make imaginary or trifling grievances the occasion of a dispute.

Signatures to application.

16. The application and the declaration accompanying it—

(1) If made by an employer, an incorporated company or corporation, shall be signed by some one of its duly authorized managers or other principal executive officers;

(2) If made by an employer other than an incorporated company or corporation, shall be signed by the employer himself in case he is an individual, or a majority of the partners or members in case of a partnership firm or association;

(3) If made by employees members of a trade union, shall be signed by two of its officers duly authorized by a majority vote of the members of the union, or by a vote taken by ballot of the members of the union present at a meeting called on not less than three days' notice for the purpose of discussing the question;

The New Zealand act, 1900, reads as follows:

98. * * * (1) In the case of an industrial union, by resolution passed at a special meeting of the union and confirmed by subsequent ballot of the members, a majority of the votes recorded being in favor thereof; the result of such ballot to be recorded on the minutes;

"Members of a trade union." This is the extent to which unions are recognized by the act. Some employers would have them required to incorporate, as in New Zealand and Australia, so they might be responsible parties to the contracts made before the boards. But the logical consequence of making only incorporated unions responsible for the working of the law is to grant preference of employment to members of such unions, as has been done in Australasia. Though it has not been the usual policy of the boards to favor the closed shop, the tendency of the law is to promote the organization of labor. The chairman of eleven boards said: "The law is pretty much a dead letter for any but organized labor. It did not work in the Montreal dockers' strike largely because there was no responsible organization. The union was so poorly organized that it did not control its men. There was no one who could sign an agreement that the men would recognize. The work had to be done by mass meetings. You can't work any act under those conditions." A labor member of Parliament writes: "The law amounts to practical recognition of trade organizations." Other workmen based their approval of the act partly on the ground that it strengthened the unions.

"By a majority vote of the members of the union, or by a vote taken by ballot, etc." This does not provide so fully for obtaining the vote of all members prior to an application as does the paragraph of the New Zealand act just quoted. Either of two methods may be adopted in Canada, both of which are required—one confirming the other—in New Zealand. Nevertheless the secretary of a large employers' association congratulates himself that: "Under the Canadian act it becomes a matter of considerable difficulty for agitators in the union to obtain a snap verdict to strike, particularly if the object is to call for an investigation under the act. * * * So far as the men are concerned, the act is well calculated to postpone hasty action."

(4) If made by employees some or all of whom are not members of a trade union, shall be signed by two of their number duly authorized by a majority vote taken by ballot of the employees present at a meeting called on not less than three days' notice for the purpose of discussing the question.

"Some or all of whom are not members of a trade union." This would allow an application to be made against the will of the union men employed, as, for instance, to prevent discrimination in wages in favor of unionists. But such an emergency is hardly conceivable in actual labor negotiations. It would allow a minority of discontented bolters from a union to bring an application. This possibility is alluded to in the judgment of Justice McGee, in *Rex v. McGuire*, the first important law case involving the act: "If the employees interested can not persuade a majority, perhaps not interested though obstinate, to make an application, what are they to do? Are they to be deprived of a reference and yet compelled to work on indefinitely on terms unsatisfactory to them, from which there is no promise of relief? * * * Such a case may be unprovided for, and if it should arise a solution would doubtless be found outside of legal construction. Discontinuance of work is not necessarily a strike, and membership in a union need not continue."

"Authorized by a majority vote taken by ballot of the employees present." One chairman suggests that this clause might be used by a very few employees to create a dispute, and that it should be amended to require the minister of labor to satisfy himself that sufficient cause for a board existed before authorizing its appointment.

Application to be transmitted by registered letter.

17. Every application for the appointment of a board shall be transmitted by post by registered letter addressed to the registrar of boards of conciliation and investigation, department of labor, Ottawa, and the date of the receipt of such registered letter at the department shall be regarded as the date of the receipt of such application.

Party making application to transmit copy to other party to dispute.

18. In every case where an application is made for the appointment of a board the party making application shall, at the time of transmitting it to the registrar, also transmit by registered letter to the other party to the dispute, or by personal delivery, a copy of the application and of the accompanying statement and declaration.

Statement in reply to be made and sent to registrar and to party making application.

19. Upon receipt by either party to a dispute of a copy of the application for the appointment of a board such party shall, without delay, prepare a statement in reply to the application and transmit it by registered letter, or by personal delivery, to the registrar and to the party making the application.

To whom communications transmitting copies of applications and replies between parties are to be sent.

20. Copies of applications or statements in reply thereto, to be transmitted to the other party under any of the preceding sections where the other party is—

(1) An employer, an incorporated company or corporation, shall be sent to the manager or other principal executive officer of the company or corporation;

(2) An employer other than an incorporated company or corporation, shall be sent to the employer himself or to the employer in the name of the business or firm as commonly known;

(3) Composed of employees, members of a trade union, shall be sent to the president and secretary of such union;

(4) Composed of employees some or all of whom are not members of a trade union—

(a) Where some of the employees are members of a trade union, shall be sent to the president and secretary of the union as representing the employees belonging to the union; also

(b) Where some of the employees are not members of a trade union and there are no persons authorized to represent such employees, shall be sent to ten of their number;

(c) Where, under paragraph (4) of section 16, two persons have been authorized to make an application, shall be sent to such two persons.

FUNCTIONS, POWERS, AND PROCEDURE OF BOARDS.

At least ten employees to be affected by dispute.

21. Any dispute may be referred to a board by application in that behalf made in due form by any party thereto: *Provided*, That no dispute shall be the subject of reference to a board under this act in any case in which the employees affected by the dispute are fewer than 10.

"Are fewer than ten." Clause (c) of section 2 limits the application of the act to employers having at least 10 persons in their service. This section limits the application to disputes involving at least 10 persons, irrespective of the number of employees. The meaning of the latter clause has been questioned. At Springhill the company claimed the board lacked jurisdiction because only 6 men were directly affected by a matter in dispute. The minister of labor ruled: "If the number of employees directly or indirectly affected by a dispute is 10 or more, the dispute may be referred to a board, though the persons to whom it may directly refer are fewer in number than 10. If the failure to effect a settlement in regard to a matter affecting directly only 6 men is likely to result in 10 or more being either immediately or subsequently affected, the reference of such a dispute would, in my opinion, come very properly within the provisions of the act." This interpretation has been adopted; so that recently a board was appointed to consider the dismissal by the company of the secretary of a street railway union, when that action threatened to result in a strike by the men.

Method of referring disputes to board.

22. Upon the appointment of the board the registrar shall forward to the chairman a copy of the application for the appointment of such board, and of its accompanying statement and declaration, and of the statement in reply, and the board shall forthwith proceed to deal with the matters referred to in these documents.

Duties of board.

23. In every case where a dispute is duly referred to a board it shall be the duty of the board to endeavor to bring about a settlement of the dispute, and to this end the board shall, in such manner as it thinks fit, expeditiously and carefully inquire into the dispute and all matters affecting the merits thereof and the right settlement thereof. In the course of such inquiry the board may make all such suggestions and do all such things as it deems right and proper for inducing the parties to come to a fair and amicable settlement of the dispute, and may adjourn the proceedings for any period the board thinks reasonable to allow the parties to agree upon terms of settlement.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

53. (1) The board shall, in such manner as it thinks fit, carefully and expeditiously inquire into the dispute, and all matters affecting the merits thereof and the right settlement thereof.

* * * * *

(3) In the course of such inquiry the board may make all such suggestions and do all such things as it deems right and proper for inducing the parties to come to a fair and amicable settlement of the dispute, and may adjourn the proceedings for any period the board thinks reasonable, to allow the parties to agree upon some terms of settlement.

"Expediently." A federal official largely occupied in administering the act writes: "Experience has shown that a month is a fair average allowance of time for the entire disposition of a case, from the date at which the application for the establishment of a board is received in the department of labor to the receipt by the minister of labor of the findings of the board." Some cases have taken considerably longer than this, to the dissatisfaction of workers; but others have been disposed of in much less time. A speedy hearing is essential to the permanent success of such a law.

"The board may make all such suggestions and do all such things, etc." Many of the persons interviewed thought that this should be mandatory. An official experienced in labor matters said: "The act should be amended to require the members of the board to make individual affidavits that every means of conciliation had been exhausted before authorizing them to proceed to arbitration." As this subject has been referred to previously, it may be left with a single quotation from an address by a representative of employers: "It is significant that the one or two somewhat glaring instances where the word 'fail-

ure' has had to be written across the act in Canada are explainable by the fact that the boards of investigation clothed themselves with too much formality, conducted their investigations as they would in a court of law, called on either side in turn for a statement of its case, giving the other side an opportunity to reply, took all the evidence under oath and in the presence of a court stenographer, and then sent the disputants away until they could sift out the evidence themselves and arrive at what they called an award. Such a course might be all right where the disputants are not required to meet again, but where they must continue relations as employer and employee, the only course, it seems to me, is to find some neutral ground upon which both can stand, a ground which will permit of harmonious working relations and be mutually satisfactory to both parties."

Memorandum of settlement to be forwarded to minister.

24. If a settlement of the dispute is arrived at by the parties during the course of its reference to the board, a memorandum of the settlement shall be drawn up by the board and signed by the parties, and shall, if the parties so agree, be binding as if made a recommendation by the board under section 62 of this act, and a copy thereof with a report upon the proceedings shall be forwarded to the minister.

The corresponding section of the New Zealand act, 1900, says:

53. * * * (5) If a settlement of the dispute is arrived at by the parties it shall be set forth in an industrial agreement, which shall be duly executed by all the parties or their attorneys (but not by their representatives), and a duplicate original whereof shall be filed in the office of the clerk within such time as is named by the board in that behalf.

Board to make report of failure of settlement with recommendations.

25. If a settlement of the dispute is not arrived at during the course of its reference to the board, the board shall make a full report thereon to the minister, which report shall set forth the various proceedings and steps taken by the board for the purpose of fully and carefully ascertaining all the facts and circumstances, and shall also set forth such facts and circumstances, and its findings therefrom, including the cause of the dispute and the board's recommendation for the settlement of the dispute according to the merits and substantial justice of the case.

"According to the merits and substantial justice of the case." However, a board usually strikes a balance between expediency and absolute justice in its reports. An officer of a railway union writes that instead of "investigating the merits of the contentions of the parties" the board "reports on the basis of what in its opinion would prevent a strike or lockout." A railway manager said: "The board's decision is arrived at by splitting the difference.

is not the right thing, the absolutely just thing that is aimed at, but what company and men will accept." But this is the nature of every bargain. As pointed out before, the purpose of the boards is to conclude a contract, not to give judgment.

Form in which recommendation shall be made.

26. The board's recommendation shall deal with each item of the dispute and shall state in plain terms, and avoiding as far as possible all technicalities, what in the board's opinion ought or ought not to be done by the respective parties concerned. Wherever it appears to the board expedient so to do, its recommendation shall also state the period during which the proposed settlement should continue in force, and the date from which it should commence.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

53. * * * (8) The board's recommendation shall deal with each item of the dispute, and shall state in plain terms, avoiding as far as possible all technicalities, what, in the board's opinion, should or should not be done by the respective parties concerned.

(9) The board's recommendation shall also state the period during which the proposed settlement should continue in force, being in no case less than six months nor more than three years, and also the date from which it should commence, being not sooner than one month nor later than three months after the date of the recommendation.

"Shall also state the period." As the agreements signed through the intervention of the boards are voluntary contracts, the time they shall continue in force is a matter for adjustment between the parties. An important railway settlement, made shortly after the financial crisis, is to continue only six months.

"The date from which it should commence." Some labor men think settlements should be uniformly in force from the date an application is made. A representative of the western coal miners says: "I think that in all cases where a decision is given by the board in any matter under dispute, the decision should date back to the date of the application made by either party. This would create in the minds of the employees especially, a feeling that they would be treated fair. Owing to the great distances in our west a considerable time elapses before decisions can be given." However, such a provision might be contrary to the interests of the workers during a period of falling wages.

Report and recommendation to be made to the minister in writing.

27. The board's report and recommendation shall be made to the minister in writing, and shall be signed by such of the members as concur therein, and shall be transmitted by the chairman by registered letter to the registrar as soon as practicable after the reference of the dispute to the board; and in the same manner a minority report may be made by any dissenting member of the board.

The New Zealand act, 1900, reads as follows:

53. * * * (10) The board's report or recommendation shall be in writing under the hand of the chairman, and shall be delivered by him to the clerk within two months after the day on which the application for the reference was filed, or within such extended period, not exceeding one additional month, as the board thinks fit.

47. In all matters coming before the board the decision of the board shall be determined by a majority of the votes of the members present, exclusive of the chairman, except in the case of an equality of such votes, in which case the chairman shall have a casting vote.

"A minority report may be made." Where there is a difference of opinion as to matters of fact a minority report greatly weakens the influence of the board's findings with the public. For instance, in the Hamilton street railway dispute, where the chief issue was the dismissal of the secretary of the union by the company, the board was divided, two members finding that the man was dismissed for violating the rules of the company, and the other that he was innocent of these charges, and therefore inferentially dismissed for his activity in behalf of the union. When the parties can not be brought to an agreement by the board it is usually much harder for the board itself to unite in a single recommendation. In such cases, where matters of general principle are involved, the precedent becomes more important than in an agreement between the parties, the effect of which is only temporary. An experienced chairman remarked that where a board was not unanimous it was better to have three reports instead of two, for then the chairman's report had more influence with both parties.

Filing and distribution of report.

28. Upon receipt of the board's report the minister shall forthwith cause the report to be filed in the office of the registrar and a copy thereof to be sent free of charge to the parties to the dispute, and to the representative of any newspaper published in Canada who applies therefor, and the minister may distribute copies of the report, and of any minority report, in such manner as to him seems most desirable as a means of securing a compliance with the board's recommendation. The registrar shall, upon application, supply certified copies for a prescribed fee, to persons other than those mentioned in this section.

The New Zealand act, 1900, reads as follows:

54. Upon receipt of the board's report or recommendation the clerk shall (without fee) file the same, and allow all the parties to have free access thereto for the purpose of considering the same and taking copies thereof, and shall, upon application, supply certified copies for a prescribed fee.

The Canadian Conciliation and Labor Act, 1906, says:

21. The minister shall forthwith cause the report to be filed in the office of the department of labor, and a copy thereof to be sent free of

charge to each party to the difference, and to any municipal corporation as aforesaid, and to the representative of any newspaper published in Canada who may apply therefor.

(2) Any other person shall be entitled to a copy on payment of the actual cost thereof.

Publication of report.

29. For the information of Parliament and the public, the report and recommendation of the board, and any minority report, shall, without delay, be published in the Labor Gazette, and be included in the annual report of the department of labor to the governor-general.

The Canadian Conciliation and Labor Act, 1906, says:

22. For the information of Parliament and the public the report shall without delay be published in the Labor Gazette, and be included in the annual report of the said department to the governor-general.

"A copy * * * to be sent free of charge to * * * the representative of any newspaper" and "shall, without delay, be published in the Labor Gazette." By these provisions for publicity it is sought to influence public opinion in favor of a just settlement of the dispute. That well-informed public opinion is of some importance in securing this result is indicated by the fact that no unanimous board decision has been followed by a strike or lockout; and in only one case was there a strike even when the board divided. A representative of the Western Federation, speaking of a decision he did not approve, said: "The board's report went against the miners; but it was madness to strike, because both the public and the government would have been against the men after the recommendations of the board had been made."

Powers of board to summon witnesses, compel testimony, etc.

30. For the purpose of its inquiry the board shall have all the powers of summoning before it, and enforcing the attendance of witnesses, of administering oaths, and of requiring witnesses to give evidence on oath or on solemn affirmation (if they are persons entitled to affirm in civil matters) and to produce such books, papers or other documents or things as the board deems requisite to the full investigation of the matters into which it is inquiring, as is vested in any court of record in civil cases.

(2) Any member of the board may administer an oath, and the board may accept, admit and call for such evidence as in equity and good conscience it thinks fit, whether strictly legal evidence or not.

The New Zealand act, 1900, is as follows:

53. * * * (2) For the purposes of such inquiry the board shall have all the powers of summoning witnesses, administering oaths, compelling hearing and receiving evidence

order, which are by this act conferred on the court, save and except the production of books.

77. * * * (10) The court may accept, admit, and call for such evidence as in equity and good conscience it thinks fit, whether strictly legal evidence or not.

The Canadian Conciliation and Labor Act, 1906, reads as follows:

23. For the purpose of such inquiry, the board shall have all the power of summoning before it any witnesses, and of requiring them to give evidence on oath, or on solemn affirmation, if they are persons entitled to affirm in civil matters, and produce such documents and things as the board deems requisite to the full investigation of the matters into which it is inquiring, and shall have the same powers to enforce the attendance of witnesses, and to compel them to give evidence as is vested in any court of record in civil cases; but no such witness shall be compelled to answer any question, by his answer to which he might render himself liable to a criminal prosecution.

"The board shall have all the powers." A chairman who has served on eleven boards in some of the most important disputes referred under the act has never had occasion to use any power conferred in this section. For conciliatory proceedings they are seldom necessary. This and the subsequent sections should be understood as providing reserve measures for extreme cases and not as suggesting or regulating ordinary board procedure.

In New Zealand only the arbitration court can require the production of books.

Form of summons.

31. The summons shall be in the prescribed form, and may require any person to produce before the board any books, papers or other documents or things in his possession or under his control in any way relating to the proceedings.

The New Zealand act, 1900, reads as follows:

77. * * * (3) The summons shall be in the prescribed form, and may require such person to produce before the court any books, papers, or other documents in his possession, or under his control, in any way relating to the proceedings.

Documents not to be made public.

32. All books, papers and other documents or things produced before the board, whether voluntarily or in pursuance to summons, may be inspected by the board, and also by such parties as the board allows; but the information obtained therefrom shall not, except in so far as the board deems it expedient, be made public, and such parts of the books, papers or other documents as in the opinion of the board do not relate to the matter at issue may be sealed up.

The New Zealand act, 1900, reads as follows:

77. * * * (4) All books, papers, and other documents produced before the court, whether produced voluntarily or pursuant

to summons, may be inspected by the court and also by such of the parties as the court allows; but the information obtained therefrom shall not be made public, and such parts of the documents as, in the opinion of the court, do not relate to the matter at issue may be sealed up.

The New South Wales act, 1901, reads as follows:

26. * * * M. * * * No party to an industrial dispute shall be required to produce his books except by order of the president [of the arbitration court], and * * * such books when produced shall not, except by the consent of the party producing them, be inspected by anyone except the president or members of the court, who shall not divulge the contents thereof under penalty of dismissal from office;

The Canadian Conciliation and Labor Act, 1906, reads as follows:

26. All books, papers, and other documents, produced before the board, whether voluntarily or in pursuance to summons, may be inspected by the board, and also by such of the parties as the board allows; but the information obtained therefrom shall not be made public, and such parts of the books, papers, and documents as, in the opinion of the board, do not relate to the matter at issue, may be sealed up.

“Books * * * may be inspected by the board.” Employers and employees naturally regard this power from different points of view. A mine manager said he would pay fines rather than produce his books showing contracts with different buyers. Other managers said they would undergo a fine rather than produce books before a board containing labor officials. This feeling is especially evident in the west, where socialism is strong and general sentiment is decidedly in favor of asserting the public's right to natural resources. The tendency there might be for a board, with the support of public opinion, to scale down the profits of mine exploitation to a very low figure. On the other hand, employees want the penalties for not producing books, provided in section 36, increased.

Parties may be compelled to be witnesses.

33. Any party to the proceedings shall be competent and may be compelled to give evidence as a witness.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

77. * * * (11) Any party to the proceedings shall be competent and may be compelled to give evidence as a witness.

Allowance to witnesses.

34. Every person who is summoned and duly attends as a witness shall be entitled to an allowance for expenses according to the scale for the time being in force with respect to witnesses in civil suits in the superior courts in the Province where the proceedings are conducted.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

77. * * * (5) Every person who is summoned and duly attends as a witness shall be entitled to an allowance for expenses according to the scale for the time being in force with respect to witnesses in civil suits under "The Magistrates' Courts Act, 1893."

"According to the scale * * * in force * * * in the Province." In Nova Scotia where witness fees are very low, workmen complain of losses incurred in attending board hearings. Generally the men have some method of accounting by which the union makes good this loss, but then the expense falls upon the whole body of members. In a large mining dispute probably not less than fifty days' work would be lost in the aggregate by the workmen.

Witnesses in railway disputes to be entitled to free transportation.

35. Where a reference has been made to the board of a dispute between a railway company and its employees, any witness summoned by the board in connection with the dispute shall be entitled to free transportation over any railway en route when proceeding to the place of meeting of the board and thereafter returning to his home, and the board shall furnish to such witness a proper certificate evidencing his right to such free transportation.

The Canadian Conciliation and Labor Act, 1906, says:

24. * * * (2) Any witness summoned by the board shall be entitled to free transportation over any railway en route when proceeding to the place of meeting of the board, and thereafter returning to his home, and the board shall furnish to such witness a proper certificate evidencing his right to such free transportation.

Penalty for failing to obey summons.

36. If any person who has been duly served with such summons and to whom at the same time payment or tender has been made of his reasonable traveling expenses according to the aforesaid scale, fails to duly attend or to duly produce any book, paper or other document or thing as required by his summons, he shall be guilty of an offense and liable to a penalty not exceeding \$100, unless he shows that there was good and sufficient cause for such failure.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

77. * * * (6) If any person who has been duly served with such summons, and to whom at the same time payment or tender has been made of his reasonable traveling expenses according to the aforesaid scale, fails to duly attend or to duly produce any book, paper, or document as required by his summons he commits an offense, and is liable to a penalty not exceeding £20 [\$97.33], or to imprisonment for any term not exceeding one month, unless he shows that there was good and sufficient cause for such failure.

Contempt of the board.

37. If, in any proceedings before the board, any person willfully insults any member of the board or willfully interrupts the proceedings, or without good cause refuses to give evidence, or is guilty in any

other manner of any willful contempt in the face of the board, any officer of the board or any constable may take the person offending into custody and remove him from the precincts of the board, to be detained in custody until the rising of the board, and the person so offending shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding \$100.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

103. If in any proceedings before the board or court any person willfully insults any member of the board or court or the clerk, or willfully interrupts the proceedings, or without good cause refuses to give evidence, or is guilty in any other manner of any willful contempt in the face of the board or court, it shall be lawful for any officer of the board or court, or any member of the police force, to take the person offending into custody and remove him from the precincts of the board or court, to be detained in custody until the rising of the board or court, and the person so offending shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding £10 [\$48.67].

The Canadian Conciliation and Labor Act, 1906, says:

32. If, in any proceedings before the board, any person willfully insults any member of the board, or willfully interrupts the proceedings, or without good cause refuses to give evidence, or is guilty in any other manner of any unlawful contempt in the face of the board, it shall be lawful for any member of the board or constable to take the person offending into custody and remove him from the precincts of the board, and retain him in custody until the rising of the board.

It has been suggested, after a year's experience with the act, that these sections regulating testimony and procedure might be greatly simplified and combined in a single section. They are not so important as in a compulsory law.

View by direction of board—Power to interrogate, examination of factories, etc.

38. The board, or any member thereof, and, on being authorized in writing by the board, any other person, may, without any other warrant than this act, at any time, enter any building, mine, mine workings, ship, vessel, factory, workshop, place or premises of any kind, wherein, or in respect of which, any industry is carried on or any work is being or has been done or commenced, or any matter or thing is taking place or has taken place, which has been made the subject of a reference to the board, and inspect and view any work, material, machinery, appliance or article therein, and interrogate any persons in or upon any such building, mine, mine workings, ship, vessel, factory, workshop, place or premises as aforesaid, in respect of or in relation to any matter or thing hereinbefore mentioned, and any person who hinders or obstructs the board or any such person authorized as aforesaid, in the exercise of any power conferred by this section, shall be guilty of an offense and be liable to a penalty not exceeding \$100.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

108. Any board and the court, being authorized by the board or court, any member of the board or court or any officer of such board or court, or any other person

Members of board to be British subjects.

42. Persons other than British subjects shall not be allowed to act as members of a board.

"Other than British subjects." This provision, general in the Australasian acts, has been criticised as inapplicable to Canada by both employers and employees. An experienced board chairman said: "It would be better if the law were silent as to the citizenship of board members. They are not judicial officers exercising authority over an industry or a body of men, like an arbitration court, but negotiators to bring about an agreement that depends for its force upon the consent and support of the parties who make it. For this purpose it is often better to have outside arbitrators. Especially in railway disputes, where agreements may affect men working on both sides the international boundary, most of them citizens of another country, it is a narrow requirement that the parties appointed to bring about that agreement shall be British subjects." Workingmen oppose the provision, and the Trades and Labor Congress, at its last annual meeting, asked that the section be repealed. An eminent Canadian lawyer, formerly a justice of the Dominion supreme court, who speaks from experience as a board member under the act and in previous arbitrations, said in a published interview: "A question worth considering is that the members of boards be confined to British subjects. In case of the selection of a third member it might be desirable to go outside. A reason for this would be to get away from local atmosphere. It is sometimes difficult, also, to get three good men thoroughly familiar with the subject under dispute who are not in some way connected with the matter." Of course such suggestions have force only so long as the boards are temporary. In Canada there is a sentiment among employers hostile to the interference of American labor officials in Canadian disputes, and Canadian sections of international unions are denounced as foreign organizations.

Presence of parties.

43. If, without good cause shown, any party to proceedings before the board fails to attend or to be represented, the board may proceed as if he had duly attended or had been represented.

"Fails to attend or to be represented." In one case employers withdrew from proceedings and in other cases they have refused to appear. Workmen urge an amendment compelling parties to represent their case before the board. This would hardly bring the disputants to an amicable agreement, but might in some cases facilitate a public investigation.

Time and place of sittings of board.

44. The sittings of the board shall be held at such time and place as are from time to time fixed by the chairman, after consultation with

Counsel or solicitors excluded except by consent of parties and of board.

41. No counsel or solicitor shall be entitled to appear or be heard before the board, except with the consent of the parties to the dispute, and notwithstanding such consent the board may decline to allow counsel or solicitors to appear.

The New Zealand act of 1900, as amended by the act of 1901, says:

52. * * * (8) No counsel, barrister, or solicitor, whether acting under a power of attorney or otherwise, shall be allowed to appear or be heard before a board, or any committee thereof, unless all the parties to the reference expressly consent thereto, or unless he is a bona fide employer or worker in the industry to which the dispute relates.

The Canadian Conciliation and Labor Act, 1906, says:

29. No counsel or solicitor shall be entitled to appear before the board except with the consent of all parties to the difference, and notwithstanding such consent, the board may, if it deems it advisable, decline to allow counsel or solicitors to appear before it.

"No counsel or solicitor shall be entitled to appear." In New South Wales the parties are allowed to be represented by lawyers, but the court can not assess attorney fees as costs against the losing party. Lawyers in conducting cases naturally bring with them court precedents; they take the position of watchful antagonists rather than of open-minded bargainers, and professional habit and a misconception of their functions cause them to fence for technical advantages and make points against each other in disregard of the conciliatory purpose of their office. Workmen feel at a disadvantage, because money counts in employing counsel.

"The board may decline to allow counsel or solicitors to appear." This provision is original in Canadian legislation and is a desirable addition. Only in very rare instances, where there is special need for legal representation, will all three parties agree to admit lawyers. This section does not cover the appointment of lawyers as board members. Such appointees sometimes act as counsel for their respective sides. In describing one hearing an employer interested writes: "The solicitor * * * who represented the union (on the board) did not hesitate to make a case for the miners' union, took full advantage of his right to examine and cross-examine witnesses in the most able way." Where the chairman is a man of authority and discretion some latitude can be allowed in this respect. But the danger is increased that the board may depart from the investigating attitude and divide within itself.

Members of board to be British subjects.

42. Persons other than British subjects shall not be allowed to act as members of a board.

"Other than British subjects." This provision, general in the Australasian acts, has been criticised as inapplicable to Canada by both employers and employees. An experienced board chairman said: "It would be better if the law were silent as to the citizenship of board members. They are not judicial officers exercising authority over an industry or a body of men, like an arbitration court, but negotiators to bring about an agreement that depends for its force upon the consent and support of the parties who make it. For this purpose it is often better to have outside arbitrators. Especially in railway disputes, where agreements may affect men working on both sides the international boundary, most of them citizens of another country, it is a narrow requirement that the parties appointed to bring about that agreement shall be British subjects." Workingmen oppose the provision, and the Trades and Labor Congress, at its last annual meeting, asked that the section be repealed. An eminent Canadian lawyer, formerly a justice of the Dominion supreme court, who speaks from experience as a board member under the act and in previous arbitrations, said in a published interview: "A question worth considering is that the members of boards be confined to British subjects. In case of the selection of a third member it might be desirable to go outside. A reason for this would be to get away from local atmosphere. It is sometimes difficult, also, to get three good men thoroughly familiar with the subject under dispute who are not in some way connected with the matter." Of course such suggestions have force only so long as the boards are temporary. In Canada there is a sentiment among employers hostile to the interference of American labor officials in Canadian disputes, and Canadian sections of international unions are denounced as foreign organizations.

Presence of parties.

43. If, without good cause shown, any party to proceedings before the board fails to attend or to be represented, the board may proceed as if he had duly attended or had been represented.

"Fails to attend or to be represented." In one case employers withdrew from proceedings and in other cases they have refused to appear. Workmen urge an amendment compelling parties to represent their case before the board. This would hardly bring the disputants to an amicable agreement, but might in some cases facilitate a public investigation.

Time and place of sittings of board.

44. The sittings of the board shall be held at such time and place as are from time to time fixed by the chairman, after consultat

the other members of the board, and the parties shall be notified by the chairman as to the time and place at which sittings are to be held: *Provided*, That, so far as practicable, the board shall sit in the locality within which the subject-matter of the proceeding before it arose.

Proceedings to be public unless otherwise determined by board.

45. The proceedings of the board shall be conducted in public: *Provided*, That at any such proceedings before it, the board, on its own motion, or on the application of any of the parties, may direct that the proceedings shall be conducted in private and that all persons other than the parties, their representatives, the officers of the board and the witnesses under examination shall withdraw.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

107. (1) The proceedings of the board or court shall be conducted in public:

Provided, That, at any stage of the proceedings before it, the board or court, of its own motion, or on the application of any of the parties, may direct that the proceedings be conducted in private; and in such case all persons (other than the parties, their representatives, the officers of the board or court, and the witness under examination) shall withdraw.

The Canadian Conciliation and Labor Act, 1906, says:

33. It shall be in the discretion of the board to conduct its proceedings in public or in private.

"May direct that the proceedings shall be conducted in private." Persons directly interested in the dispute are never excluded from board meetings unless private evidence, such as books and papers, is being introduced. But some boards do not admit press representatives except with the understanding that current proceedings shall not be published. This is to prevent sensational newspaper discussion likely to prevent conciliatory settlement. Even acrimonious arguments before the board are soon forgotten if not recorded and magnified and commented upon in the press. Parties recede more willingly from what they intended to be irrevocable positions when protected from public charges of inconsistency. One employer criticised all public hearing, saying frankly that they sometimes revealed bad labor conditions, and "what hurts one master hurts all masters."

Majority of board.

46. The decision of a majority of the members present at a sitting of the board shall be the decision of the board, and the findings and recommendations of the majority of its members shall be those of the board.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

79. The decision of a majority of the members present at the sitting of the court, or, if the members present are equally divided in opinion, then the decision of the president, shall be the decision "

Quorum.

47. The presence of the chairman and at least one other member of the board shall be necessary to constitute a sitting of the board.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

78. The presence of the president and at least one other member shall be necessary to constitute a sitting of the court.

All members of board to be present.

48. In case of the absence of any one member from a meeting of the board the other two members shall not proceed, unless it is shown that the third member has been notified of the meeting in ample time to admit of his attendance.

2. If any member of a board dies, or becomes incapacitated, or refuses or neglects to act, his successor shall be appointed in the manner provided with respect to the original member of the board.

Trivial matters.

49. The board may at any time dismiss any matter referred to it which it thinks frivolous or trivial.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

82. The court may at any time dismiss any matter referred to it which it thinks frivolous or trivial, and in such case the award may be limited to an order upon the party bringing the matter before the court for payment of costs of bringing the same.

Employment of experts.

50. The board may, with the consent of the minister, employ competent experts or assessors to examine the books or official reports of either party, and to advise it upon any technical or other matter material to the investigation, but shall not disclose such reports or the results of such inspection or examination under this section without the consent of both the parties to the dispute.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

101. Whenever an industrial dispute involving technical questions is referred to the board or court the following special provisions shall apply:

(1) At any stage of the proceedings the board or the court may direct that two experts nominated by the parties shall sit as experts.

(2) One of the experts shall be nominated by the party, or, as the case may be, by all the parties, whose interests are with the employers; and one by the party, or, as the case may be, by all the parties, whose interests are with the workers.

(3) The experts shall be nominated in such manner as the board or court directs, or as is prescribed by regulations, but shall not be deemed to be members of the board or court for the purpose of disposing of such dispute.

(4) The powers by this section conferred upon the board and the court respectively shall, whilst the board or the court is not sitting,

be exercisable by the chairman of the board and the president of the court respectively.

The Commonwealth bill, 1904, says:

43. (1) The court may appoint two assessors for the purpose of advising it in relation to any industrial dispute involving technical questions, and the assessors shall discharge such duties as are directed by the court or as are prescribed.

(2) One of the assessors shall be a person nominated by such of the parties to the dispute as, in the opinion of the court, have interests in common with the employers, and the other shall be a person nominated by such of the parties to the dispute as, in the opinion of the court, have interests in common with the employees.

(3) If default is made in nominating either or both of the assessors as required by the court, or if the parties consent, the court may appoint an assessor or assessors without any nomination.

The New South Wales act, 1901, says:

27. The president and each member of the court shall be sworn in the manner and before the persons prescribed before entering upon the hearing of any dispute, not to disclose to any person whatsoever, any matters or evidence relating to any trade secret or to the profits or financial position of any witness or party, and shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding £500 [\$2,433] and dismissal from office for a violation of such oath, and shall at the request of any party or witness hear such evidence in camera.

"May * * * employ competent experts or assessors." The Australasian provision, that these shall be nominated by the parties, is hardly needed in the Canadian law, where the acceptance of the finding of the board is voluntary.

"Shall not disclose such reports." No penalty is attached to this provision, as there is in the New South Wales act quoted. The law is criticised by employers for this reason, and the omission partly accounts for the reluctance to exhibit books mentioned in the comments on section 32. But the publicity features of the law require that the board shall be free to reveal any matters essential to a clear understanding of its report.

REMUNERATION AND EXPENSES OF BOARD.

Allowance to members of board.

51. The members of a board while engaged in the adjustment of a dispute shall be remunerated for their services as follows:

(a) To members other than the chairman (i) an allowance of \$5 a day for a time not exceeding three days during which the members may be actually engaged in selecting a third member of the board; (ii) an allowance of \$15 for each whole day's sittings of the board; (iii) an allowance of \$7 for each half day's sittings of the board;

(b) The chairman shall be allowed \$20 a day for each whole day's sittings of the board, and \$10 a day for each half day's sittings;

(c) No allowance shall be made to any member of the board on account of any sitting of the board which does not extend over a half day, unless it is shown to the satisfaction of the minister that such meeting of the board was necessary to the performance of its duties as speedily as possible, and that the causes which prevented a half day's sitting of the board were beyond its control.

Acceptance of gratuities and perquisites by members an offense.

52. No member of the board shall accept in addition to his salary as a member of the board any perquisite or gratuity of any kind, from any corporation, association, partnership or individual in any way interested in any matter or thing before or about to be brought before the board in accordance with the provisions of this act. The accepting of such perquisite or gratuity by any member of the board shall be an offense and shall render such member liable to a fine not exceeding \$1,000.

Actual necessary traveling expenses of members allowed.

53. Each member of the board will be entitled to his actual necessary traveling expenses for each day that he is engaged in traveling from or to his place of residence for the purpose of attending or after having attended a meeting of the board.

Payment of expenses of board.

54. All expenses of the board, including expenses for transportation incurred by the members thereof or by persons under its order in making investigations under this act, salaries of employees and agents, and fees and mileage to witnesses shall be allowed and paid upon the presentation of itemized vouchers therefor, approved by the chairman of the board, which vouchers shall be forwarded by the chairman to the minister. The chairman shall also forward to the minister a certified and detailed statement of the sittings of the board, and of the members present at such sittings.

"All expenses of the board." The total cost of the act during the first year, including all the items mentioned in this section, is reported to have been under \$18,000. The cost of a hearing naturally depends on the time taken to effect a settlement, and varies from \$100 or \$200 to \$1,000. It is not necessarily proportionate to the importance of the dispute.

DUTIES OF THE REGISTRAR.

55. It shall be the duty of the registrar:

(a) To receive and register, and, subject to the provisions of this act, to deal with all applications by employers or employees for a reference of any dispute to a board, and to at once bring to the minister's attention every such application;

(b) To conduct such correspondence with the parties and members of boards as may be necessary to constitute any board as speedily as possible in accordance with the provisions of this act;

(c) To receive and file all reports and recommendations of boards, and conduct such correspondence and do such things as may assist in rendering effective the recommendations of the boards, in accordance with the provisions of this act;

(d) To keep a register in which shall be entered the particulars of all applications, references, reports and recommendations relating to the appointment of a board, and its proceedings; and to safely keep all applications, statements, reports, recommendations and other documents relating to proceedings before the board, and, when so required, transmit all or any of such to the minister;

(e) To supply to any parties, on request, information as to this act, or any regulations or proceedings thereunder, and also to furnish parties to a dispute and members of the board with necessary blank forms, forms of summons or other papers or documents required in connection with the effective carrying out of the provisions of this act;

(f) Generally, to do all such things and take all such proceedings as may be required in the performance of his duties prescribed under this act or any regulations thereunder.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS PRIOR TO AND PENDING A REFERENCE TO A BOARD
ILLEGAL.

The following six sections contain the penalty provisions which give original character to the act and have excited the most discussion. Opposition to them comes entirely from the labor side, and chiefly from the larger railway orders and mining organizations. The legislative representative at Ottawa for the largest railway unions recommends "the repeal of sections 56, 57, 58, 59, 60 and 61, for the reason that I believe that these sections interfere with the principles of liberty and citizenship we are taught we are entitled to by the constitution of our country." On the other hand the Trades and Labor Congress refused by a decisive vote to recommend the repeal of the same sections. The following opinion of the value of these clauses is interesting because it comes from a person possibly having a larger experience with the direct working of the act than anyone else in Canada:

"Very little reliance can be placed on the penal clauses, and the main reliance must be in convincing people that the act is just and reasonably carried out."

Prohibition of strikes or lockouts prior to or pending reference to board.

56. It shall be unlawful for any employer to declare or cause a lockout, or for any employee to go on strike, on account of any dispute prior to or during a reference of such dispute to a board of conciliation and investigation under the provisions of this act, or prior to or during a reference under the provisions concerning ⁷⁰² in the Conciliation and Labor Act: *Provided*, The act shall prohibit the suspension (www)

of the working of any persons therein for any cause not constituting a lockout or strike: *Provided also*, That, except where the parties have entered into an agreement under section 62 of this act, nothing in this act shall be held to restrain any employer from declaring a lockout, or any employee from going on strike in respect of any dispute which has been duly referred to a board and which has been dealt with under section 24 or 25 of this act, or in respect of any dispute which has been the subject of a reference under the provisions concerning railway disputes in the Conciliation and Labor Act.

The New Zealand act of 1900, as amended by the act of 1901, says:

100. In every case where an industrial dispute has been referred to the board the following special provisions shall apply:

(1) Until the dispute has been finally disposed of by the board or the court neither the parties to the dispute nor the workers affected by the dispute shall, on account of the dispute, do or be concerned in doing, directly or indirectly, anything in the nature of a strike or lockout, or of a suspension or discontinuance of employment or work, but the relationship of employer and employed shall continue uninterrupted by the dispute or anything arising out of the dispute, or anything preliminary to the reference of the dispute, and connected therewith.

(2) If default is made in faithfully observing any of the foregoing provisions of this section, every union, association, employer, worker, or person committing or concerned in committing the default shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding £50 [\$243.33].

(3) The dismissal of any worker, or the discontinuance of work by any worker, pending the final disposition of an industrial dispute shall be deemed to be a default under this section, unless the party charged with such default satisfies the court that such dismissal or discontinuance was not on account of the dispute.

"To declare * * * a lockout * * * to go on strike." The force of this provision depends on the definition of strike and lockout in the second section of the act.

"Prior to." In the trial of two union officers for inciting a strike prior to a reference, it was urged in defense that the prohibition did not apply unless one of the parties had asked for a board, and that the restrictive provision of the act was intended to take effect only if the machinery of the act was going to be used. This defense was disallowed by the court, it being held that the first object of the law was to secure for the public continuous service, and that its effectiveness for this purpose did not depend on the will of the two parties to the dispute. "There is nothing in the act to show that it is out of regard for the rights of the workmen that the employer is restrained from a lockout or out of regard for the rights of the latter that the former are restrained from a strike." Parliament had asserted "the right of temporary interference with private liberty of action by the prohibition of lockouts and strikes during the period of investigation as justified by the interests of the community" (a *Rex v. McGuire*.)

(c) To receive and file all reports and recommendations of boards, and conduct such correspondence and do such things as may assist in rendering effective the recommendations of the boards, in accordance with the provisions of this act;

(d) To keep a register in which shall be entered the particulars of all applications, references, reports and recommendations relating to the appointment of a board, and its proceedings; and to safely keep all applications, statements, reports, recommendations and other documents relating to proceedings before the board, and, when so required, transmit all or any of such to the minister;

(e) To supply to any parties, on request, information as to this act, or any regulations or proceedings thereunder, and also to furnish parties to a dispute and members of the board with necessary blank forms, forms of summons or other papers or documents required in connection with the effective carrying out of the provisions of this act;

(f) Generally, to do all such things and take all such proceedings as may be required in the performance of his duties prescribed under this act or any regulations thereunder.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS PRIOR TO AND PENDING A REFERENCE TO A BOARD
ILLEGAL.

The following six sections contain the penalty provisions which give original character to the act and have excited the most discussion. Opposition to them comes entirely from the labor side, and chiefly from the larger railway orders and mining organizations. The legislative representative at Ottawa for the largest railway unions recommends "the repeal of sections 56, 57, 58, 59, 60 and 61, for the reason that I believe that these sections interfere with the principles of liberty and citizenship we are taught we are entitled to by the constitution of our country." On the other hand the Trades and Labor Congress refused by a decisive vote to recommend the repeal of the same sections. The following opinion of the value of these clauses is interesting because it comes from a person possibly having a larger experience with the direct working of the act than anyone else in Canada:

"Very little reliance can be placed on the penal clauses, and the main reliance must be in convincing people that the act is just and reasonably carried out."

Prohibition of strikes or lockouts prior to or pending reference to board.

56. It shall be unlawful for any employer to declare or cause a lockout, or for any employee to go on strike, on account of any dispute prior to or during a reference of such dispute to a board of conciliation and investigation under the provisions of this act, or prior to or during a reference under the provisions concerning railway disputes in the Conciliation and Labor Act: *Provided*, That in this act shall prohibit the suspension or discontinuance of any strike or

party. It is true that the men say the strike is their form of appeal, and they might strike in spite of the law." A labor representative in a Nova Scotia mining district said that the awards should be binding and that compulsory awards could be enforced as well as the other provisions of the law. In conversing with a number of coal miners as they were leaving the pit the same opinion was expressed. In a recent letter a miner writes: "If you pass such a law in the States, make the awards compulsory." A labor editor in eastern Canada doubted if publicity would prevent strikes, and decidedly favored compulsory awards, made by boards of five members permanently appointed in each industry. In western Canada a leading labor man favored binding awards, but only on condition that they be given by permanent boards elected by popular vote.

A rather smaller number, but among them men of exceptional authority in labor matters, took an opposite view. The secretary of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association said the employers he came in touch with were opposed to compulsory arbitration. Western coal operators held the same opinion, one of them stating pertinently that compulsory arbitration encouraged litigation over trivial grievances. The secretary of a coal miners' union opposed binding awards because the chairman is not an expert, and therefore his decision ought not to control conditions of mining. A representative of a railway order thought it unwise to submit matters so vital to the workers to any outside authority. A board chairman of wide experience said: "I do not favor compulsory awards. They tie the hands of a board in getting a settlement, and deprive the decision of its moral weight. There is this difference between a court decision and a board settlement: After a lawsuit the litigants go their way and may never see each other again. Their relations may stop forever at that point. But after an industrial dispute the parties must live and work together under the terms of the settlement. They must interpret the terms of the agreement, as the board does not survive to do that for them. The parties will carry out with good will and in good faith only a decision to which they have both assented." It was pointed out by the same person that in railway disputes a compulsory award made in Canada would not have force on any part of a system that was operated in the United States.

A second modification of this clause of the act has been suggested. It is thus put, in the words of a large employer: "We want an amendment to require that the decisions of the board shall be reported to the department of labor, and shall have been made public by the department, with the objections of either side, for at least ten days before it shall be lawful to strike. Often men would not strike if they knew what an award really meant, but they are misled by misunderstanding the decision or because their leaders, incensed at

not getting all they asked for, urge them into a strike in the first sting of defeat." An employer said that in the public interest, in order to prevent a strike, he had been compelled to make unjustified concessions which the men on sober second thought would not have exacted. But this supports the contention of some labor men that in losing the right suddenly to strike they have lost a valuable weapon. It is true that the miners struck at Springhill against a board decision because, according to their own statement, they misunderstood the award, or, in the words of one of the strikers: "The award did not mean so much as it was said to mean when first published." But a further postponement of the strike privilege would meet strenuous opposition from workingmen. One of their leading representatives said: "At first thought I am against such an amendment. The workmen can't flirt with an award. They must accept it once for all and live up to its provisions. It is with them either strike or not strike. But employers can quibble and delay putting in operation all the details of an award and so prolong friction. In the first place, I am against it because a lockout may be put in force in detail; and in the second place, because a strike must be sudden and immediate, and to postpone it discourages the men and is almost equal to not striking." This argument, by a strong supporter of the act, is the same as that of its opponents against making strikes at any time unlawful. These latter arguments by labor people are presented in the interest of workers alone, in disregard of the interest the general public and other workers may have in preventing the cessation of an industry. They express a sentiment prevailing among the stronger labor organizations that they are weakened in bargaining with their employers by being deprived of the right to strike suddenly. As an officer of an international railway union expressed it: "You all tell us that labor is a commodity, to be sold to the highest bidder. Very well, then you can raise wages only when labor is scarce. You must sell on the top of the market—make your contracts at the best season. Now the law comes in and stops that and makes you sell on a market all the way from a month to four or five months later, when labor conditions may have changed entirely. This change is usually bad for labor, because the company will use every effort to bring in men in the meantime. How would the farmer like a law making him wait six weeks or two months on an average before selling his wheat after the time he thought most favorable for selling it? How would the mine owner or manufacturer like the same kind of a law? The Lemieux act makes us sell our labor after a delay in a market that has been fixed against us. * * * Delays can't be avoided. Most railway cases carry a thirty days' notice, besides the delays that occur in getting a board together and arriving at a decision. Our case was begun by notice of a revision of contracts October 1. The board met Decem-

ber 3 and the decision was given December 20, allowing the company over two and a half months to prepare for a strike." From the men's point of view this particular delay was peculiarly unfortunate, as a financial crisis, bringing on a period of unemployment, occurred in the interim. Other labor officials seem to think workingmen nearly helpless without the ready redress of an immediate strike. One of these writes: "An employer can intrude on the right of an employee in one direction, and, after the usual procedure has been gone through and the act invoked, even though a true remedy were had, the same process can be repeated again and again, in a somewhat different form each time, keeping the employees constantly in trouble so that the resources of their organization would be taxed to the utmost, their treasury impoverished, and perhaps the organization destroyed entirely." In general, the stronger party to the labor bargain, whether employer or workers, clings to the strike or lockout privilege, while the weaker courts government intervention.

The opposition to penalizing strikes is not confined entirely to workingmen. A successful board chairman thought the clauses were unnecessary and made a strike more likely if the board failed to effect a voluntary settlement. A western judge, who had also served as chairman of two boards, expressed practically the same opinion: "If you do enforce the penalties against the men, you injure the effectiveness of the law by making conciliation difficult in all subsequent disputes. The spirit of the law is to conciliate, and that is spoiled if you bring the penalties too strongly to the fore."

Relation of parties to remain unchanged pending proceedings.

57. Employers and employees shall give at least thirty days' notice of an intended change affecting conditions of employment with respect to wages or hours; and in every case where a dispute has been referred to a board, until the dispute has been finally dealt with by the board, neither of the parties nor the employees affected shall alter the conditions of employment with respect to wages or hours, or on account of the dispute do or be concerned in doing, directly or indirectly, anything in the nature of a lockout or strike, or a suspension or discontinuance of employment or work, but the relationship of employer and employee shall continue uninterrupted by the dispute, or anything arising out of the dispute; but if, in the opinion of the board, either party uses this or any other provision of this act for the purpose of unjustly maintaining a given condition of affairs through delay, and the board so reports to the minister, such party shall be guilty of an offense, and liable to the same penalties as are imposed for a violation of the next preceding section.

"Shall give at least thirty days' notice." As no penalty accompanies this clause, workingmen urge an amendment imposing a fine specifically for its violation. The miners of Springhill, where four have been applied for within about a year, claim as a prin-

cial grievance that the company changes conditions of employment without notice. In the western coal fields and at Cobalt men have been notified of an immediate reduction of wages. The secretary of the miners' union at the latter place thus sums up the operation of this section from the labor standpoint: "If the employer reduces wages at a moment's notice and (a) the employees stay at work, no lockout or strike is caused and therefore the employer is not liable to penalty; (b) if the employees apply for a board, no provision is made to enable them to collect wages at full schedule; (c) if employees quit, they are subject to penalties even though the employers first broke the law. It is evident that this is one-sided legislation."

"Neither of the parties * * * shall alter conditions of employment with respect to wages or hours." The Trades and Labor Congress wants an amendment to this section to prevent an employer from bringing in strike breakers during an investigation. A company might thus alter the condition of the labor market considerably without directly changing wages or hours of work, and so fortify itself for a possible strike if its claims were not accepted by the board. While the union may likewise employ this time to prepare for a strike—and the Canadian Pacific telegraphers are said to have done so—the delay is probably of more advantage to employers than to employees, if a break is later to occur between the parties.

"For the purpose of unjustly maintaining a given condition of affairs through delay." Mine managers who have virtually locked out their men by shutting down their mines justify this action by the claim that to continue operating during the proceedings before a board might entail heavy losses. This contingency is thus described by a large mining employer: "It would seem as if it would be very much more fair if some additional provision were made in the act to relieve the company from being subject to very serious losses due to their forced operation pending the investigation by the act; that is, assume in the case of the X mines and smelters, where the union had extorted higher wages than I have ever known to exist, namely, \$4 for miners, eight hours' work, and \$3.30 for common laborers on the surface working nine hours. For a time the price of copper was not only less than 13 cents, but it was exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, to make any sales of that metal whatever. Their only recourse was to close down. Had the union suspected any such action, however, they might have asked for increased wages, applied for arbitration, and by prolonging the arbitration have forced the mines and smelters in that district to continue operations at fearful losses, which might even bankrupt some of those companies."

Were there permanent boards, provision might be made for brief interlocutory proceedings to determine whether a shut down were justifiable on account of business conditions, or if it constituted in effect

a lockout, and also to ascertain if a continuation of operations during proceedings before the board might jeopardize the solvency of a company. These questions are most important in case of metal mines, which are not strictly public utilities.

Penalty for causing lockout.

58. Any employer declaring or causing a lockout contrary to the provisions of this act shall be liable to a fine of not less than \$100 nor more than \$1,000 for each day or part of a day that such lockout exists.

"Not less than \$100 nor more than \$1,000 for each day." Workmen object that this penalty is not equal to that imposed on employees for the same offense. In case of a mine or railway employing 100 men, the aggregate fines that may be imposed on an employer range from \$100 to \$1,000 for each day of lockout; but the aggregate fines that may be imposed on workers in the same establishment range from \$1,000 to \$5,000 for each day of strike. The amendment suggested is that an employer be fined in proportion to the number of men he locks out, so the penalty may be equal in each case. The Trade and Labor Congress asked a still more stringent penalty, ranging from \$10 to \$1,000 a day for each employee locked out.

Penalty for going on strike.

59. Any employee who goes on strike contrary to the provisions of this act shall be liable to a fine of not less than \$10 nor more than \$50, for each day or part of a day that such employee is on strike.

"Any employee * * * shall be liable to a fine. The Australasian laws require labor unions to incorporate, so their funds become attachable for penalties. Unions then evade responsibility by resolving against a strike in their corporate capacity, while their members sympathize, support, and engage in a strike as individuals. Nevertheless incorporation hampers financing a general or protracted strike and largely prevents sympathetic assistance from other organizations. Some Canadian employers seem to think incorporation of unions would settle the difficulty of collecting fines. The council of the Montreal Board of Trade, with the dockers' strike fresh in their minds, wrote officially to the minister of labor as follows:

The council feels that under the present conditions such an act could not be made justly or equitably operative as between employer and employee, as while actions could be taken and penalties imposed upon employers it would be, generally speaking, impossible to deal in the same manner with employees, either individually or collectively, individuals being at all times free to come and go and the labor associations which generally represent and direct the employees being in many cases foreign institutions and seldom, if ever, incorporated bodies; that if the bill were so amended as to be made applicable

only as between employers and responsible incorporated bodies the position would be improved.

The secretary of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association says: "The employer who declares a lockout may be promptly arrested and fined, but if his workmen to the number of a thousand go on a strike in violation of the act it is absurd to suppose that they could all be arrested and brought before a magistrate. Moreover, it would be the veriest folly for an employer who is anxious to get his men back to work to have some of their number arrested; for such action would immediately make the parties apprehended appear like heroes and martyrs in the eyes of their fellows."

The solicitor for the United Mine Workers in western Canada said: "It is not practicable to enforce the full penalty against the men if they care to strike. Each man would have to be tried separately. If there were 1,200 men out on strike, and two trials a day, it would take a court three years, attending to this business alone while in session, to clear its docket of these cases."

Penalty for inciting to lockout or strike.

60. Any person who incites, encourages or aids in any manner any employer to declare or continue a lockout, or any employee to go or continue on strike contrary to the provisions of this act, shall be guilty of an offense and liable to a fine of not less than \$50 nor more than \$1,000.

"Incites, encourages, or aids in any manner any employer * * * or any employee." This applies chiefly to violations by workmen, as the employer is usually the sole party responsible for a lockout. The Trades and Labor Congress voted in favor of repealing this section, possibly because it seems directed especially against union officers. But while it would prevent sympathetic strikes, it would also prevent employers from assisting each other in labor difficulties, either financially or by trading contracts. Two union officers have been convicted for advocating a strike, under this section, and fines of \$500 each imposed; but the conviction has not been pressed.

Procedure for enforcing penalties.

61. The procedure for enforcing penalties imposed or authorized to be imposed by this act shall be that prescribed by Part XV of the Criminal Code relating to summary convictions.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

96. * * * (1) Proceedings to recover the penalty by this act imposed in respect of any such offense shall be taken in the court in a summary way under the provisions of "The Justices of the Peace Act, 1882," and those is shall, mutatis mutandis, apply in

like manner as if the court were a court of justices exercising summary jurisdiction under that act:

The New Zealand act, 1901, says:

16. Proceedings for the enforcement of any industrial agreement, or award, or order of the court may be taken by the inspector of factories of the district, and in any such case it shall not be necessary for a union or association to pass any resolution or take any ballot authorizing such proceedings.

Suits for violating the act are usually brought by the injured parties, though it is discretionary with the minister of labor to make Crown cases of them. But officials will seldom interfere if the parties directly affected are not sufficiently interested to do so. Some labor men think all cases should be brought by the government, as the present arrangement gives an advantage to the side having the longer purse. Speaking of this question, a federal official experienced with the act writes: "It is apparently assumed that if neither party to a given dispute is sufficiently interested to invoke the machinery of the act, no particular grievance can be felt by either. This is similar to the law of trespass or of libel. It must be admitted, however, that this does not meet the whole case; one party or the other, in the case of the infringement of the act, may feel a decided grievance, yet may wish to throw on the government the responsibility of taking the necessary steps to enforce the act."

SPECIAL PROVISIONS.

Recommendation of a board binding in certain cases.

62. Either party to a dispute which may be referred under this act to a board may agree in writing, at any time before or after the board has made its report and recommendation, to be bound by the recommendation of the board in the same manner as parties are bound upon an award made pursuant to a reference to arbitration on the order of a court of record; every agreement so to be bound made by one party shall be forwarded to the registrar who shall communicate it to the other party, and if the other party agrees in like manner to be bound by the recommendation of the board, then the recommendation shall be made a rule of the said court on the application of either party and shall be enforceable in like manner.

The New Zealand act, 1900, says:

57. At any time before the board's recommendation is filed, all or any of the parties to the reference may by memorandum of consent in the prescribed form, executed by themselves or their attorneys (but not by their representatives), and filed in the office of the clerk, agree to accept the recommendation of the board, and in such case the board's recommendation, when filed, shall operate and be enforceable in the same manner in all respects as an industrial agreement duly executed and filed by the parties.

"In the same manner as parties are bound upon an award made pursuant to a reference to arbitration on the order of a court of

record." This is the only instance in which an award is enforced by the government, and the enforcement is based upon an agreement between the parties, in the nature of a contract, and not, as in the compulsory laws, upon the authority of a court issuing its own orders irrespective of the will of the parties affected.

In such cases the court would presumably interpret the award. The lack of an interpreting authority is a weakness in the act. The board may provide in the settlement for a conciliation committee to smooth over difficulties arising in the application of its decision; but this is not always enough. An international labor officer writes: "I have now before me a report * * * setting forth the discipline which has been meted out for trivial and trumped up offenses to eleven men on lines in the vicinity and east of Montreal, four of whom have been dismissed, which clearly indicates that the company is attempting to retaliate upon us on account of the bitter feeling that was engendered during the negotiations before the board of conciliation. It is the more pronounced in view of the fact that these dismissals are all either prominent officers or members of our organization. In addition to this, it is further clearly pointed out to us by other sources of information that the company entertains very bitter feelings against our organization, on account of our aggressiveness before the board, and that they intend to make reprisals upon our ranks." Where such a spirit prevails or is suspected, there has evidently been no true conciliation, and the act has failed of its purpose in the first application. But if there were an authority to consider such cases, without making them the occasion of an entirely new reference, aggressions by either side would be less likely to occur. This seems to be the chief advantage in having the parties refer their settlement entirely to the board, as provided for in this section.

Application of provisions of this act to any dispute on joint application of parties.

63. In the event of a dispute arising in any industry or trade other than such as may be included under the provisions of this act, and such dispute threatens to result in a lockout or strike, or has actually resulted in a lockout or strike, either of the parties may agree in writing to allow such dispute to be referred to a board of conciliation and investigation, to be constituted under the provisions of this act.

(2) Every agreement to allow such reference shall be forwarded to the registrar, who shall communicate it to the other party, and if such other party agrees in like manner to allow the dispute to be referred to a board, the dispute may be so referred as if the industry or trade and the parties were included within the provisions of this act.

(3) From the time that the parties have been notified in writing by the registrar that in consequence of their mutual agreement to refer the dispute to a board under the provisions of this act, the

minister has decided to refer such dispute, the lockout or strike, if in existence, shall forthwith cease, and the provisions of this act shall bind the parties.

"And if such other party agrees in like manner." This has happened in a single instance, involving a large cotton mill, where the board obtained a satisfactory settlement. In other cases one party has applied, but the stronger side has refused to come under the act.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Courts not to recognize reports of or testimony before a board, except in prosecutions for perjury.

64. No court of the Dominion of Canada, or of any Province or Territory thereof, shall have power or jurisdiction to recognize or enforce, or to receive in evidence any report of a board, or any testimony or proceedings before a board, as against any person or for any purpose, except in the case of the prosecution of such person for perjury.

Technicality not to invalidate proceedings.

65. No proceeding under this act shall be deemed invalid by reason of any defect of form or any technical irregularity.

Payment of services under act.

66. The minister shall determine the allowance or amounts to be paid to all persons other than the members of a board, employed by the government or any board, including the registrar, secretaries, clerks, experts, stenographers or other persons performing any services under the provisions of this act.

Prosecutions under act to be reported to registrar.

67. In case of prosecutions under this act, whether a conviction is or is not obtained, it shall be the duty of the clerk of the court before which any such prosecution takes place to briefly report the particulars of such prosecution to the registrar within thirty days after it has been determined, and such clerk shall be entitled to a prescribed fee in payment of his services.

Minister may make, alter, and amend regulations.

68. The governor in council may make regulations as to the time within which anything hereby authorized shall be done, and also as to any other matter or thing which appears to him necessary or advisable to the effectual working of the several provisions of this act. All such regulations shall go into force on the day of the publication thereof in *The Canada Gazette*, and they shall be laid before Parliament within fifteen days after such publication, or, if Parliament is not then in session, within fifteen days after the opening of the next session thereof.

Expenses.

69. All charges and expenses incurred by the government in connection with the administration of this act shall be defrayed out of such appropriations as are made by Parliament for that purpose.

Report to Parliament.

70. An annual report with respect to the matters transacted by him under this act shall be made by the minister to the governor-general, and shall be laid before Parliament within the first fifteen days of each session thereof.

APPENDIX.

PROCEEDINGS UNDER THE CANADIAN INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES INVESTIGATION ACT, 1907, MARCH 22, 1907, TO JANUARY 15, 1908.

The following statements are from a report entitled "Copy of return to Parliament relating to the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907, showing the proceedings under the act, from March 22, 1907, to January 15, 1908:"

SUMMARY OF PROCEEDINGS UNDER THE INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES INVESTIGATION ACT, 1907, FROM MARCH 22, 1907, TO FEBRUARY 15, 1908.

Applications concerning disputes in mines and public utilities.						Applica- tion concern- ing dis- putes in industries other than mines and public utilities.	Total refer- ences under act.
29						1	30
Concerning mines and smelters.		Concerning transportation and communication.			Disputes referred by consent of parties concerned.	1	30
18		11					
Coal mines. *15	Metallif- erous mines. 3	Rail- ways. *8	Ship- ping. 2	Street railways. 1			
Strikes averted or ended.....	*13	3	8	2	1	1	28
Strikes not averted or ended..	*1	0	0	0	0	0	*1
	14	3	8	2	1	1	29

* In the case of three of these applications the disputes were settled before the board had been constituted.

† The boards were distributed among the various classes of railway employees as follows: Locomotive engineers, 1; machinists, 1; carmen, 2; firemen and engineers, 1; freight handlers, 1; telegraph operators, 2.

‡ There are still pending in connection with the various applications for investigations, viz. 2 in the case of coal mining disputes, 1 in the case of railways, and 1 in the case of street railways.

§ Only one strike occurred in cases when a dispute had been referred to a board, but in one instance a second board established to investigate other differences between the same parties was in session when the strike was declared. Hence the difference of 1 between the sum of the figures in this column and the figures at the head of the column.

APPLICATIONS FOR BOARDS OF

A.—MINES, AGENCIES OF TRANSPORTATION AND COMMERCE

Coal mines.

Date of receipt application.	Parties to dispute.	Party making application.	Locality.	Number of persons affected.	Nature of dispute.
1907. Apr. 8	Cumberland Railway and Coal Co. and employees. ^(b)	Employees. ^(c)	Springhill, N. S.	1,700	Concerning employment of nonunion workmen.
Apr. 9	Canada West Coal and Coke Co. and employees. ^(b)do.....	Taber, Alta.	150	Concerning hours of labor.
	Western Coal Operators Association and employees: ^(b) Canadian American Coal and Coke Co.do.....	Frank, Alta.	250	Concerning terms of joint agreement, including wages schedule and other conditions of employment.
	Crow's Nest Pass Coal Co.do.....	Fernie, Coal Creek, Michel, B. C.	1,800	
	International Coal and Coke Co.do.....	Coleman, Alta.	370	
	West Canadian Collieries (Limited).do.....	Lille and Bellevue.	350	
	Breckenridge and Land Coal Co.do.....	Lundbreck, Alta.	125	
	H. W. McNeill Coal Co.do.....	Cammore, Alta.	300	
	Pacific Coal Co.do.....	Bankhead, Alta.	400	
May 8	Cumberland Railway and Coal Co. and employees.do.....	Springhill, N. S.	1,700	Concerning payment for work in counter levels and stone in pillar work.
May 27	Alberta Railway and Irrigation Co. and employees of coal mines.do.....	Lethbridge, Alta.	400	Concerning conditions of employment.
July 12	Cumberland Railway and Coal Co. and employees.do.....	Springhill, N. S.	1,700	Concerning wages and other conditions of employment.

* C, chairman; E, employer; M, men.

^b It is important to note in connection with these disputes that the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act was not assented to till Mar. 22, 1907. It was some weeks later before copies of the act were available for distribution. Its provisions in consequence were not fully known by the parties at the time these disputes occurred.

CONCILIATION AND INVESTIGATION.

CONCILIATION, AND OTHER PUBLIC-SERVICE UTILITIES.

Coal mines.

Names of members of board. (*)	Date on which board constituted.	Date of sittings of board.	Date of receipt of report of board.	
	1907.	1907.	1907.	
				On Apr. 1 employees went on strike. It was alleged by employers that they were under impression that the mines of Nova Scotia were exempt from provisions of act. When it was explained act applied to all Canada, employees returned to work Apr. 8. Difficulty amicably settled. No board constituted.
				On Apr. 1 employer locked out employees. Employer alleged that this was done in ignorance of provisions of act. When informed of provisions of act by department, mines were reopened on Apr. 18. Subsequently an amicable settlement was effected through intervention of Mr. J. D. McNiven, fair wages officer of department. No board constituted.
Sir Wm. Mullock, C; (†) J. L. Parker, E; L. P. Eckstein, M.	Apr. 22	Apr. 30 May 6	May 29	Employees went on strike in the several mines, while proceedings were pending in connection with the establishment of the boards of conciliation and investigation, in consequence, it was alleged, of misunderstandings which arose through ignorance of the provisions of the act. The deputy minister of labor left for Fernie on Apr. 19 to explain to the parties the provisions of the law. While in Fernie the parties consented to his intervention as a conciliator under the Conciliation Act 1900 and an agreement was effected on May 4. The boards convened at Fernie on Apr. 30, but adjourned proceedings pending investigations by the deputy minister. On May 6 the boards reconvened to receive from the parties a formal statement that the differences had been adjusted, a further cessation of work being thereby averted. An important feature of the settlement was the establishment of a standing committee of conciliation between the employers and employees, to which future differences were to be referred.
Sir Wm. Mullock, C; (†) F. B. Smith, E; L. P. Eckstein, M.				
Justice Graham, C; (†) P. S. Archibald, E; R. B. Murray, M.	May 17	May 23, 24, 29, July 3, 4.	July 13	Board being unable to effect a settlement by conciliation, presented a report signed by the chairman and Mr. Archibald. Minority report was presented by Mr. Murray. The recommendations of the board were not accepted by the employees. The strike which was threatened prior to the application for board on May 8 was averted for the time being and took place on Aug. 1, continuing until Oct. 31, when the employees returned to work on the conditions recommended in the report of the board.
				Amicable settlement, including agreement as to conditions of employment and establishment of a standing committee of conciliation effected between parties while board was in process of constitution, strike being thereby averted.
Judge Patterson, C; (†) P. S. Archibald, E; R. B. Murray, M.	July 27	July 31, Aug. 1, Sept. 9, 12.	Sept. 21	Employees declared a strike on Aug. 1 in reference to question of payment of stone in pillar work, having refused to accept the recommendations of the board appointed May 17 to deal with this subject. In virtue of this strike proceedings before the board were suspended until Sept. 9, when the board sat for two days and presented an interim report. The strike ended on Oct. 31, the employees returning to work on the conditions recommended in the report of the first board.

* Applications for a board were received also from the employers parties to this dispute.

† Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 1, of the act, in the absence of

a joint recommendation by the two members first appointed.

* Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 2, of the act.

the joint recommendation of the two members first appointed.

APPLICATIONS FOR BOARDS OF

A.—MINES, AGENCIES OF TRANSPORTATION AND COMMU

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	Crow's Nest Pass Coal Co.do.....	Fernie, Coal Creek, Michel, B. C.	1,800	
	International Coal and Coke Co.do.....	Coleman, Alta.	370	
	West Canadian Collieries (Limited).do.....	Lille and Bellevue.	350	
	Breckenridge and Lund Coal Co.do.....	Lundbreck, Alta.	125	
	H. W. McNeill Coal Co.do.....	Canmore, Alta.	300	
May 8	Pacific Coal Co.do.....	Bankhead, Alta.	400	
	Cumberland Railway and Coal Co. and employees.do.....	Springhill, N. S.	1,700	Concerning payment for work in counter levels and stone in pillar work.
May 27	Alberta Railway and Irrigation Co. and employees of coal mines.do.....	Lethbridge, Alta.	400	Concerning conditions of employment.
July 12	Cumberland Railway and Coal Co. and employees.do.....	Springhill, N. S.	1,700	Concerning wages and other conditions of employment.

^c C, chairman; E, employer; M, men.

^b It is important to note in connection with these disputes that the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act was not assented to till Mar. 22, 1907. It was some weeks later before copies of the act were available for distribution. Its provisions in consequence were not fully known by the parties at the time these disputes occurred.

ATION AND INVESTIGATION—Continued.

CATION, AND OTHER PUBLIC-SERVICE UTILITIES—Continued.

Coal mines—Concluded.

Names of members of board. ^(a)	Date on which board constituted.	Date of sittings of board.	Date of receipt of report of board.	
Judge Wilson, C: ^(b) F. B. Smith, E: F. H. Sherman, M.	1907. Sept. 30	1907. Oct. 14, 15, 16, 17.	1907. Oct. 21	The board presented a unanimous report, which, though not formally accepted by the parties, formed the basis of an agreement subsequently reached by them, and reported to the department, a strike being thereby averted.
Hon. C. W. Fisher, C: ^(b) J. R. McDonald, E: F. H. Sherman, M.	Sept. 24	Oct. 7	Nov. 4	The report of the board was accompanied by a minority report by Mr. Sherman. Though neither report was formally accepted by the parties, a settlement was reached in consequence of the inquiry by the board and a strike thereby averted.
Mr. Justice Stuart, C: ^(b) S. A. Jones, E: F. H. Sherman, M.	Nov. 20	Dec. 5, 6	Dec. 20	Differences adjusted, and agreement concluded before board, dating from Dec. 9, 1907, until Mar. 31, 1909, a strike being thereby averted.
Mr. Justice Stuart, C: ^(b) R. Duggan, E: F. H. Sherman, M.	Nov. 20	Dec. 5, 6, 7.	Dec. 23	Do.
Mr. Justice Stuart, C: ^(b) J. Shorthouse, E: F. H. Sherman, M.	Nov. 20	Dec. 5, 6, 7.	Dec. 23	Do.
G. Montgomery, C: ^(c) F. L. Otter, E: F. H. Sherman, M.	Dec. 2	Dec. 18, 20.	Dec. 23	Differences adjusted, and agreement concluded before board, dating from Sept. 23, 1907, until Mar. 31, 1909, a strike being thereby averted.
Judge Patterson, C: ^(c) R. B. Murray, M: Hiram Donkin, ^(d)	Dec. 24	1908. Jan. 8, 9, 10, 11, 19.	1908. Jan. 23	The board presented a unanimous report, which the employees expressed a willingness, and the company an unwillingness, to accept. A further cessation of work has not taken place.
J. Dix Fraser, E: Dr. A. Kendall, M. P. P., M.	-----	-----	-----	Board not fully constituted on date of return, Feb. 15.
W. E. Bullock, E.	-----	-----	-----	Do.

Metalliferous mines.

Judge Wilson, C: ^(c) J. A. Harvey, E: S. S. Taylor, M.	1907. Sept. 23	1907. Oct. 10 to Dec. 17. Inter- mittently.	1907. Dec. 28	The board, after an exhaustive inquiry into mining conditions in British Columbia, presented a unanimous report, the recommendations of which were of general application to the metalliferous industry in the Province of British Columbia. A settlement based on these recommendations was effected between the company and its employees, and a strike thereby averted. The inquiry, moreover, had the effect of influencing the settlement of other differences in the industry in other parts of the Province. (See note p. 658.)
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^a Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 3, of the act, on the joint recommendation of the two members first appointed.

^b Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 2, of the act, in the absence of a member from the party concerned.

APPLICATIONS FOR BOARDS OF CONCILI

A.—MINES, AGENCIES OF TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNI

Coal mines—Concluded.

Date of receipt application.	Parties to dispute.	Party making application.	Locality.	Number of persons affected.	Nature of dispute.
1907. Sept. 16	Hosmer mines and employees.	Employees.	Hosmer, B. C.-----	100	Concerning wages and other conditions of employment.
Sept. 18	Hillcrest Coal and Coke Co. (Limited) and employees.	-----do-----	Hillcrest, Alta.-----	70	-----do-----
Nov. 5	Canada West Coal and Coke Co. and employees.	-----do-----	Taber, Alta.-----	150	Concerning wages, hours, and other conditions of employment.
	Domestic Coal Co. and employees.	-----do-----	-----do-----	50	-----do-----
	Duggan Huntrods & Co. and employees.	-----do-----	-----do-----	40	Concerning wages, hours, and other conditions of labor.
Nov. 12	Strathcona Coal Co. and employees.	-----do-----	Edmonton, Alta.-----	40	Concerning wages, hours, and other conditions of employment.
Nov. 21	Cumberland Railway and Coal Co. and employees.	-----do-----	Springhill, Alta.-----	1,700	Concerning wages and other conditions of labor.
1908. Jan. 29	Dominion Coal Co. (Limited) and members of the Provincial Workmen's Association.	-----do-----	Dominion, O. B.-----	7,000	-----do-----
Feb. 10	John Marsh, John Howells, Stevens Bros., coal mine operators, dealt with as a whole.	-----do-----	Woodpecker, Alta.-----		-----do-----

Metalliferous mines.

1907. Apr. 21	Canadian Consolidated Mining and Smelting Co. and employees.	Employees.	Moyle, British Columbia.	400	Concerning wages and hours.
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* C. chairman; E. employer; M. men.

* Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 4, of the act, in the absence of a joint recommendation by the two members first appointed.

ATION AND INVESTIGATION—Continued.

CATION, AND OTHER PUBLIC-SERVICE UTILITIES—Continued.

Coal mines—Concluded.

Names of members of board. (*)	Date on which board constituted.	Date of sittings of board.	Date of receipt of report of board.	
Judge Wilson, C: (b) F. B. Smith, E; F. H. Sherman, M.	1907. Sept. 30	1907. Oct. 14, 15, 16, 17.	1907. Oct. 21	The board presented a unanimous report, which, though not formally accepted by the parties, formed the basis of an agreement subsequently reached by them, and reported to the department, a strike being thereby averted.
Hon. C. W. Fisher, C: (b) J. R. McDonald, E; F. H. Sherman, M.	Sept. 24	Oct. 7	Nov. 4	The report of the board was accompanied by a minority report by Mr. Sherman. Though neither report was formally accepted by the parties, a settlement was reached in consequence of the inquiry by the board and a strike thereby averted.
Mr. Justice Stuart, C: (b) S. A. Jones, E; F. H. Sherman, M.	Nov. 20	Dec. 5, 6	Dec. 20	Differences adjusted, and agreement concluded before board, dating from Dec. 9, 1907, until Mar. 31, 1909, a strike being thereby averted.
Mr. Justice Stuart, C: (b) R. Duggan, E; F. H. Sherman, M.	Nov. 20	Dec. 5, 6, 7.	Dec. 23	Do.
Mr. Justice Stuart, C: (b) J. Shorthouse, E; F. H. Sherman, M.	Nov. 20	Dec. 5, 6, 7.	Dec. 23	Do.
G. Montgomery, C: (c) F. L. Otter, E; F. H. Sherman, M.	Dec. 2	Dec. 15, 20.	Dec. 23	Differences adjusted, and agreement concluded before board, dating from Sept. 23, 1907, until Mar. 31, 1909, a strike being thereby averted.
Judge Patterson, C: (b) R. B. Murray, M; Hiram Doukin, (d)	Dec. 24	1908. Jan. 8, 9, 10, 11, 16.	1908. Jan. 22	The board presented a unanimous report, which the employees expressed a willingness, and the company an unwillingness, to accept. A further cessation of work has not taken place.
J. Dix Fraser, E; Dr. A. Kendall, M. P.P., M.				Board not fully constituted on date of return, Feb. 15.
W. E. Bullock, E.				Do.

Metalliferous mines.

Judge Wilson, C: (c) J. A. Harvey, E; S. S. Taylor, M.	1907. Sept. 23	1907. Oct. 10 to Dec. 17, inter- mittently.	1907. Dec. 28	The board, after an exhaustive inquiry into mining conditions in British Columbia, presented a unanimous report, the recommendations of which were of general application to the metalliferous industry in the Province of British Columbia. A settlement based on these recommendations was effected between the company and its employees, and a strike thereby averted. The inquiry, moreover, had the effect of influencing the settlement of other differences in the industry in other parts of the Province. (See note p. 658.)
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Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 3, of the act, on the joint recommendation of the two members first appointed.
Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 2, in the absence of recommendation from the party concerned.

APPLICATIONS FOR BOARDS OF CONCILI

A.—MINES, AGENCIES OF TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNI

Metalliferous mines—Concluded.

Date of receipt application.	Parties to dispute.	Party making application.	Locality.	Number of persons affected.	Nature of dispute.
1907. Dec. 9	McKinley-Darragh Mining Co. (Limited) and its employees.	Employees.	Cobalt, Ontario.	120	Concerning wages and hours.
1908. Jan. 9	Temiskaming and Hudson Bay Mining Co. (Limited) and employees of said company.	do.	do.	50	do.

Railways.

1907. Apr. 20	Grand Trunk Railway Co. of Canada and machinists.	Employees.	Montreal, Ottawa, Toronto, Stratford, etc.	400	Concerning schedule involving wages, hours, apprenticeship, reinstatement of former employees.
June 27	Grand Trunk Railway Co. of Canada and its locomotive engineers.	Employer	do.	1,300	Concerning schedule of wages and rules.
Sept. 5	Canadian Pacific Railway Co. and railroad telegraphers.	Employees.	On all lines of C. P. R. in Canada.	1,656	Concerning schedule of wages and rules of employment.
Nov. 19	Grand Trunk Railway Co. and railroad telegraphers.	Employer	Montreal.	200	Concerning wages and other conditions of employment.
July 10	Intercolonial Railway of Canada and freight handlers in its employ at Halifax, Nova Scotia.	do.	Halifax, N. S.	205	Concerning wages and classification of employees.
Nov. 22	Canadian Pacific Railway Co. and carmen employed by company on western lines.	do.	Western lines.	1,215	Concerning wages and hours.
Dec. 19	Canadian Northern Railway and firemen, enginemen, and hostlers in its employ.	Employees.	Winnipeg and territory along Canadian Northern Railway.	359	Concerning relations of union to employer.

^a C, chairman; E, employer; M, men.

^b Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 3, of the act, on the joint application of the two members first appointed.

ATION AND INVESTIGATION—Continued.

CATION, AND OTHER PUBLIC-SERVICE UTILITIES—Continued.

Metalliferous mines—Concluded.

Names of members of board. (a)	Date on which board constituted.	Date of sittings of board.	Date of receipt of report of board.	
Prof. A. Shortt, C; (b) E.C. Kingswell, E.	1907. Dec. 21	1908. Jan. 1, 2	1908. Jan. 22	A unanimous report was presented by the board, making recommendations for the settlement of the dispute. The findings of the board were not formally accepted by the parties, but the investigation by the board is believed to have been beneficial to the camp as a whole, and the strike, which was declared to be impending at the time application was forwarded to the minister, has been averted up to the present time, Feb. 15.
Prof. S. S. Maclean, C; (c) M.F. Pumaville, C. B. Duke, M.	1908. Jan. 31	Feb. 5, 6, 7.	-----	Report not received at date of return, Feb. 15.

Railways.

Prof. A. Shortt, C; (c) W. Nesbitt, E; J.G. O'Donoghue, M.	1907. May 4	1907. May 16, 17, 18.	1907. May 21	Differences adjusted, and agreement concluded before board for period of one year from May 1, strike being thereby averted.
Prof. A. Shortt, C; (c) W. Nesbitt, E; J. Cardell, M.	July 18	July 23, 24, Aug. 12, 13.	Aug. 16	Differences adjusted, and agreement for three years concluded before board, a strike being thereby averted.
Prof. A. Shortt, C; (b) W. Nesbitt, E; J.G. O'Donoghue, M.	Sept. 16	Sept. 27 to Oct. 10.	Oct. 12	Differences adjusted, and an agreement concluded before board, dating from Oct. 1, a strike being thereby averted.
-----do-----	Nov. 30	Dec. 4, 5, 6, 7, 12, 1907, Jan. 13, 1908.	1908. Jan. 23	Differences adjusted, and agreement concluded before board, dating from Jan. 1, 1908, a strike being thereby averted.
Prof. W. Murray, C; (b) Henry Holgate, E; R. E. Finn, M.	July 22	July 31, Aug. 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8.	1907. Aug. 12	On June 29 employees went on strike, and when informed that provisions of act applied, both parties agreed to refer the differences under the act, and employees returned to work. On the request of the parties proceedings were subsequently adopted under the Conciliation and Labor Act, and a settlement effected, the terms of which were made applicable to the company's employees at St. John, New Brunswick, as well as at Halifax, Nova Scotia, and further cessation of work was thereby averted.
Prof. Odium, C; (b) J. H. McVetty, M; A. M. Nanton, E.	Nov. 26	Dec. 2 to 19.	Dec. 23	The board presented a unanimous report recommending a basis of settlement which was subsequently, in correspondence with the department, accepted by both parties, and a strike thereby averted.
Prof. A. Shortt, C; (c) H. H. Richardson, E; J. G. O'Donoghue, M.	1908. Jan. 8	1908. Jan. 18	1908. Jan. 25	Differences amicably adjusted before the board, and a strike thereby averted.

(a) Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 4, of the act, in the joint recommendation by the two members first appointed.

APPLICATIONS FOR BOARDS OF CONCILI
A.—MINES, AGENCIES OF TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNI
Railways—Concluded.

Date of receipt application.	Parties to dispute.	Party making application.	Locality.	Number of persons affected.	Nature of dispute.
1908. Jan. 8	Grand Trunk Railway Co. and car men in its employ.	Employees.	G. T. R. system.....	800	Concerning wages and conditions of labor.

Street railways.

1908. Jan. 31	Hamilton and Dundas Railway Co. and Hamilton Radial Railway Co.	Employees.	Hamilton.....	120	Concerning relations of union to employing companies.
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Shipping.

1907. May 15	Shipping Federation of Canada and longshoremen of Montreal.	Employers.	Montreal, Quebec.....	1,500	Demand for increase in wages.
May 25	Shipping Federation of Canada, Canadian Pacific Railway Co. and longshoremen of Montreal.do.....do.....	1,600do.....
May 31	Furness Withy Co., Cunard & Co., Pickford, Black & Co. and longshoremen.do.....	Halifax, N. S.....	500	Concerning wages. Increase of 5 cents per hour demanded by men. 2½ cents offered by companies, but refused.

a C, chairman; E, employer; M, men.

ATION AND INVESTIGATION—Continued.

CATION, AND OTHER PUBLIC-SERVICE UTILITIES—Concluded.

Railways—Concluded.

Names of members of board. ^(a)	Date on which board constituted.	Date of sittings of board.	Date of receipt of report of board.	
Prof. A. Shortt, C: ^(b) Wallace Nesbitt, E; J.G.O'Donoghue, M.	1908. Jan. 28	1908.	1908.	Report not received at date of return, Feb. 15.

Street railways.

Wm. Bell, E; J.G.O'Donoghue, M.				Report not received at date of return, Feb. 15.
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Shipping.

Archbishop Bruchesi, C: ^(b) G.W. Stephens, E: Jos. Ainey, M.	1907. June 7	1907. June 11, 12, 13.	1907. June 17	On May 13 employees went on strike, notwithstanding provisions of act, and employers on May 18 withdrew application for board. On May 15, Mr. F. A. Acland, secretary of the department, went to Montreal to explain the provisions of the act to the parties to the dispute. As a result of Mr. Acland's intervention, the employees returned to work and agreed to refer the dispute under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, and a formal application was made by the employees for the establishment of a board. A unanimous report was made by the members of the board and an agreement recommended covering conditions of employment for the seasons of 1907 and 1908. The union did not formally accept the recommendations of the board, but the members, with the exception of a few, signed individual agreements to the employers, based on the recommendations of the board, and a further cessation of work during the season was thereby averted.
James Hall, E.: Phillip Ring, M.				On May 26 employees went on strike, alleging subsequently that they had no knowledge of the existence of the provisions of the act. Mr. V. Du Breull, fair-wages officer of the department, was sent to Halifax to explain the provisions of act. A board was requested as a result of the explanations given, and while being constituted the dispute was amicably settled, Mr. Du Breull lending the good offices of the department as a conciliator. A further cessation of work was thereby averted, as was also the necessity of further proceedings in connection with the establishment of the board.

^a Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 3, of the act, on the joint recommendation of the two members first appointed.

LETIN OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR.

APPLICATIONS FOR BOARDS OF CONCILI

B.—INDUSTRIES OTHER THAN MINES, AGENCIES OF TRANSPORTATION

Date of receipt application.	Parties to dispute.	Party making application.	Locality.	Number of persons affected.	Nature of dispute.
1907. Aug. 26	Montreal Cotton Co. and employees.	Employees.	Valleyfield, Quebec...	2,200	Conditions and wages.

* C, chairman; E, employer; M, men.

^b Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 4, of the act, in the absence of a joint recommendation by the two members first appointed.

^c This dispute was referred to a board of conciliation and investigation under section 63 of the act, which provides that "in the event of a dispute arising in any industry or trade other than such as may be included under the provision of this act, and such dispute threatens to result in a lockout or strike, or has actually resulted in a lockout or strike, either of the parties may agree in writing to allow such dispute to be referred to a

ACTION AND INVESTIGATION—Concluded.

AND COMMUNICATION, AND OTHER PUBLIC UTILITIES.

Names of members of board. (*)	Date on which board constituted.	Date of sittings of board.	Date of receipt of report of board.	
Mr. Justice Fortin, C; (b) Duncan McCormick, E; W. Faquette, M.	1907. Sept. 4	1907. Sept. 5, 10, 11, 16.	1907. Sept. 24	The employees went on strike on Aug. 13, and the good offices of the department were requested with a view to effecting a settlement. Mr. F. A. Acland, secretary of the department, and Mr. V. Du Breuil, fair-wages officer, visited the scene of the dispute and explained the provisions of the act to the parties, with special reference to the sections enabling a dispute in any industry other than that of a mine or public utility to be referred, by mutual agreement between the disputing parties, to a board of conciliation and investigation. As a result of the explanations and efforts at conciliation on the part of the officers of the department, an application for a board was forwarded to the minister, the employees in the meantime returning to work on Aug. 26. The board was duly established, with the result that the differences were adjusted and an agreement concluded before the board, dating from Sept. 17, 1907, to be effective until May 4, 1908, and thereafter until either side was given a written notice of cancellation of the same. A feature of the agreement was the establishment of a permanent committee of conciliation, to which it was agreed that all subsequent disputes should be referred. (c)

board of conciliation and investigation, to be constituted under the provisions of this act," etc. Applications referring to disputes in this class of industry were received also in the cases of W. A. Marsh & Co., boot and shoe manufacturers, Quebec; the Rosamond Woolen Company, Almonte, Ont.; the Eastern Townships Manufacturing Company, St. Hyacinthe, Quebec; L'Association Internationale des Ouvriers en Fourrures, Montreal; the Davidson Manufacturing Company, Montreal, and A. Gravel Lumber Company, Etchemin, Quebec; but the parties concerned not agreeing to refer their differences for adjustment according to the provisions of the act, no action was taken by the minister.

FORM OF APPLICATION FOR APPOINTMENT OF A BOARD OF CONCILIATION AND INVESTIGATION UNDER THE INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES INVESTIGATION ACT, 1907.

_____ (locality and date).

To the Registrar, Boards of Conciliation and Investigation, Department of Labor, Ottawa.

The undersigned hereby make application to the minister of labor for the appointment of a board of conciliation and investigation under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907, to which a dispute between the parties named in the accompanying statement may be referred under the provisions of the said act, and submit the statement and statutory declaration prescribed under the act as necessary in making such application.^(a)

(a) STATEMENT.

Locality of dispute _____; trade or industry _____.

The parties to the dispute: (i) Employer _____ (designate the individual, company, or companies involved); (ii) Employees _____ (designate in general terms the employees involved, by classes of employment, for example. If members of a union give name of union).

Approximate estimate of number of employees affected or likely to be affected:

	Directly.	Indirectly.
Males 21 years or over _____	_____	_____
Males under 21 years _____	_____	_____
Females _____	_____	_____
Total _____	_____	_____

Nature and cause of dispute, including claims and demands by either party upon the other to which exception is taken: _____ (If space allotted is insufficient, details of this statement may be continued on a supplementary sheet.)

Outline of efforts made by parties concerned to adjust the dispute: _____ (If space allotted is insufficient, details of this statement may be continued on a supplementary sheet.)

Person recommended as member on board of conciliation and investigation: ^(b)

Name in full _____, address _____.

This application is made on behalf of the _____ (designate whether on behalf of employer or employees).

Signatures of parties making application: ^(c)

Name _____, address _____.

Name _____, address _____.

Authority _____ (state where, by whom, and when authority was given for making this application, also wherein conditions of section 16, quoted below, ^(c) have been complied with).

^a "The application shall be made in writing in the prescribed form, and shall be in substance a request to the minister to appoint a board to which the existing dispute may be referred under the provisions of this act.

^b "The application shall be accompanied by a statement setting forth (1) the parties to the dispute; (2) the nature and cause of the dispute, including any claims or demands made by either party upon the other, to which exception is taken; (3) an approximate estimate of the number of persons affected or likely to be affected by the dispute; (4) the efforts made by the parties themselves to adjust the dispute." (Section 15, subsecs 1 and 2 (a).)

^c "Each party to the dispute may at the time of making application, or within five days after being requested so to do by the minister, recommend the name of one person who is willing and ready to act as a member of the board, and the minister shall appoint such person a member of the board.

"If either of the parties fails or neglects to duly make any recommendation within the said period, or such extension thereof as the minister, on cause shown, grants, the minister shall, as soon thereafter as possible, appoint a fit person to be a member of the board, and such member shall be deemed to be appointed on the recommendation of the said party." (Section 8, sub-secs. 1 and 2.)

^c "The application and the declaration accompanying it—

some "If made by an employer, an incorporated company or corporation, shall be signed by

duly authorized managers or other principal executive officers; or by an employer other than an incorporated company or corporation, by the employer himself in case he is an individual, or a majority of the members of a partnership firm or association; or by two of the employees members of a trade union, shall be signed by two of them by a majority vote of the members of the union or by a vote

(b) STATUTORY DECLARATION.^(d)

CANADA, PROVINCE OF _____, COUNTY OF _____, to wit:

I, _____, of the _____ of _____, in the _____ of _____ (if more than one declarant), and I, _____, of the _____ of _____, in the _____ of _____ (where necessary fill in the blank spaces as indicated), do (severally) solemnly declare (each of us for himself declares) as follows, that is to say: That, to the best of _____ (my or our) knowledge and belief, failing an adjustment of the dispute herein referred to, or a reference thereof by the minister of labor to a board of conciliation and investigation under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907, a _____ (strike or lockout) will be declared, and that the necessary authority to declare such _____ (strike or lockout) has been obtained.

And _____ (I, or each of us) make(s) this solemn declaration conscientiously believing it to be true, and knowing that it is of the same force and effect as if made under oath, and by virtue of the Canada Evidence Act.

Signatures:

Declared _____ (by the said) _____ and _____, before me at _____, in the county of _____, this _____ day of _____, A. D. 19____.

_____ a commissioner, etc.

(To be declared before a commissioner for taking affidavits or any other functionary authorized by law to administer an oath.)

NOTE.—The attention of the party making this application is directed to the following sections of the act:

"Every application for the appointment of a board shall be transmitted by post by registered letter addressed to the registrar of boards of conciliation and investigation, department of labor, Ottawa, and the date of the receipt of such registered letter at the department shall be regarded as the date of the receipt of such application. (Section 17.)

"In every case where an application is made for the appointment of a board the party making application shall, at the time of transmitting it to the registrar, also transmit by registered letter to the other party to the dispute, or by personal delivery, a copy of the application, and of the accompanying statement and declaration." (Section 18.)

"Copies of applications or statements in reply thereto to be transmitted to the other party under any of the preceding sections where the other party is—

(1) An employer, an incorporated company or corporation, shall be sent to the manager or other principal executive officer of the company or corporation;

(2) An employer other than an incorporated company or corporation, shall be sent to the employer himself or to the employer in the name of the business or firm as commonly known;

(3) Composed of employees, members of a trade union, shall be sent to the president and secretary of such union;

(4) Composed of employees some or all of whom are not members of a trade union—

(a) Where some of the employees are members of a trade union, shall be sent to the president and secretary of the union as representing the employees belonging to the union; also

(b) Where some of the employees are not members of a trade union and there are no persons authorized to represent such employees, shall be sent to ten of their number;

ballot of the members of the union present at a meeting called on not less than three days' notice for the purpose of discussing the question;

"If made by employees some or all of whom are not members of a trade union, shall be signed by two of their number duly authorized by a majority vote taken by ballot of the employees present at a meeting duly called on not less than three days' notice for the purpose of discussing the question." (Section 16, sub-secs. 1-4.)

"The application shall be—

failing in adjustment of _____
conciliation and investig
the declarant, a lockout
necessary authority to

sub-sec. 2 (b).)

by a statutory declaration setting forth that,
ence thereof by the minister to a board of
the best of the knowledge and belief of
may be, will be declared, and that the
rike has been obtained." (Section 15,

APPLICATIONS FOR BOARDS OF CONCILI

B.—INDUSTRIES OTHER THAN MINES, AGENCIES OF TRANSPORTATION

Date of receipt application.	Parties to dispute.	Party making application.	Locality.	Number of persons affected.	Nature of dispute.
1907. Aug. 26	Montreal Cotton Co. and employees.	Employees.	Valleyfield, Quebec...	2,200	Conditions and wages.

^a C, chairman ; E, employer ; M, men.

^b Appointed by the minister under section 8, subsection 4, of the act, in the absence of a joint recommendation by the two members first appointed.

^c This dispute was referred to a board of conciliation and investigation under section 63 of the act, which provides that "in the event of a dispute arising in any industry or trade other than such as may be included under the provision of this act, and such dispute threatens to result in a lockout or strike, or has actually resulted in a lockout or strike, either of the parties may agree in writing to allow such dispute to be referred to a

ATION AND INVESTIGATION—Concluded.

AND COMMUNICATION, AND OTHER PUBLIC UTILITIES.

Names of members of board.(*)	Date on which board constituted.	Date of sittings of board.	Date of receipt of report of board.	
Mr. Justice Fortin, C; (*) Duncan McCormick, E; W. Paquette, M.	1907. Sept. 4	1907. Sept. 5, 10, 11, 16.	1907. Sept. 24	The employees went on strike on Aug. 13. and the good offices of the department were requested with a view to effecting a settlement. Mr. F. A. Acland, secretary of the department, and Mr. V. Du Breuil, fair-wages officer, visited the scene of the dispute and explained the provisions of the act to the parties, with special reference to the sections enabling a dispute in any industry other than that of a mine or public utility to be referred, by mutual agreement between the disputing parties, to a board of conciliation and investigation. As a result of the explanations and efforts at conciliation on the part of the officers of the department, an application for a board was forwarded to the minister, the employees in the meantime returning to work on Aug. 26. The board was duly established, with the result that the differences were adjusted and an agreement concluded before the board, dating from Sept. 17, 1907, to be effective until May 4, 1908, and thereafter until either side was given a written notice of cancellation of the same. A feature of the agreement was the establishment of a permanent committee of conciliation, to which it was agreed that all subsequent disputes should be referred.(c)

board of conciliation and investigation, to be constituted under the provisions of this act." etc. Applications referring to disputes in this class of industry were received also in the cases of W. A. Marsh & Co., boot and shoe manufacturers, Quebec; the Rosamond Woolen Company, Almonte, Ont.; the Eastern Townships Manufacturing Company, St. Hyacinthe, Quebec; L'Association Internationale des Ouvriers en Fourrures, Montreal; the Davidson Manufacturing Company, Montreal, and A. Gravel Lumber Company, Etchemin, Quebec; but the parties concerned not agreeing to refer their differences for adjustment according to the provisions of the act, no action was taken by the minister.

FORM OF APPLICATION FOR APPOINTMENT OF A BOARD OF CONCILIATION AND INVESTIGATION UNDER THE INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES INVESTIGATION ACT, 1907.

_____ (locality and date).

To the Registrar, Boards of Conciliation and Investigation, Department of Labor, Ottawa.

The undersigned hereby make application to the minister of labor for the appointment of a board of conciliation and investigation under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907, to which a dispute between the parties named in the accompanying statement may be referred under the provisions of the said act, and submit the statement and statutory declaration prescribed under the act as necessary in making such application.^(a)

(a) STATEMENT.

Locality of dispute _____; trade or industry _____.

The parties to the dispute: (i) Employer _____ (designate the individual, company, or companies involved); (ii) Employees _____ (designate in general terms the employees involved, by classes of employment, for example. If members of a union give name of union).

Approximate estimate of number of employees affected or likely to be affected:

	Directly.	Indirectly.
Males 21 years or over _____	_____	_____
Males under 21 years _____	_____	_____
Females _____	_____	_____
Total _____	_____	_____

Nature and cause of dispute, including claims and demands by either party upon the other to which exception is taken: _____ (If space allotted is insufficient, details of this statement may be continued on a supplementary sheet.)

Outline of efforts made by parties concerned to adjust the dispute: _____ (If space allotted is insufficient, details of this statement may be continued on a supplementary sheet.)

Person recommended as member on board of conciliation and investigation: ^(b)
Name in full _____, address _____.

This application is made on behalf of the _____ (designate whether on behalf of employer or employees).

Signatures of parties making application: ^(c)

Name _____, address _____.

Name _____, address _____.

Authority _____ (state where, by whom, and when authority was given for making this application, also wherein conditions of section 16, quoted below, ^(c) have been complied with).

^a "The application shall be made in writing in the prescribed form, and shall be in substance a request to the minister to appoint a board to which the existing dispute may be referred under the provisions of this act.

^b "The application shall be accompanied by a statement setting forth (1) the parties to the dispute; (2) the nature and cause of the dispute, including any claims or demands made by either party upon the other, to which exception is taken; (3) an approximate estimate of the number of persons affected or likely to be affected by the dispute; (4) the efforts made by the parties themselves to adjust the dispute." (Section 15, subsecs 1 and 2 (a).)

^c "Each party to the dispute may at the time of making application, or within five days after being requested so to do by the minister, on cause shown, grants, the minister shall, as soon thereafter as possible, appoint a fit person to be a member of the board, and the minister shall appoint such person a member of the board.

"If either of the parties fails or neglects to duly make any recommendation within the said period, or such extension thereof as the minister, on cause shown, grants, the minister shall, as soon thereafter as possible, appoint a fit person to be a member of the board, and such member shall be deemed to be appointed on the recommendation of the said party." (Section 8, sub-secs. 1 and 2.)

"The application and the declaration accompanying it—
"If made by an employer, an incorporated company or corporation, shall be signed by some one of its duly authorized managers or other principal executive officers;

"If made by an employer other than an incorporated company or corporation, by the employer himself in case he is an individual, or a majority of the case of a partnership firm or association,
employees members of a trade union, shall be signed by two of
by a majority vote of the members of the union or by a vote

(b) STATUTORY DECLARATION.^(d)

CANADA, PROVINCE OF _____, COUNTY OF _____, to wit:

I, _____, of the _____ of _____, in the _____ of _____ (if more than one declarant), and I, _____, of the _____ of _____, in the _____ of _____ (where necessary fill in the blank spaces as indicated), do (severally) solemnly declare (each of us for himself declares) as follows, that is to say: That, to the best of _____ (my or our) knowledge and belief, failing an adjustment of the dispute herein referred to, or a reference thereof by the minister of labor to a board of conciliation and investigation under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907, a _____ (strike or lockout) will be declared, and that the necessary authority to declare such _____ (strike or lockout) has been obtained.

And _____ (I, or each of us) make(s) this solemn declaration conscientiously believing it to be true, and knowing that it is of the same force and effect as if made under oath, and by virtue of the Canada Evidence Act.

Signatures:

Declared _____ (by the said) _____ and _____, before me at _____, in the county of _____, this _____ day of _____, A. D. 19____.

_____ a commissioner, etc.

(To be declared before a commissioner for taking affidavits or any other functionary authorized by law to administer an oath.)

NOTE.—The attention of the party making this application is directed to the following sections of the act:

"Every application for the appointment of a board shall be transmitted by post by registered letter addressed to the registrar of boards of conciliation and investigation, department of labor, Ottawa, and the date of the receipt of such registered letter at the department shall be regarded as the date of the receipt of such application. (Section 17.)

"In every case where an application is made for the appointment of a board the party making application shall, at the time of transmitting it to the registrar, also transmit by registered letter to the other party to the dispute, or by personal delivery, a copy of the application, and of the accompanying statement and declaration." (Section 18.)

"Copies of applications or statements in reply thereto to be transmitted to the other party under any of the preceding sections where the other party is—

(1) An employer, an incorporated company or corporation, shall be sent to the manager or other principal executive officer of the company or corporation;

(2) An employer other than an incorporated company or corporation, shall be sent to the employer himself or to the employer in the name of the business or firm as commonly known;

(3) Composed of employees, members of a trade union, shall be sent to the president and secretary of such union;

(4) Composed of employees some or all of whom are not members of a trade union—

(a) Where some of the employees are members of a trade union, shall be sent to the president and secretary of the union as representing the employees belonging to the union; also

(b) Where some of the employees are not members of a trade union and there are no persons authorized to represent such employees, shall be sent to ten of their number;

ballot of the members of the union present at a meeting called on not less than three days' notice for the purpose of discussing the question;

"If made by employees some or all of whom are not members of a trade union, shall be signed by two of their number duly authorized by a majority vote taken by ballot of the employees present at a meeting duly called on not less than three days' notice for the purpose of discussing the question." (Section 16, sub-secs. 1-4.)

^d"The application shall be accompanied by a statutory declaration setting forth that, failing in adjustment of the dispute or a reference thereof by the minister to a board of conciliation and investigation under the act, to the best of the knowledge and belief of the declarant, a lockout or strike, as the case may be, will be declared, and that the necessary authority to declare such lockout or strike has been obtained." ¹⁵

sub-sec. 2 (b),)

BULLETIN OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR.

1
There, in paragraph (4) of section 16, two persons have been authorized to make an application, shall be sent to such two persons. (Section 20.)
The provision of the party receiving a copy of this application is directed to the following section of the act:
"Receipt by either party to a dispute of a copy of the application for the appointment of a board such party shall, without delay, prepare a statement of the application and transmit it by registered letter or personal delivery to the party making the application." (Section 19.)
The above is quoted above.)

WHAT IS DONE FOR THE UNEMPLOYED IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES.^(a)

BY W. D. P. BLISS.

SYNOPSIS OF REPORT.

In studying what has been done and is now being done for the unemployed in foreign countries three general classes are here considered: The employable, the unemployable, and the vagrant, incorrigible, or more or less vicious. The employable are divided into two groups—those who are out of work and have no prospect of returning to their former employment, and those who are out of work but whose regular employment is only temporarily interrupted.

The most important agencies for providing work for the unemployed who are employable, but have no prospect of returning to their former positions, are the public employment bureaus. These are largely developed in a number of European countries, but especially in Germany, where they have grown rapidly in the last twenty years, both in numbers and in efficiency. Private employment bureaus of various kinds are also found in most of the countries studied. Apart from employment bureaus, other efforts made by European governments to find new positions for the unemployed of this class consist in attempts either to colonize them across the seas in their own colonial possessions or dependencies or in some way to get them in the home country "back to the land."

In connection with the temporarily out of work, consideration is given to trade union out-of-work benefits; under this are included the attempts, mainly in Switzerland, at insurance against unemployment and the "Ghent" system, now largely developed throughout Belgium and spreading into other countries, notably France, whereby the municipal or communal, or in some cases the provincial or general, government may supplement the trade union out-of-work benefit by adding to it an equal sum. The subject of temporary relief works is considered and the experience of Great Britain, Germany, and France is given. In Germany and to a less extent in France the

^(a) Compare article on "Unemployment in the United States," by J. E. Conner.

Unemployment in the United States,"
the Bureau of Labor.

provision of municipal relief works has come to be the rule almost every winter in all the large and not a few of the smaller cities.

"Home shelters" for the workmen traveling in search of work are considered, mainly for Germany and Switzerland, where they have been most developed, as apart from ordinary charitable shelters and lodging houses for the poorer artisan class at large. In Germany, Switzerland, and German Austria the so-called "Herbergen" or "Herbergen zur Heimat" (home shelters), are organized into a general system of homes or hotels for workingmen, and especially for those who are traveling in search of work, in all the larger cities and towns. Here, under helpful influences, workmen can find lodging for a night or two either by paying a small sum or, if unable to pay, by doing a little work in the morning. They are in all cases private institutions, maintained in many cases by the trade unions, or, not infrequently, by religious societies.

Connected with these home shelters there has been developed, particularly in southern Germany and a few other portions of the German Empire, a system of smaller relief stations (*Verpflegungsstationen*) under government administration or support. These relief stations are already organized in many portions of the Empire, in such numbers as to be within walking distance of each other and all are connected by telephone. A workman traveling in search of work can go from shelter to shelter and at every point learn in which direction he can look for work with the most hope of success. The man who patronizes these stations is compelled to have and show at every shelter at which he applies a little book showing his occupation, last place of employment, reason for discharge, etc. His being at each place of shelter is carefully noted and it is indicated to which shelter he will next apply. All is under complete governmental or police control; and if the worker, securing work, departs from his appointed route or has recourse to begging, or in any way violates the rules governing the relief shelters, he can be and is arrested. If unable to pay for his shelter, he is required to work in the morning and travel in the afternoon, and the time in which he can stay at any one shelter is strictly limited. Legislation has been enacted in Prussia looking to the establishment of this system all over that kingdom. In the cantons of Switzerland, which have accepted the system, and in considerable portions of Germany itself, it is claimed that tramps or irresponsible vagrants have been almost wholly removed from the community. Important help is given to this system by the nationalized railroads, which carry at half price or one-third price all those certified by the authorities to be legitimately looking for work.

Regarding the unemployable, the most notable efforts for this important class are the so-called "labor colonies" of Germany. Less than a dozen in some ways the more efficient, colonies in

land. The German labor colonies which have grown rapidly, so that there are now thirty in various parts of the Empire, are agricultural colonies, maintained almost wholly by private philanthropy, administered mainly by a religious association, where any workman unable to find work can find shelter so long as he conforms to the rules and regulations of the colony. He is free to go at any time, but while in the colony he must do the work assigned to him and conform to the rules of the colony. The actual criminals are sent to penal establishments. The better grading of various classes of labor colonies for various classes of the unemployed is the aim of the Swiss colonies, most of which, however, are yet in their beginnings. Such colonies are being attempted in England and elsewhere.

Akin to these labor colonies are the penal colonies, notably of Belgium, Switzerland, and Holland, to which are sent those arrested for begging, persistent idleness, and other minor offenses. The colony at Merxplas, Belgium, is the largest penal establishment in the world. The convicts engage in almost every line of industry. Most of the work is for the consumption of the colony itself and little is sold in the ordinary market, so that it is claimed that the competition with free labor is reduced to a minimum. The colony is under military discipline, and little more is claimed for it than that with the cheapest cost it removes from the community a large class whose presence in the community would be harmful. The penal colonies of Switzerland are much smaller. They are mainly agricultural colonies and well administered, particularly in the case of Witzwyl, in connection with which a series of small agricultural or industrial colonies has been established, to which different classes of those freed from Witzwyl can be sent to prepare them for entry into the ordinary occupations.

Description is given of Bethel, the well-known colony of mercy for epileptics and others in special need, and of a few other special and more or less similar establishments.

INTRODUCTORY DEFINITIONS AND STATEMENTS.

It is necessary in the beginning to know what is meant by the unemployed. The word has been used in many senses, especially in the United States. In this inquiry it is used to mean all those without work who need work, either for a longer or shorter time—at least so far as their need is economic and industrial.

It is necessary to use the word in its largest sense in order to face the problem in all its aspects. The various classes of men and women out of work need and must have very different kinds of treatment. These various classes are so closely and so inseparably interblended—one class so continually merging into another—that no *si*
tion of the problem can be A reacting

cessful solution of every other portion. Failure upon this point has been possibly the one most fruitful source of the lack of success, particularly in the United States and Great Britain, in the efforts that have been made for certain of the out-of-work classes. The necessity for treating the problem in all its phases will become more apparent in the course of the investigation, but first as attention is given to the various partial ways in which the term unemployed has been used.

Some writers use the word unemployed in a limited sense, dealing only with the single phase of unemployment represented by that class who under prosperous times would be fully employed and who during the time mentioned were seeking employment. Even in the most prosperous times there is always a certain number without employment, and this number must be added to those above defined as the unemployed in order to find the complete number of those without work in times of special need. If this addition is not made, those even in times of prosperity without work will come in to swamp the efforts made for the unemployed in the partial sense.

Other writers have used the term to mean only those who desire work. The tramp or vagrant who does not work mainly because he will not work they do not reckon among the unemployed. The object of making this distinction seems to be to differentiate between those whom the writers consider to deserve sympathy and aid in finding work and those on the other hand who constitute a class very much to be condemned and who should be severely treated. Yet an investigation of the life history or the prenatal history and early environment of the work-shunning tramp might reveal a class to be pitied even more than the class that has not yet fallen low enough to lose the desire for work—a class needing aid and help (although possibly in the form of very stern treatment) more, perhaps, than any one class in the community. It is not possible to arrive at any adequate conclusions of how to employ the unemployed if those who do not desire employment are left out of consideration; for in actual life those who do not work because they will not are commingled at every step with those who desire work, and not seldom the two natures are somewhat developed in the same person. The whole problem of employing the unemployed often turns upon this very point.

Once more, some writers and more readers seem to understand by unemployed only the exact opposite of the foregoing. They take it for granted that any can find work who will, and that therefore if anybody is without work, it is because he will not work, or at least because of some fault which he has developed, and for which ¹ *morally responsible*. To them there are no unemployed except *who will not work*. Few students of social facts take ²

However much the number of those unemployed through no fault of their own may have been exaggerated by some, no one can doubt but that, in the present ordering of society, with its sudden economic changes, there are such. The invention of a machine, the consolidation of plants, the shutting down of mills, shops, or mines, the change of a railroad rate, the termination of an important contract, the failure of some crop or of some supply, even the caprice of fashion or the overstocking of a market—these and a hundred other things may cause thousands of operatives to be at least temporarily out of work, for reasons for which they are no more to blame than the tides for following the phases of the moon. To call all the unemployed willing idlers or shiftless incapables is to ignore facts and to insult many a worthy but unfortunate honest workman. It is to dodge rather than to face a problem.

Nor is there any more ground for limiting the term as is sometimes practically done to the unemployed among the artisan and manual-labor class. The unemployed clerk, accountant, journalist, or professional man is often in a much more serious and critical condition than the artisan or manual laborer who finds himself without work. If the brain worker is ruled out of the question, it means that often a very needy case is ruled out, and an important factor that is not ruled out in life and that continually enters in to confuse and augment the difficulties of the situation. To find work for the brain worker is sometimes harder than to find work for the manual laborer.

Nor is there any sex limitation to the word. An unemployed man may, in the final analysis, be a much more serious social factor than an unemployed woman, because usually man is the chief breadwinner of the family and of the community, and yet, when a woman does need work and either can not or will not find it, she is often in a more pitiable and a more dangerous, even desperate, condition than an unemployed man. The woman who is idle either by disposition or by circumstance can not be eliminated from the problem of the unemployed.

Unemployment therefore means the being out of work, for any cause whatsoever, through fault or through misfortune, for a longer or a shorter time, by any class or condition of persons in economic need of work.

Second only to the necessity of including in the problem all of its elements is the almost equal necessity in actual treatment of very carefully discriminating between the different classes of the unemployed and of treating each separate class differently, according to its exact and, frequently, its very divergent needs.

The failure to do this has probably been the second most frequent cause of failure in working out the problem. To t
burned-out weakling li *killed man* *waken,*
of

work is almost as serious a sociological blunder as to treat the honest, skilled, and willing artisan out of work through no fault of his own, like the tramp who comes begging for a nickel to quench his fevered thirst. Yet the history of labor is full of instances of industrial and other endeavors which have failed because they have taken for granted that everybody knew how and desired to work, and more frequent are the instances of well-meant systems which have begun by driving away the most hopeful class of the unemployed by insulting them and by lumping all the unemployed in one class and under conditions suited only to the most degraded and the most inefficient. Either course is fatal to success. To distinguish may be said to be the very first practical step toward the solution of the problem. Years ago it was said by John Burns, now president of the British Local Government Board:

Until the differentiation of the laborer from the loafer takes place, the unemployed question can never be properly discussed and dealt with. Till the tramp, thief, and ne'er-do-well, however pitiable he may be, is dealt with distinctly from the genuine worker, no permanent benefit will result to any of them. The gentleman who gets up to look for work at midday, and prays that he may not find it, is undeserving of pity. I have seen the most genuine and honest men at meetings mixed up with the laziest and most drunken scoundrels.

But this need of differentiation is so obvious that it has but to be stated to be understood. The difficulty is that it is not so easily carried out in practice.

As before stated, the unemployed may be divided into three general classes: (1) The employable; (2) the unemployable; and (3) the vagrant, incorrigible, or more or less vicious class.

By the employable are meant those out of work, either for a longer or shorter time, who are able and willing to do work of some economic value.

By the unemployable are meant those out of work, who, though willing to work, are by reason of deficiency, mental or physical, through their own fault or other circumstances, unable to do, at least permanently, work of appreciable economic value.

By the vagrant, incorrigible, or more or less vicious are meant those able to work, who, for one reason or another, are not willing to do permanent honest labor.

It will be obvious from these distinctions, that they are capable of and demand numerous subdivisions, and also that the three classes more or less continually merge into one another. Not seldom the three characteristics are to be found somewhat mixed in the same person. There are men, according to their moods, employable, unemployable, and vagrant. There are other persons of character *so unpronounced or so complex that it is almost impossible*

which class they belong. The three classes may be combined in many other ways, which increases the difficulty of the problem. Nevertheless, as will be seen, the general differentiation of these three main classes is primal, and is absolutely requisite to success in the solution of the question.

A further differentiation, however, must be made.

The first class, the employable, must be subdivided into those who are out of work because of loss of position and those who are temporarily out of work, but may expect after a time to have work at their former positions. These two classes are in very different situations. As previously said, men may lose their positions by reason of the invention of a new machine, which renders their skill no longer economically necessary, or through the consolidation of plants, resulting in the permanent shutting down of the factory, mine, or establishment in which they are employed. Or there may be many other economic reasons whereby, without implying any fault whatsoever in the individual concerned, he nevertheless becomes out of work, and perchance with no skill or education which he can use, because the need for his particular kind of skill or education has gone forever. To find work for such men is often difficult in the extreme. At least it takes time for them to learn and adapt themselves to a new occupation. To the individual and to society such a condition is one of industrial calamity, yet with the growth of civilization and of invention it is by no means rare.

On the other hand, the employable may be temporarily out of work for a hundred reasons—through a temporary lull or change in the market, the shut-down of a mill for repairs, because some portion of the working staff has struck, resulting in throwing all classes out of work, or through a limitless number of causes. Yet, however caused, it is obvious that the man unemployed for a few weeks is in a very different condition and has very different needs from the unemployed man who has no prospect of returning to his former employment; the one needs help over a temporary embarrassment, the other needs a new occupation.

Still other differences may be made among the employable—differences between the skilled and the unskilled, between workers by hand and workers by brain, between various occupations, between the sexes, between variations in age—differences which call for very great difference of treatment in securing work for the various classes. It is obvious that, combining the temporarily unemployed and those with no prospect of permanent employment, the skilled and the unskilled, the artisan and the manual laborer, the man and the woman, the young and the old, into one class and calling them the unemployed, will make it impossible to reach the real needs of any class.

The same reasoning is true, also, and perhaps to an even greater degree, of the unemployable. Here there are differences of character and temperament as well as differences of condition. Men are unemployable because of drink, because of old age, because of inefficiency, because of bodily infirmity. To lump all these together and treat them all in the same way is to insult the honest but unfortunate, and to fail to treat according to their real needs the unemployable who are to blame. It is evident that the differentiation of the various kinds of unemployable is possibly more needful than to differentiate the employable. It is the opinion of many that one of the most serious drawbacks to the otherwise successful German labor colonies is a failure to discriminate sufficiently between the various kinds of men who come to them.

Similarly the vagrant and more or less vicious classes should be differentiated. The difference between the tramp and the highwayman is marked, although it may be in a sense one of degree, and the tramp may become a highwayman almost before he knows it. Nevertheless, the man or woman who begs or will not work must be differently treated from the man or woman who steals. Undoubtedly one of the main reasons for the notable success of the Elmira Reformatory is its graded system, and in that it treats each individual differently according to his respective needs.

Such, however, are but a few of the differentiations that must be made. The exact nature of the subdivisions to be considered will become apparent only as the different portions of the subject are approached. The three main divisions noted above, however, must be kept in mind, for they are primal.

Fortunately when such differentiation has been made, the problem is often much less serious than at first appears. This is one of the main reasons why this study has been made an inquiry into what is done for the unemployed in foreign countries. In the United States and even in England, until recently at least, there has been very little effort to work out the unemployed problem on the basis of subdividing it into its component parts. Generally speaking, in the United States there has been no adequate effort to provide for the unemployed at all except in periods of unusual distress, and this is true to a less extent in Great Britain. For the most part the complacent but often delusive statement has been accepted that there was no real lack of employment; that if any man was without work in ordinary times all he had to do was to quit drinking and "get out and hustle for a job." It may be stated that, even when in times of unusual distress there have been spasmodic efforts to provide work, these efforts, being spasmodic and of necessity hastily put in operation—though they have often, perhaps usually, made *no* show of introducing "work tests," and of distinguishing betw

"worthy" and the "unworthy" unemployed—have involved a differentiation which has been in the hurry anything but thorough, scientific, or satisfactory. The result is that neither in the United States nor in Great Britain—with one or perhaps two important exceptions—has there been any real success in working out the problem.

WHAT EUROPEAN COUNTRIES HAVE ACCOMPLISHED.

Consequently for suggestion, informing experiences, and experiments it is necessary to study the methods in foreign lands, and here is found a singular fact. While in most of the countries studied the differentiation of the various classes of the unemployed has been somewhat adequate, the problem of dealing successfully with each separate class, when it has been differentiated, has been in many ways so easy that each nation has been, as it were, carried away with the success which it has first developed and so has worked out that special problem almost to the exclusion of other portions of the problem. Germany, for example, has been especially successful in the problem of public employment bureaus and of how to care for the wandering laborer and the tramp. It has even been said that there are to-day no tramps in Germany, though only comparatively recently the Empire was infested with them. This, while doubtless an exaggeration, has much truth. Yet Germany, though in many ways the very birthplace and home of State industrial insurance of other kinds, has not even attempted any State insurance against unemployment, and the German treatment of the unemployed artisan is by no means equal to her treatment of the unskilled laborer in search of work.

The country that first developed State-aided insurance against temporary unemployment, among trade unionists at least, is Belgium, and several other European countries are now copying her system upon this point. Yet the Belgian system has almost failed among nonunionists. Switzerland has seen perhaps more interesting experiments in the development of governmental or municipal insurance against unemployment than any other country, and has much to teach, though she has had little marked success, perhaps, for the very reason that the Swiss experiments have not carefully distinguished between the different classes of the unemployed.

Belgium, Switzerland, and Holland have been marked by some success with the hardened and incorrigibly idle. Denmark has developed an admirable system for the aged. France and Italy have seen interesting though less markedly characterized experiments with the so-called *bourse du travail*. Great Britain has developed the out-of-work benefit among trade unionists beyond any other country. The United States, though outside the field of the inquiry, I world in the so-called "vagrants."

While such treatment would be of interest, it seems best not to take up the subject by countries and follow the experience of each, because it would be to confuse success with failure. It seems wiser to treat the subject topically and analytically and to study the experience in each department of the subject in those countries having in each given direction the most to teach.

It is well to dwell for a moment upon the general importance and gravity of the subject. Particularly is this necessary in the United States, where many seem to think the problem not pressing or even nonexistent. In Great Britain and in Europe generally it is reckoned among the chief problems of the day. Witness the international congress upon unemployment, held at Milan, October 2-3, 1906, in connection with the Milan Exposition. Prominent delegates assembled from almost all civilized countries and important papers were read on all phases of the question. The literature of the subject, too, is increasing by strides. All European legislatures are considering the problem usually through important commissions on the subject. Few in America know how deep is the interest taken in the question in Europe, how large is the experience in its treatment that can be drawn upon, or how great have been the successes already achieved.

MISCONCEPTIONS OF THE SUBJECT.

The lack of interest in the question in the United States has been partly due, however, to popular misapprehensions. The opinion seems general in the United States, and to a less extent even in other countries, that the number of unemployed has been exaggerated and that sympathy for men without work is largely misplaced. The reasons for this very common and natural opinion are habitually overlooked, though when studied the opinion will be seen to be erroneous.

1. In the first place, the unemployed who come into closest contact with the general community, and above all, with the charitable community, are beyond all question the worst specimens of their class, and therefore mislead the public as to the general character of the unemployed. Self-respecting men and women avoid begging and knocking at the doors of charity until the last possible moment. Some prefer, and often actually choose, starvation rather than beggary. Consequently these self-respecting persons are the last to come in evidence before the charitable. But those who have lost self-respect, who will not work even when they can, who are the professionally unemployed, the typical tramp represented on the stage and the one who darkens the rich man's door—these continually haunt the wealthy and the charitable. If anybody will give food, or above all, money, they will continually apply for it, and are even said to mark the gates of those who give, in order to inform other members of the begging

fraternity. Not unnaturally the ordinary public judges from its experience and wrongly concludes that what is true of the unemployed with whom it comes in contact is true of the whole class, and that the one trouble with the unemployed is therefore that they will not work. This is the natural conclusion from the public's experience. Yet all informed investigators of the subject are agreed that while this may be true of a large class it is by no means true of all, and that there are hundreds of thousands of people in the United States who never come before the charitable, and who dislike and even denounce charity, who are nevertheless, at least for periods of time, bitterly in need of work. Very few workingmen pass through life without being, for a time at least, in need of work.

2. These premature judgments of the ordinary public are caught up and repeated by the press. The press does not like to admit any lack of employment. It is for their interest to talk good times. "Prosperity talk" helps to create prosperity. Desiring prosperity, the press, probably rightly, encourages hope, but not infrequently mistakenly asserts that there is work for all. A New York paper not long ago declared that the department of street cleaning was unable to secure street sweepers. Application at the department at that very time elicited the fact that the department was overrun with applications for work. Such is the fact as to many similar rumors and statements accepted by the public.

3. The wealth of the United States is so great, its opportunities so abundant, the prosperity of certain classes so good, the wages of many artisans so high, and ordinary labor when employed so well paid, compared with European labor, that it seems incredible that at that very time others may be unable to get work at any price. Yet such is the case. Trade union wages usually are high, not because there is no competition from the unemployed, but largely because of strict trade organization.

4. People get into the way of thinking that because those out of work are usually our "weaker brethren," they are out of work through their own fault alone. They forget that it is natural for the least efficient to be first out of work. When a man employing one hundred men discharges five, he naturally discharges the five who, for one reason or another, are the least efficient. Yet he may have discharged those five, not for any special inefficiency or fault, but because his business, compelling him to discharge five, they were the least valuable to him. Railroads sometimes lay off a thousand men at a time. When two companies combine, almost always some clerks are discharged. Inevitably, the more efficient are retained and the unemployed are the less efficient. For many of these, especially of the clerical class, with a fair general knowledge but no especial trade, it is difficult to find work, especially if at all old. Invention and machinery

also make men idle temporarily. The rapid entry of women into offices and some forms of light manufactures, displaces men, at least temporarily. Other forms and often higher forms of work may open for the abler men, but the inefficient often go months without work. The experience of certain college professors who, with plenty of physical and mental ability, have experimented in seeing if they could get work and have found it, proves nothing. The question is not can the efficient but can the inefficient get work?

5. It is said that they could at least be thrifty, cleanly, temperate, and that often they are not. Large numbers of the unemployed are thrifty, cleanly, temperate, but it must be remembered that few apply for relief or come to the public notice until they have been unemployed for a considerable time, or only employed on occasional jobs, so that the process of discouragement and demoralization has gone on a long time before they attract attention. By this time many who, when they had good work, were thrifty and temperate, have begun to take a weak refuge in thriftlessness and intemperance.

6. This leads inevitably to the question of intemperance as the cause of unemployment. Some say, having in mind individual cases, that the question of unemployment is only another form of the drink question, and that everybody could find work except for drink. Few well-informed students believe this. Serious as is the evil of drink it is easily exaggerated, because if drink leads to evil habits, and so often, at least, to discharge and unemployment, it is also true that idleness and unemployment often lead to drink. It is very frequently, perhaps usually, difficult to know which is cause and which is effect. The facts are too intricate to allow of analysis.

It is seen, therefore, that many popular presuppositions in regard to the unemployed are but poorly founded and that, even if true, they serve rather to aggravate and complicate the difficulties and the serious nature of the problem, than to afford any reason for slighting or dismissing it, or for saying that there is no problem of the unemployed. To call the matter merely a drink question or a tramp question, or to identify it with any one portion of the problem, is to commit an error which is to-day made by few students of actual life. The tramp, the incorrigibly idle, the drunkard, must be dealt with, whatever be the cause of his delinquency, as truly as the honest and worthy unemployed man or woman. It is apparent how large and how serious is the problem.

AMOUNT OF UNEMPLOYMENT.

With reference to the numbers of the unemployed, it must be said *that this is not the subject of the present study, and that therefore it need not here be considered at length or in full. Figures even ap-*

proximately exact are impossible. The real number of the unemployed in any country or in any city no man knows, or can know. The most careful statistics in regard to the subject are after all but guesses more or less shrewd, based upon fragments of evidence, and serve merely as a suggestion or very partial indication of the gravity of the problem.

THE MEANS OF DIFFERENTIATION.

In considering the question proper of what is being done for the unemployed the first thing necessary, as already shown, is to differentiate the unemployed into the various classes.

UNITED STATES AND GREAT BRITAIN.

In the United States and in Great Britain, through all their varied experiences, the work test has loomed very large. Applicants for work are put to work to see what is in them—whether they really want work or not, whether they can or can not work, how they work, and what work they can do.

The time-honored test is the wood pile. Men are set to sawing or splitting wood. It is an easy test, but very crude and unsatisfactory. A man may saw wood for a little while or for a day and yet be, in the long run, thoroughly unreliable and unsteady. Some men are not able to saw or split wood, and yet may be thoroughly deserving and, on a different line of work, quite capable. If a man does or does not saw wood, what, after all, does that indicate as to what he can do best, or what is his real need? The crudity of such a work test is apparent, although the test is far better than none.

Temporary colonies have recently been started, particularly in Great Britain, and men are sent there for a few days or weeks, partly as a temporary relief and partly to see what they are and what they can do. As this plan is studied in detail it will be seen that the experiment is at once expensive and unsatisfactory, and unless work is carried on in a large number of industries such colonies afford but little chance for a man to show what is or is not in him. It has been seen that the unemployed include largely the less able, the less educated, and the less efficient. Among other things, they are less able to adapt themselves to new conditions. For instance, it is difficult for a diamond worker or a stereotyper to show his skill at an "unemployment colony." A man may perhaps be able to do a fair day's work or succeed at least fairly well at his own particular machine or in his own branch of a trade, but is quite helpless when dumped down with hundreds of others of all classes and all trades in an agricultural colony.

Agricultural colonies are frequently the worst places to show what is in the city men who form the large majority of the unemployed. At Hollesley Bay, the main English colony of this description, it is said to be the rule that the man who comes to the colony is so weakened from lack of proper food or, less commonly, from the effects of drink and dissipation that it is two weeks before he can do ordinary colony work. With many it takes longer to show at all what they can do.

If varied lines of work are attempted at a colony it becomes enormously expensive, a large item of expense being the employment of adequate foremen to manage the various lines, while continual change of hands is bad both for the industry and the tools, and it is difficult to keep them up to the requisite standard. A still more radical difficulty—the drink habit—presents itself. This applies particularly to the lower grades of men, but unfortunately it applies to a large majority of unemployed “colonists.” All men are sober when they can not get drink. At the colony they usually can not; but that does not show what they will do when again at large. As a work test for the unemployed the colony fails at many crucial points, though this is far better than no test.

GERMANY.

Germany has developed an entirely different system of ascertaining what men can do. This must, however, be accompanied by the statement that at one point Germany's failure to differentiate various classes of the unemployed is a point of weakness in her labor colonies.

The way in which Germany comes to judge her unemployed may be said in brief to be by following their career from the start. This method needs no test. Germany knows the men themselves, and has in almost all cases a more or less complete record of their whole career.

In the first place, no German youth under 21 can enter employment without getting from the police a so-called labor book (*Arbeitsbuch*). In this book is entered his age, parentage, means of identification, and place of employment. So long as he remains in a place his labor book is kept by his employer, but when he leaves, the book must be returned to him with the date of his leaving recorded, and he can not secure another situation (if he is under 21) without showing his book.

After he is 21 the record plainly shows what he is. This record is secured in various ways, differing more or less in the different trades or callings and largely between the city and the country. The returns of the State industrial insurance system afford much information. For approximately 18,000,000 the facts as to their occupation, place of employment, wage received, size of family, general economic

condition, and state of health is a matter of public record, and that for a number of years. The value of this knowledge of the life history of a man is at once apparent. Every man or woman insured is given a card, showing at once how he or she has been insured, the amounts paid, the date and regularity of payments, indicating their occupation, economic standing, etc. When an applicant, therefore, arrives at an employment bureau, the first thing he is asked to do is to show his card to indicate his character and position.

For the cities, too, and especially for the classes most likely to be in need of employment, there is another way in which the character and position of applicants are even more minutely recorded. This is through the system of poor relief, now almost universal in the German States and cities—a combination of Government supervision with widespread individual action. It is some form or another of the Elberfeld system, so called from the city in which it was first developed, varying in detail in different States and cities.

The essence of this system, so far as the relief of the poor is concerned, is the division of the city into districts, for the supervision of conditions in which a certain number of citizens are responsible. These citizens, who watch over the needs of their districts, are not paid officials, and they may come from any class of the community. They are called "helpers" (*Armenpfleger*). In the city of Elberfeld, for example, with 162,700 inhabitants, there are over 546 of these helpers. It is the duty of these helpers to divide their districts into minor districts, and each helper must acquaint himself with the needs of the people in the district to which he is appointed. In Elberfeld each helper has on an average 280 persons under his care, rich or poor, out of which number only a few will probably need help. These few he comes to know personally and intimately.^(*)

The helpers, too, are organized into groups presided over by a captain or *Bezirksvorsteher*, and these captains meet in a central board headed by the civic administration called the *Verwaltung*, which has charge of the administration of the cities' charities. It is easy to decide in any given case whether a man is unemployed through fault or through misfortune, and what kind of aid he needs in securing employment. Each helper knows in detail the needs of each case and reports it to his *Vorsteher*, who lays it before the central board. Whatever be the case the applicant is helped in some way or compelled to find employment.

One of the principal duties set before every helper is to watch all persons in his district who may be in danger of becoming needy, so as to be ready to meet the beginnings of want before they become developed and disintegration of character sets in. Wherever these

* W. H. Dawson, *The German Workman*, p. 200.

systems are developed it is easy to determine to what class of the unemployed any particular individual belongs, whether he be without work through fault or through circumstances, whether his unemployment is merely temporary or likely to be long continued, or whether he be capable or incapable.

The public employment bureaus also furnish a great deal of information. They form the chief success of Germany in dealing with the unemployed, exist in nearly every important German city, reach a very large proportion of the people, and yet for each one they reach they gather considerable detailed information. Details differ in different bureaus, but in general each applicant must enter on record considerable information in regard to himself, and this is followed up by his reporting his success or failure in gaining employment, so that his record becomes a somewhat complete index of his character. In Berlin he is given a little book which, till he is employed, he has to bring each day to the office and have stamped. In Germany, indeed, the workman may be called the man with the little book.

One other factor in connection with these public employment bureaus aids the differentiation, and that is that the bureaus themselves, at least in the case of the larger bureaus, are subdivided into so many sections. In all cases there are separate departments, and indeed separate rooms, if not separate buildings, for the men and women applying for work. Only less universal is the separation into different rooms of the skilled and the unskilled workers. These distinctions are made in even the smallest bureaus. But the larger bureaus go much further and have different departments for the main different trades, or at least branches of trades. The public employment bureaus of Berlin and Munich occupy a large number of offices, and in Berlin the bureau occupies more than one building. All this, of course, greatly aids the differentiation of the unemployed.

These institutions are mainly for the city laborer and the skilled artisan. For the more strictly vagrant class there are the "Wanderschein," or traveling workman's book of the Herbergen and Verpflegungsstationen, which play a large part in the life of the unemployed German workman, particularly of the lower grades.

The Herbergen are home shelters where the unemployed or needy workmen may secure temporary lodging and food by paying a small sum, or without such payment provided he do a little work in the morning. They are found in almost all German cities and towns, there being some 500 of them in the Empire. In 1904 they gave 4,089,506 night lodgings to over 2,000,000 persons. They are for the most part charitable, maintained largely by religious organizations. In all the large cities the trade unions also maintain Herbergen. The *Verpflegungsstationen* are smaller shelters—or sometimes a mere room or rooms in connection with some inn or other institution—provided

by the public authorities, where the needy workman traveling in search of work can find shelter for a single night only and be sent on the next day to the next *Verpflegungsstation*. Here, as in the *Herbergen*, the workman can obtain accommodations either by making a very small payment or by doing a little work. There are over 1,000 of these stations in the Empire and they are on the increase.

Both classes of these institutions have two characteristics which should be noted here. Both the *Herberge* and the *Verpflegungsstation* make considerable effort to find work for or learn of positions for the unemployed, and both of them make their services conditional on the workman having a book—the so-called “*Wanderschein*”—in which is entered the fact of his entertainment, with the date, and which must be shown and stamped at each *Herberge* or station before he can receive food or lodging. If this book be lost he must buy another at a low price or by doing extra work.

The *Herbergen* and *Stationen* are also organized into one system and connected usually by telephone, so that information as to opportunities for work can be communicated from one to the other, while many of the larger *Herbergen* have regular employment bureaus or departments connected with them. They are thus of great usefulness and importance to the more needy workingmen, and are largely patronized by them. But as all their activities are a matter of record and as each one who receives even the slightest entertainment must have and show his “book,” it is evident how much they contribute to showing the record of the needy men seeking work. The “*Wanderschein*” is by no means popular with the men. They do not enjoy the restraint and surveillance it entails upon their actions.

Thus in these and other methods by absolute records Germany knows who her unemployed are.

All this is helped, so far as knowing men is concerned, by the various laws and police regulations which render any vagrant not able to give an account of himself liable to arrest. As a matter of fact, the German unemployed and vagrants are compelled to have their “books” of one kind or another, and so thoroughly is the system carried out that it has been said that there are no tramps or vagrants in Germany. Germany thus needs no “work tests,” because the record of each man needing work is known and followed.

It does not follow, of course, that a system which on the whole works well in Germany is adapted to the United States or England. As has been already pointed out, Anglo-Saxon and German methods differ materially at this very point.

For two reasons it is much easier for the European workingman to submit to regulation by boards of various societies. The first is that *these societies themselves* are ruled by the State; the second is that *both on their boards and on state boards the officers of the boards are*

frequently themselves of the working classes. In Germany it is frequently the case that the "helper" may be a workingman, and when it comes to the employment bureaus it is often required by law that it shall be so. The presence of an equal number of employees and employers upon the boards of management of employment bureaus is considered in Germany so necessary to their success that it is almost universal in the new public employment bureaus, and the Germans have adopted a special word to designate this class of bureaus. They call them by the suggestive word "Paritätisch." The presence of workingmen upon such boards is also common in other countries. In Belgium upon each commission d'assistance, or relief committee of the commune or township, there must be at least one workingman. In Austria the Prague municipal employment bureau is in charge of a board of nine persons, of whom three must be representatives of the employed and must be workmen actually employed in Prague. In Switzerland workingmen are prominent on all such boards. In France the labor exchanges or employment bureaus are often almost wholly in the hands of workingmen.

SWITZERLAND.

Switzerland has in most ways upon the unemployment question followed the lead of Germany, but upon not a few points by coming after Germany has Switzerland been able to improve upon German methods. Being, too, a smaller country she has frequently been able to develop more systematized and centralized plans than have been developed in Germany, a truth only partially modified by Switzerland's cantonal and tripartite racial divisions. This applies particularly to Switzerland's methods of dealing with vagrants and being able to know the genuine seeker for work from the hardened vagrant.

There is in the first place an intercantonal union for the relief of workmen seeking employment, organized at present in at least nineteen out of the twenty-two Cantons. This union fixes the following conditions for giving relief in the relief stations at the Cantons:

- (1) The traveler must produce valid papers of legitimation.
- (2) Proof that he has worked for an employer within the three preceding months and that at least five days have elapsed since that employment ceased.
- (3) All relief given is rated in the traveler's book (issued by the union) with date and place.
- (4) The delivery of this book is made in the place of legitimation. Any person unable to present his book receives no relief, and the person may be handed over to the police. In Switzerland as in Germany each entry and discharge from or relinquishment of work *be recorded*, and all is under strict police regulation. *Why Switzerland is said to have few or no tramps, or at least*

who are and who are not tramps. As a result people in good conscience can refuse to give to beggars in Switzerland, and begging there is almost unknown. For the really needy provision is made.

OTHER COUNTRIES.

Other European countries have little to teach on this subject. Belgium is beginning to arrive at somewhat the same results—so far, however, only as her organized labor is concerned—through her system of public aid to the unemployed who receive some aid from the trade unions. This system has as one corollary a somewhat minute recording of the condition and ability and character of each trade unionist. An examination of some of these Belgian records reveals much concerning the individuals in question, but this is only for the members of a union. For nonunionists the Belgian system has failed. France has little that is new. Denmark arrives at some approach to the German system through her old-age pension system, which necessitates considerable record keeping.

THE EMPLOYABLE.

The prime need for the class of the unemployed who have no prospect of work in a former position but who are employable is a new situation. Temporary aid or temporary relief work will do the members of this class little good, for at its conclusion they may be as needy as before. It is obvious that the first requisite for meeting the needs of this class is a good and efficient employment bureau.

EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.

Employment bureaus may be divided into six principal classes, though these are capable of subdivision, and though there are also bureaus which partake more or less of the nature of more than one class.

First, there are in all countries and developed in large numbers the ordinary commercial employment bureau, carried on for gain. These bureaus are mainly for domestic servants, waiters, and the like, and to a less extent for girls and women in commerce and the unorganized trades. Outside of domestic servants men use these bureaus very little.

Second, employment bureaus connected with some trade union. These in all countries do a large and important work, but as a rule only for the members of the trade union or at most the craft with which they are connected.

Third, akin to those of the second class, but in most countries slightly developed, are employment bureaus established and managed by workingmen, but not in connection with any one tr

Fourth, employment bureaus established by employers. In some countries these play a large part and find work for a considerable number of men. Among them, although slightly different, may be placed the employment bureaus of the old guilds, a few of which still survive in European countries, and which in a few countries yet play some considerable part.

Fifth, employment bureaus established and conducted by some form or other of charitable or philanthropic effort. These in some countries play a not inconsiderable part, although in the main for the less efficient and more poorly organized and therefore more needy working classes. These bureaus do much more for women than for men.

Sixth, the last kind of employment bureau to be developed, but probably the most important, is the so-called public employment bureau, established and conducted by some public organization, usually the municipality or State. These in Europe, and especially in Germany, have developed a very large success, are rapidly on the increase, and demand careful study.

Nearly all these various kinds of employment bureaus are to be found in all European countries. It seems best, therefore, to study them by countries.

FRANCE.

France is the first country selected, not because the French bureaus are the most important or the most successful, but because France first attempted public effort in this line and because upon her experiences to some extent has been based the action of other countries.

VARIOUS COMMERCIAL, TRADE UNION, AND OTHER EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.

In France, as in almost all countries, the first employment bureaus to be developed were of the ordinary commercial kind, and these are still numerically the most important and possibly, until recently, the most successful. The number of situations obtained by them run over a million a year. Their importance, however, is rapidly on the decline and a strong agitation against them is at present being carried on. They are largely limited to obtaining situations in domestic service or for workers in hotels and restaurants. From 1833 to 1897, for example, at a time when they were more important than they are now, out of 932,822 situations filled, 398,725 were for domestic servants and 201,590 for waiters. Few situations were found for artisans or workers in organized trades.

Many and serious charges are made against these employment bureaus on the ground of immorality and kindred evils, and there is a considerable body of evidence to prove the evils along those lines.

In France, as also in other countries, these employment bureaus are also accused of exploiting in other ways the girls and women who

make use of them. Some of them have been charged with being little more than organized frauds, sending the girls and women to whom they promise situations on all sorts of baseless errands, but rarely getting them permanent situations. At present these private bureaux must be licensed by the municipal authorities and are strictly supervised. A law of March 14, 1904, requires that hereafter all fees must be paid by employers and no remuneration whatsoever be required from the employees. The law further gives municipalities the right to close these private bureaux, and in not a few cases the law has been acted upon. This law further requires every town of 10,000 or more inhabitants to maintain a free public bureau. It is even seriously proposed by many of the French Socialists and a few others to make the closing of the private bureaux compulsory for the whole country, but this has not been carried into legislation.

Another class of French employment bureaux at present of little influence, but of considerable historic interest, are the old guild registries. The 15 trade guilds reporting to the French Labor Department from 1894 to 1897 found an average annual number of only 7,537 situations.

Much more important are the trade union employment bureaux. In 1907, out of a total of 5,322 trade unions existing in France, 1,105 maintained employment bureaux. Besides these, there are also 21 federations of trade unions maintaining employment bureaux. This indicates what is found everywhere and in every country, a tendency to combine and ally the bureaux into a system and federation. These trade union employment bureaux find many positions, but are much criticised. The first report on employment agencies in France makes the following observations: (*)

The employers object that the trade unions insist on their paying wages fixed by an absolutely rigid scale, that they refuse to allow the employers to select the particular employee who meets their requirements, since the unions, so far as possible, allot situations to their members strictly in order of priority of application, and that these organizations conduct their operations in places unsuitable for the purpose, which ladies seeking servants and women applying for situations, if they possess any degree of self-respect, in many cases can not visit without injury to their feelings, and in which employers are liable to have to discuss terms of engagement in public, under the very eyes of the employees whom they have just discharged.

The working classes themselves find fault with the trade unions for filling vacant situations exclusively with their own members, especially those of their members whose views on political and social subjects are those of the majority.

* *Le Placement des Employés, Ouvriers et Domestiques en France, 1893*, pp. 469, 470.

In the last place, the most ardent advocates of trade unionism assert that the relative meagerness of the results obtained by the union employment agencies is due to the fact that, so far as most unions are concerned, there is no possibility of putting in charge of this work a man devoting his whole time to it, and they consider it to be an imperative necessity that for this purpose financial assistance should be granted to the unions by the public authorities.

The last paragraph, however, simply indicates a weak trade union. A strong trade union has no difficulty in employing a man to give all his time to such work. The other criticisms simply mean that trade union employment bureaus are of necessity limited to securing places for their own members.

These trade union employment bureaus are largely connected with the labor exchange or "bourse du travail," an institution somewhat peculiar to France, although to an extent copied in Italy and other countries, which must be studied. The first labor exchange was that created by the municipality of Paris in 1887, of which the employment bureau was to have been from the start one of the important features. The following is the text of the resolution which created the exchange:

On November 19, 1883, M. Manier forwarded to the municipal council of Paris the following resolution adopted at a meeting on the 16th of the same month at the Salle Rivoli:

Considering that the labor exchange will at least have the effect of (a) suppressing the *Places de Grève*;^(*) (b) facilitating the placing of workers; (c) suppressing the registry offices carried on for gain; (d) centralizing supply and demand with a view to rapidly bringing workers into relation with work; (e) establishing direct relations between the unions or corporate associations, as well as between all workers in general, whether they belong to unions or not; this meeting, having heard the details of the proposal, invites the municipal council to vote the said proposal in its entirety in the present session.

In response to this and other similar results the municipal council of Paris decided to create a central labor exchange, and one was provisionally opened February 3, 1887. A central exchange building was later erected and opened May 22, 1892.

Similar bourses were started in Nimes in 1887, in Marseille and St. Etienne in 1888, in Toulon in 1889, and in Bordeaux and Toulouse in 1890. They then became common. Almost all of them have employment bureaus connected with them. The following table shows their number and activity in this respect since 1894:

^{*} Certain localities in Paris where it is customary for persons seeking work to assemble for the purpose of being hired by employers. There are similar places at Toulouse, Bordeaux, Bouen, and Havre, and in other parts of France (see *Seconde Enquête sur le Placement*, etc., 1901, pp. 53, 54).

NUMBER OF LABOR EXCHANGES (BOURSES DU TRAVAIL) IN FRANCE AND NUMBER OF SITUATIONS SECURED BY THOSE REPORTING, 1894 TO 1906.

Year.	Total.	Number reporting situations secured.	Number of situations secured.		
			Perma- nent.	Tempo- rary.	Total.
1894.....	34	24	15,031	5,335	20,366
1895.....	46	29	24,518	6,044	30,562
1896.....	42	37	33,553	7,450	41,003
1897.....	49	31	25,189	28,882	64,002
1898.....	55	41	47,227	38,159	85,386
1899.....	65	42	55,096	48,618	103,714
1900.....	75	a 44	37,396	23,898	61,294
1901.....	86	a 56	34,534	9,625	44,159
1902.....	94	a 66	44,631	30,544	75,175
1903.....	94	a 54	54,888	25,189	80,077
1904.....	111	a 64	60,232	31,766	91,998
1905.....	114	a 79	58,981	33,643	92,624
1906.....	125	a 80	62,177	36,147	98,324

^a Not including the Paris labor exchange. The *Annuaire des Syndicats Professionnels* of 1902 states that the Paris Bourse du Travail has no central employment bureau.

In 1907 these bourses du travail received a considerable subvention, 394,760 francs (\$76,189) from the municipal authorities and 55,569 francs (\$10,725) from the Departments.

They are federated into a federation for the country, and work in general on a similar system in making small grants to workmen journeying in search of employment. The following are some of the details of the system in force:

The grant is given one-half in cash, one-half in kind. The recipient must belong to a trade union or join one in six months. The man must not have left the place in which he lived for any reason except lack of work, and must present himself to each bourse in succession. Each bourse manages its own fund, this fund being maintained by a monthly contribution of 2 cents from each member of each trade union. The grant is at the rate of 2 francs (39 cents) for the first 25 miles or fraction of 25 miles from each bourse visited, and about 15 cents for each 12½ miles or fraction of that distance afterward. (^a)

Three other classes of employment bureaus exist in France which have not yet had large development. These are the employment bureaus established by employers, by joint associations of employers and employees, and by friendly societies.

In 1907 there were 319 employment bureaus established by employers' associations and 6 by federations of such associations. They are, however, as is natural, much criticised by the French workingmen.

In 1907 there were 27 employment bureaus established by joint associations—employers and employed—and 2 established by federations of such joint associations. These associations succeeded in placing only a few thousand men, for the most part in the weaving trade.

^a *Syndicats Ouvriers, Fédérations, Bourses du Travail*, by Léon de Seilhac, p. 215.

The French associations in connection with friendly societies undertake to find work for the members of these societies, but in a large number of instances without maintaining any sort of office and do not accomplish either a very large work or one which makes definite reports.

The latter statement is true also of the employment bureaus in connection with French charitable institutions. They have not been as a rule successful, nor have they reached large proportions, although a few charitable bureaus do considerable work.

MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.

The most interesting French employment bureaus are those operated by the municipalities. Their beginnings go back to 1848, when the French provisional government of that year established free public information bureaus in each of the mayoralties of Paris. These were connected, however, so intimately with the governmental relief works also established at that time, that in this article they are considered under the section relating to relief works. They were unsuccessful, perhaps because of the lack of success of the relief works, and their failure long discounted the idea of municipal employment bureaus in France.

The experiment was revived in 1886, and by 1891 there were 24 municipal employment bureaus, and by 1896, 52, of which 26 made returns as finding situations for 36,895 persons. By 1902, 30 reported finding situations for 58,752 persons. The law of March 19, 1904, made compulsory the establishment of such free municipal bureaus in all cities of 10,000 inhabitants or over.

In 1906 there were 76 municipal bureaus, including 12 in Paris and 1 in Algiers.

The following table shows the operations of those of the French municipal bureaus making reports:

NUMBER OF MUNICIPAL BUREAUS IN FRANCE AND NUMBER OF SITUATIONS FILLED BY THOSE REPORTING, 1896 TO 1906.

[Compiled as to 1896-1899 from the *Seconde Enquête sur le Placement*, etc., p. 57, and as to 1900-1906 from the *Annuaire Statistique de la France*.]

Year.	Total.	Number reporting situations secured.	Number of situations secured.		
			Per- manent.	Tem- porary.	Total.
1896.....	52	26	32,974	3,921	36,895
1897.....	52	45	47,435	17,885	65,320
1898.....	52	35	47,334	16,604	64,938
1899.....	52	36	53,581	21,156	74,737
1900.....	(a)	29	55,064	13,915	68,979
1901.....	(a)	31	45,327	5,973	51,300
1902.....	(a)	30	50,754	7,998	58,752
1903.....	(a)	28	50,914	7,303	58,217
1904.....	(a)	27	45,069	94	45,163
1905.....	(a)	23	39,475	4,821	44,296
1906.....	(a)	23	42,393	5,017	47,410

* Not reported.

The number of situations secured in the different years must not, however, be compared without reference to the number of bureaux reported in the *Annuaire Statistique*, and this number seems to vary considerably.

The second French report on employment agencies says of the bureaux:

The municipal registries are generally open morning and evening. Their work is subsidized by the commune, which has established the registry. A single person, in most cases an employee of the mayor's office, is intrusted with the duty of carrying on this work, which, in some instances, consists exclusively in writing upon a board the applications for work and offers of employment received. When situations are filled the parties concerned are always notified; this is the reason why it has been found, in the case of many municipal bureaux, impossible to give complete statistics as to the results of their operations, although the bureaux do in fact undertake the work of finding situations for persons in want of employment. The persons who obtain situations through the agency of the municipal bureaux are generally domestic servants, clerks, etc.

From this review of the French employment bureaux it is seen that the private bureaux conducted for gain are by far the most numerous and find the most situations, though mainly for domestics and waiters, and that there is a distinct tendency to replace these by free municipal employment bureaux. Next to the commercial bureaux in the number of situations found, and first in finding situations for the artisan class, are the employment bureaux connected with the *bourses du travail*. The latter fact is true, probably, partly because these bureaux appeal most to the trade-union class and partly because, more than other French employment bureaux, they are connected in one system extending over the different portions of the Republic.

BELGIUM.

Belgian employment bureaux do not call for extended notice. A Ghent report of 1906, prefaced by Dr. Louis Varlez, the eminent Belgian authority on unemployment questions, laments the small results of the Belgian bureaux and strongly advocates the adoption of the German public bureau system.

There are, however, a few important public bureaux in Belgium, though there are several bureaux in Germany, each of which finds employment for more people than all the Belgian public employment bureaux taken together. The Ghent public employment bureau is one of the best. In 1894 it found places for 1,860 persons, and in 1904 for 1,848, which does not indicate growth, yet till 1905 it was the largest Belgian employment bureau. In that year the Antwerp bureau slightly surpassed that at Ghent.

Many Belgian employment bureaus have been established by associations, some philanthropic, some political, some organized by employers, some by employees, and some jointly by employers and employed. A number of them are in receipt of subventions granted by municipalities. In several cases employment bureaus have been established by the municipalities themselves. Antwerp was the first Belgian city to do this, and the result has been favorable, but not of large proportions.

The Antwerp bureau adopts the rule of sending workmen to situations in the order in which they apply at the office, a method which has been the subject of much criticism.

If a strike or a lockout takes place, the bureau suspends its operations in the trade affected until the close of the strike.

No charge is made for the services rendered by the bureau, except to persons not residing at Antwerp.

Workmen in want of employment do not wait at the bureau but at home, a postal card being sent to a man when a situation is found for him.

Notices are put up at the entrance to the bureau giving the particulars as to the situations offered and the workmen seeking employment, also copies of weekly reports on the same subject issued by the employment bureaus in Brussels, Liege, and other towns. Particulars as to the demands of employment and offers of work are also posted up in various public places throughout the city.

The following table shows the operations of the free employment bureaus of Belgium during November, 1907:

OPERATIONS OF FREE EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF BELGIUM DURING NOVEMBER, 1907.

[From *Revue du Travail*, December, 1907.]

Kind of bureau and city.	Applications for—				Situations filled.
	Situations.		Help.		
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	
Municipal:					
Alost.....	8	1	8	5
Antwerp.....	524	66	260	57	254
Mechlin.....	18	20	41	3	18
St. Nicolas.....	23	7	15	3	18
Schaerbeek.....	62	45	63	50	19
Subsidized by municipalities:					
Brussels.....	598	81	348	89	319
Ghent.....	207	29	197	47	195
Huy.....	6	5	3
Liege.....	321	48	131	27	100
Paturages.....	1	14	6	42	15
Other:					
Louvain.....	125	19	44	12	38
Brussels (Concordia).....	168	74	60
Ghent (chartered labor unions).....	30	14	20	10	25
Mechlin (Catholic workmen's club).....	17	23	13
Liege (Christian democratic union).....	101	35	60	24	88
Eecloo (Liberal labor exchange).....	15	7	13	9	31
Total.....	2,323	391	1,363	363	1,298

GERMANY.

In Germany employment bureaus are of many kinds. The most of these, because not particularly different from those in other countries, are only briefly noticed, in order to consider the more carefully the German public employment bureaus, which are of unique interest and a great success.

VARIOUS COMMERCIAL, TRADE UNION, AND OTHER EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.

These are of comparatively recent origin, and though rapidly coming to the front and already actually far in the lead in the number of situations they secure, they are yet in numbers relatively few. The appendix to the voluminous report concerning unemployment made to the Reichstag by the Labor Department of the Imperial German Statistical Office in 1906 gives the following statistics of the different kinds of employment bureaus in the Empire reporting to its statistical office:

NUMBER AND KIND OF EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS IN GERMANY AND TOTAL AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF SITUATIONS SECURED.

Kind of employment bureau.	Number.	Situations secured.	
		Total.	Average.
Guild.....	2,400	213,000	89
Trade union.....	1,000	120,000	120
Public.....	400	550,000	1,375
"Paritätische".....	60	51,000	850
Commercial.....	60	25,000	416
Employers.....	30	230,000	7,667
Agricultural chambers.....	11	50,000	4,545

It will be seen that the public bureaus, though only 400 in number, find by far the largest number of situations. They average 1,375 for each bureau, while all the other bureaus together average only 193 situations found.

It is true that the employers' bureaus average more situations found, but there are only 30 of those and they have but a limited sphere, being mainly bureaus maintained by associations of employers in a few industries as a means of combating the trade unions. The bureaus of the agricultural chambers also average more situations found, but these are still fewer in number, only 11 for the Empire, and all mainly found in East Prussia, where there is a constant scarcity of rural labor.

The so-called "guild" bureaus are the most numerous, but place the smallest number of persons, an average of only 89. The bureaus are often quite inactive but are maintained by law, somewhat as an inheritance from past conditions, in the hope of strengthening the small industries (*Handwerk*) against the large factory industries. The trade union bureaus, as their

name implies, are bureaus established by the trade unions to find employment for their members, and are largely, though not wholly, confined, each bureau to some especial trade. The "Paritätische" bureaus, as later explained, are bureaus often in connection with the public bureaus, and usually for special trades under the control of committees where employers and employees are equal in number (on a parity). They deserve considerable study. The commercial bureaus are mainly for clerks, travelers, etc.

It should be noted that the ordinary private bureaus conducted for profit, of which there are many in Germany, are not included in this list. Besides these there are also various special bureaus for particular classes of persons, for those released from prisons, reservists, cripples, etc., and also bureaus connected with particular institutions, like labor colonies, workingmen's shelters, etc., which will be considered under their respective heads, but some of which do an important work.

In Germany, as in other countries, some of the private bureaus for gain are much criticised. Registration fees are of course demanded by such bureaus, usually from both employers and domestics, ranging from 50 pfennigs (12 cents) to 2 marks (48 cents). Fees for providing situations are usually 25 per cent of the first month's wages, sometimes as high, approximately, as \$12, while those who pay more get the first chance. The bureaus are run usually with small regard to equity, simply for the profit that can be made, some of the large bureaus making about \$7,500 per year. Much of their work is absolutely fraudulent, sending girls here and there on hopeless errands, simply to extort a fee from the girls, who hope to find situations. It is said that at Munich, as much as 100,000 marks (\$23,800) annually is taken directly in fraudulent ways.

The bureaus are seriously condemned for lending themselves to the furtherance of immorality. It is for this reason in large part that Germany is turning to her public employment bureaus.

The only bureaus that at all successfully compete with the public bureaus are the trade union bureaus, although even these, which at first were loudly championed by the Social Democrats as against the public bureaus, are steadily going down before the public bureaus; in not a few instances, they are either being merged in the public bureaus or are turned over by the unions themselves to be managed, usually as Paritätische bureaus. In a number of cities the trade union bureaus are still very active, in connection with the great trade union headquarters and often are well organized, and conducted in a business way. They are influential and important out of proportion to their numbers. No one can visit the great trade union centers (*Arbeiterhaus*) of Berlin, Hamburg, and other large German

cities without realizing the importance of such centers. Some of the headquarters of the German trade unions are as well appointed and as thoroughly organized as many large American commercial institutions. English and American trade unions have generally no conception of the extent and efficiency of many of these German labor centers. As a result, indirectly and directly through their employment bureaus, these trade unions find employment for a considerable number of men. Apart, however, from this effectiveness the union bureaus do not present any unique points of interest.

PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.

As known in Germany, the public employment bureau means a bureau for finding work for men and women in any department of trade or occupation, usually without charge, or at the most for a nominal fee. The bureau is maintained by some public organization or committee and usually and increasingly maintained, or at least subsidized, by the municipality, the county, or the State. The bureaus are therefore not all municipal, though in most instances even when not municipal, they are so largely subsidized and strictly controlled by the municipality that the difference becomes small.

The municipal bureaus are more prevalent in southern Germany. Berlin's public bureau is maintained by a voluntary association, but receives a large subsidy from the city and is largely under municipal supervision. Some of the bureaus are controlled by associations composed of employers and employees equally, but are wholly supported and subsidized by the municipal authorities.

The history of the development of these bureaus is of great interest. The first employment bureau of this kind was begun in Stuttgart in 1865, by a workmen's improvement society. Meeting with success, other societies of various natures joined with the workmen's society and the bureau was maintained and managed by a committee of these societies. Still growing and succeeding, in 1895 it became the Stuttgart municipal employment bureau. It is still considered by many, at least in proportion to the size of the city, the best organized and most efficient public employment bureau of Germany. The example of Stuttgart was followed in Cologne by the establishment of a similar employment bureau in 1874, which in 1894 became the Cologne municipal employment bureau. Berlin moved in this direction in 1883, Hanover in 1889, Dusseldorf in 1890, Karlsruhe in 1891, and Freiburg in 1892. All these commenced in various ways, as public bureaus, but almost all of them later became municipal bureaus. Five such public or municipal bureaus were established in 1893, 8 in 1894, 23 in 1895, 12 in 1896, 8 in 1897, 9 in

1898, 9 in 1899, 11 in 1900, 5 in 1901, and 2 in 1902. By 1904 there were 136 such bureaus and in 1907 the number was reported as 400 in Germany, alone, without counting several in German Austria, Switzerland, and elsewhere. Not all of these, however, are active; only some 150 are of large importance.

Not a few of the public bureaus are as a matter of fact actually dead, though this is true mainly of the smaller bureaus.

In 1898 a voluntary association of such bureaus was established for the Empire, the *Verband Deutscher Arbeitsnachweis*. There are also subsidiary but even more important associations for northern, middle, and southern Germany. These associations maintain a monthly publication called *The Labor Market*. This organ serves to unite the different bureaus into one working system. It reports successful developments by one bureau which may be copied by others, and also the general condition of the labor market and the opportunities for employment to be found in different sections or portions of the Empire, and, to an extent, of Europe.

This reporting of opportunities for employment is, however, much more efficiently carried out by the subsidiary associations; the bureaus are closely knit together by telephones and other means of communication, so that each bureau receives information, usually daily, stating the needs for labor from all bureaus of the section, while the facts are posted in each local bureau. One of the most effective of these sectional unions is the *Mitteldeutsche Arbeitsnachweis Verband* with headquarters in Frankfort on the Main.

Bavaria has what is in many ways the best organized system of the Empire, because there is here a single organization covering the whole Kingdom, not merely, as elsewhere, federations of separate bureaus.

To Wurttemberg belongs the honor of organizing the first State system of employment bureaus. September 15, 1895, a decree of the Ministry of the Interior ordered the 16 public employment bureaus then organized in Wurttemberg to be connected in one system with Stuttgart as the central station and to report in a uniform manner twice a week (since 1898, three times a week, from March to November) all opportunities for employment which they were not able to fill. The list of these opportunities is then prepared and sent the same night to every place in Wurttemberg of over 2,000 inhabitants to be there posted by the authorities. The expenses, amounting to about \$2,500 per year, are met by the State treasury. The State railways grant to all workmen seeking work a 50 per cent reduction on third-class fare (making it about half a cent per mile), provided that orders for this are given the workmen by the employment bureaus. Stuttgart in 1904 gave out 1,900 such orders. The results have been most satisfactory.

OPERATIONS OF THE STUTTGART EMPLOYMENT BUREAU FOR THE YEARS
1896 AND 1904.

Year.	Applications for—		Situations secured.
	Help.	Situations.	
1896.....	19,737	21,394	13,112
1904.....	49,292	50,566	30,705

In 1904 the bureau was able to fill 74.3 per cent of the applications for help and 67 per cent of the applications for situations (in the woman's part 83.6 per cent). The operation of the system in the smaller towns is less satisfactory, but the State is planning to make it more effective and extensive.

Bavaria has followed in the main the same course as Wurttemberg, though in some ways improving upon the Wurttemberg system. The Bavarian Government as early as 1894 urged the establishing of communal employment bureaus and their union into one system. In 1895 the Munich labor bureau took up the plan in earnest, and there are now in Bavaria, organized in somewhat the same way as in Wurttemberg, 68 communal employment bureaus (the labor bureaus of the different communes), with the Munich bureau as the center of the whole, and seven subsidiary centers. The expenses are met by the local communes for their bureaus, the Government meeting only the interbureau expenses. It is widely thought in Bavaria that the Government must meet more of the expenses, because some of the local communes are not sufficiently active.

The Grand Duchy at Baden has a different system, and one which some think the best of all. Of her 13 public employment bureaus, only 5 are communal (or municipal), but they are all connected, as in Wurttemberg, with Karlsruhe as the center, and the State gives a considerable subsidy toward their support. In Baden the central bureau is also in connection with an unusually large number of subsidiary relief stations, so that the knowledge of situations is rapidly communicated over the whole State.

These are the principal States in Germany where the States have been active as States, but considerable public interest is taken in the public employment bureaus all over the Empire.

Great friendly rivalry exists among the bureaus. Conferences of managers and committees in charge of them are held from time to time.

One reason of the effectiveness of the bureaus and also the large interest taken in them is the weight and the character of the committees in charge of them. The most prominent men serve on these committees. The different bureaus are variously organized, but it is characteristic of all that the committees are ~~www~~

In Berlin, for example, besides the special trade committees, composed equally of employers and employees, there is a general committee in charge of the bureau made up of some of the foremost men in Berlin. Among the members may be found six city councilors; two aldermen; three members of the Advisory Council; two professors, one of whom is a member of the Royal Council; three judges in trade disputes; a member of the Prussian Supreme Council and of the Royal Statistical Bureau; a chief burgomaster emeritus; a councilor of the Admiralty and consulting counsel in the Imperial Marine Office; a director of the Statistical Bureau of Berlin; the Spanish consul-general; a director of the General Electric Company; the publisher of the Berlin Tageblatt; a member of the Privy Council and counsel in the Imperial Ministry of the Interior; a director in the Imperial Statistical Office.

The membership of the trade committee of the bureau is composed of the elected representatives of organizations of labor and of capital, as follows: Representatives of the employers: A manufacturer, a hat maker, a factory owner, city councilor, and treasurer, and a merchant. Representatives of the employees: A metal stamper, a molder, a printer, and a clerk.

The following is the composition of the committee in charge of the Frankfort bureau, made up of an equal number of representatives of labor and of capital: Employers: An agriculturist, a machine manufacturer, a tailor, a carpenter, a roofer, and a confectioner. Employees: A glazier, a mason, a tailor, a docker, a shoemaker, and a compositor.

The composition of the Cologne employment bureau is as follows: An architect, an alderman, a painter, a manufacturer, a shoemaker, saddler, carpenter, turner, president of the chamber of trade of Cologne, baker, butcher, and two restaurant keepers. All of the above represent the employing class and most of them are the official representatives of the organizations of their crafts. Besides these, however, there are on the committee an equal number of the representatives of labor, a carpenter (representing a Catholic trade union), a turner (representing a Protestant labor union), two labor secretaries of Catholic trade unions, a dry-goods clerk and member of the Catholic union, a carpenter, a trade-union official, a secretary of the Socialist party, a labor secretary, two waiters, a sculptor, and a secretary of a Christian trade union.

The above are perhaps representative organizations of the committees in charge of the larger German public employment bureaus, with the exception that Cologne, being a strongly Roman Catholic city, representatives of Catholic labor organizations are especially prominent on the committee. The bureaus are variously appointed in different cities in other ways. In Frankfort the burgomaster or mayor appoints the president of the committee, in Elberfeld

committee of the arbitration court manages the bureau, in Munich the president of the arbitration courts is also president of the bureau, in Nuremberg the bureau is under the superintendence of the advisory council of the city, in Breslau the head of the bureau is a member of the city council.

Perhaps the most important feature of the organization of the bureaus and of the composition of the committees in charge of them is that the bureaus are in almost all cases controlled by representatives of the employing and employed classes in equal numbers. As stated previously, this is considered so important that they have used or adapted the word "Paritätische" to express the idea, and so universally is this characteristic found that the "Paritätische bureau" is the term very frequently used to denominate a public employment bureau.

The Statistical Year Book of German Cities for 1907 gives the following table concerning the organization of many of the principal municipal employment bureaus in 1904:

ORGANIZATION OF PRINCIPAL MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF GERMANY, 1904.

City bureau.	Persons composing committee.			Presiding officer.	Members chosen by—			Term of service (years).
	City officials.	Employers.	Employees.		Municipality.	Trade court.	Both.	
Angsburg.....	1	4	4	Advisory councilor.....	Yes.			3
Bochum.....	(a)	(a)	(a)					(b)
Brunswick.....	1	4	4	President of trade court.....		Yes.		2
Breslau.....	1	7	7	City councilor.....	7	8	Yes.	3
Cassel.....	1	3	3	Advisory councilor.....		Yes.		6
Charlottenburg.....	5	5	5	Advisory councilor.....	10			6
Chemnitz.....	2	2	2	Advisory councilor.....	e 4			(b)
Crefeld.....	2	2	2	President of trade court.....	Yes.	e 4		2
Danzig.....	(a)	(a)	(a)	City councilor.....				(b)
Dortmund.....	1	4	2	City councilor.....	Yes.			2
Duisburg.....	1	4	4	Chief burgomaster.....	Yes.			(b)
Elberfeld.....		6	6	President of trade court.....		Yes.		3
Erfurt.....		3	3	Advisory councilor.....	Yes.			2
Essen.....	d 1	4	4	Chief burgomaster.....	(e)			6
Frankfort on the Main.....	1	6	6	City councilor.....	(f)			2
Frankfort on the Oder.....	1	3	3	Advisory councilor.....	2	4	Yes.	3
Freiburg.....	1	3	3	Burgomaster.....	Yes.			3
Konigsberg.....	1	8	7	Advisory councilor.....		Yes.		3
Magdeburg.....		5	5	Advisory councilor.....	4	6	Yes.	3
Mentz.....	3	4	4	Burgomaster.....	Yes.			(g)
Mulhausen.....	1	5	5	Burgomaster.....	Yes.			(h)
Munich.....	1	3	3	Advisory councilor.....	3	3	Yes.	3
Nuremberg.....	5	4	4	Advisory councilor.....	Yes.			3
Posen.....	(a)	(a)	(a)					(b)
Potsdam.....	2	3	3	City councilor.....		Yes.		4
Rixdorf.....	3	7	2	City councilor.....	Yes.			1
Schöneberg.....	1	3	3	City councilor.....	Yes.			2
Stettin.....	1	5	5	City councilor.....	4	6	Yes.	3
Strassburg.....	1	10	10	Official.....	11	(i)		5
Stuttgart.....	2	4	4	Communal councilor.....	Yes.			3
Würzburg.....	1	3	3	City assessor.....	3	3	Yes.	3

* City officials only.

^a Not reported.

^b The total of these figures does not agree with the total of persons composing the committee; the figures are given as shown in the Statistical Year Book of German Cities for 1907.

^c And 4 members who are neither employers

^d Named by city

^e Half the

These details of the organization of the managing committees of the bureaus are given because they show the extent to which employers and employees are equally represented on the committees. This is true, as will be seen from the above table, of 25 out of the 28 municipal bureaus not exclusively managed by the public authorities.

In many cities these "Paritätische" committees are chosen in part by the municipal governments, in part elected by organizations of employers, and in part by the trade unions or organizations of labor of some kind, so that they become not only representatives of their class, but official representatives elected by their class. Such bureaus, therefore, are really official and strictly representative, whether or not technically municipal. In most cases, however, they are technically municipal, or soon become so, even if originally privately founded. It is considered of prime importance that they be controlled and managed by representative committees in which labor and capital can have equal confidence. They are therefore absolutely and fundamentally democratic.

It is for this reason that, although the trade unionists of Germany commenced by opposing and usually bitterly denouncing the public employment bureaus, they now increasingly make use of them and have their representatives on the committees in charge of them. In many cases also the unions which formerly maintained employment bureaus of their own for their different crafts have handed over these bureaus to the public bureaus to be maintained as distinct portions of the public bureaus, usually as "Paritätische" trade branches of the public bureaus.

The bureaus undertake in general to find places for the unemployed of all classes, both men and women. Some of the smaller mainly find places for women. Generally speaking, in Germany the demand for women as workers is more than for men in proportion to the supply. The bureaus are, in all cases, divided into departments, which are quite distinct, at least for men and women, and in almost all cases also for the skilled and the unskilled, the common laborer and the artisan. Even the smallest of the bureaus have usually at least these distinct departments, while many of the large bureaus have a large number of departments, according to the various trades which are prominent in the city in which the bureau is situated.

In Berlin, for example, there are some 28 different departments of the bureau, 19 for men and 9 for women. In the division for men there is a department for the unskilled, (*a*) for the older men, and (*b*) for the younger; departments for painters, locksmiths, tinsmiths, bookbinders, paperhangers, leather workers, stucco and kalsomine workers, roofers, machinists, butchers, city employees, bakers, glaziers, woodworkers, elevator men, etc., with branch offices also at Rummelsburg and Reinickendorf.

The women's division is divided into departments for general workers, city employees, laundresses, undergarment workers, bookbinders, domestic servants, and juveniles, with branch offices at Rummelsburg and Reinickendorf.

The Berlin public employment bureau is the largest bureau in Germany, and no other bureau has so many departments, though some, like the Munich bureau, approximate to this. The list, however, indicates the extent to which the public employment bureaus reach or attempt to reach all classes of workers.

In all the bureaus there are separate offices or rooms for each department, even the smallest bureaus having at least a distinct room or office for men and women. The offices for the men and women have different entrances, although usually in the same building. Berlin has several buildings. Most of the bureaus, although all centrally situated and often occupying considerable space, are not as a rule in particularly attractive buildings. The employment bureau of Stuttgart, the oldest and in proportion to its size among the most successful, is housed in a very unpretentious and almost insignificant building. The employment bureau of Nuremberg occupies the site of the old municipal prisons, but the building in itself is not particularly attractive. Munich has a large rambling building, which occupies considerable space but is not of any architectural pretensions. The Frankfort bureau, among the oldest and most effective of all the bureaus, is centrally located but is in particularly cramped and unfortunate quarters. The reason for this is stated to be that when the Frankfort bureau was originally established it was vehemently and even bitterly denounced by the Socialists, who in Frankfort are particularly strong. When it was proposed in the city council to make an appropriation to secure offices for the bureau it was said by the opposition "why should we vote much money to create an institution for the workingmen which they themselves do not want, or even oppose." It was, therefore, necessary to commence with a very small appropriation, which limitation has not yet been wholly overcome. The bureau was located in an antiquated building, dark and poorly adapted to its purpose, and in that building it has remained. As the bureau has grown some improvements have been made and extensions are even now being carried on. In spite of this practical handicap the bureau has been so successful that opposition to it by the Socialists is steadily fading away and it is used by large numbers of workingmen.

In general, the bureaus may be said to consist of a room or rooms for the management and separate rooms for employees seeking work and for employers seeking help. The two classes practically never come together at the bureaus, with the exception of the departments

for women and for domestic servants. As a rule, indeed, the employers do not go to the employment bureaus at all. All the bureaus have telephones and the employers usually either write or telephone to the bureau concerning their needs, and the bureau sends them applicants whom they consider will best meet their needs. If the applicant is not satisfactory the bureau sends other applicants until the need is met. The statistics show the large success in meeting these needs. For the employees the bureaus usually have large waiting rooms, in some cases various waiting rooms for the different classes of workmen. Almost invariably, even in the smaller bureaus, there are separate waiting rooms for the skilled and unskilled, and in every case separate rooms for the men and women. In most cases there are some conveniences for the waiting applicants, usually opportunity to read papers, to smoke, sometimes to play games. Almost always there are tables where the men or women can eat luncheon which they have brought, and in not a few cases there is provided a simple buffet where cheap luncheons or at least beer or coffee can be obtained at very low and usually at cost price.

Following is a statement of the sales at the buffet of the Berlin employment bureau in 1906:

12,113 cups coffee with milk and sugar, at 5 pfennigs (1.2 cents).
15,361 cups milk, at 5 pfennigs (1.2 cents).
2,082 bottles weisbier, at 10 pfennigs (2.4 cents).
57,855 liters (61,135 quarts) lager beer, at 5 pfennigs (1.2 cents) for each 0.2 liter (0.21 quart).
42,072 portions of dry bread, at 2½ pfennigs (0.6 cent).
28,127 portions bread with butter, at 5 pfennigs (1.2 cents).
13,228 stullen (cakes) with butter, at 5 pfennigs (1.2 cents).
50,420 pieces sausage, at 10 pfennigs (2.4 cents).
20,244 cigars, at 5 pfennigs (1.2 cents).
5,285 cigars, at 3 for 10 pfennigs (2.4 cents).
38,420 cigarettes, at 1 pfennig (0.2 cent).
4,220 cups cocoa, at 5 pfennigs (1.2 cents).
1,753 bottles of seltzer water, at 5 pfennigs (1.2 cents).

When the bureau receives a call for workmen in some trade, the manager goes into the waiting room, calls out the nature of the occupation, and summons to the inner office those who consider themselves able to fill the situation, or at least a certain number of such. In the inner room he examines their papers, asks their experience, and tries to select the applicant or applicants most likely to meet the needs of the prospective employer. In a few bureaus the applicants are sent in the order of their application, although this is not the general rule. Usually it is left to the discretion of the manager to select the applicant according to his best judgment, and on the successful doing of this largely depends the success of the bureau. In all the bureaus when application for work is made the applicant is required to fill

out forms or at least to answer certain questions, as to his age, birth, residence, experience, qualifications, last place of occupation, reasons for being out of work, condition as to being married or single, having children or not, recommendations, etc. In some bureaus, notably the bureau at Berlin, the applicant is given a book which he has to sign and which he must bring every day to the bureau until he finds work. For this he makes a nominal payment or registration fee of 20 pfennigs (5 cents), which is considered by most an important part of the conduct of the bureau. Being nominal, the charge amounts to little and, it is claimed, tends to enhance the value of the bureau. Nevertheless, most of the bureaus are absolutely free.

One of the important characteristics of the bureaus is the economical and yet effective way in which they are conducted. Cologne employs 4 men and 2 women and Leipzig 3 men and 1 woman; yet with this small staff they each do successful work. The result is that the expense is small. In Cologne, in 1904, the expense was only about 8 cents for each of 28,200 positions filled and in Leipzig it was only about 11 cents for each of 20,344 positions filled.^(a)

The cost for each position secured naturally decreases with the growth of the bureau. For example, the cost for each situation found by the Frankfort bureau in 1896 was 1 mark 8 pfennigs (26 cents) for 10,475 places filled. By 1905 it had fallen to 55 pfennigs (13 cents) for 37,896 places filled.

The following statement is given of the budgets of the public employment bureaus of Cologne, Berlin, and Munich to show the nature of their income and expenses:

INCOME AND EXPENDITURES OF COLOGNE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU,
JULY 1, 1906, TO JUNE 30, 1907.

Income.		Expenditures.	
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount.
In treasury.....	\$170.89	Rent of offices.....	\$333.20
Appropriation from city.....	2,350.00	Heating and care of offices.....	91.85
Allowance from municipal building commission.....	112.03	Gas and electric lighting.....	37.12
Payment from city bureau for insurance against unemployment in winter.....	165.29	Supplies.....	28.99
Payment from city bureau of information of houses to rent.....	122.03	Periodicals.....	9.78
		Telephone.....	30.22
		Advertisements and notices.....	137.37
		Printing and binding.....	77.77
		Annual report.....	64.74
		Postage.....	24.59
		Traveling and miscellaneous expenses.....	18.23
		Sick and invalid insurance.....	38.12
		Salaries.....	1,908.37
		In treasury.....	149.89
Total.....	2,950.24	Total.....	2,950.24

^a See Réorganisation de la Bourse du Travail, by Louis Varlez. Ghent, 1906. pp. 23, 24.

ESTIMATED INCOME AND EXPENDITURES OF BERLIN PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU FOR 1908.

Income.		Expenditures.	
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount.
Annual contributions.....	\$1,785.00	Rent of offices.....	\$6,092.56
Subvention appropriation from city.....	14,280.00	Salaries.....	9,688.98
Registration fees.....	4,165.00	Payment for various services.....	690.68
Profits from canteen.....	1,663.00	Telephone.....	345.10
Interest on cash on hand.....	178.50	Printing.....	714.00
Appropriation from trade unions for trade union employment bureaus.....	708.05	Postage.....	142.50
Payment from suburban communes.....	95.20	Advertisements and notices.....	714.00
Subrentals.....	1,796.90	Heating.....	1,606.00
Fees from placing painters' assistants outside the city.....	342.80	Gas and water.....	190.40
Fees from bureau for domestics.....	476.00	Cleaning, including materials.....	833.00
		Window cleaning.....	154.70
		Repairs.....	154.70
		Workshops.....	142.80
		Sewerage.....	119.00
		Municipal and ground tax.....	547.40
		Sickness, insurance, and other incidentals.....	1,132.88
		For enlargement of bureau for domestics.....	1,071.00
		Extension of trade employment bureaus and other branches.....	303.45
Total.....	25,293.45	Total.....	25,293.45

INCOME AND EXPENDITURES OF MUNICH PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU, 1906.

Income.		Expenditures.	
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount.
Carried over from 1905.....	\$238.00	Salaries, wages, and insurance for staff and employees (8 men and 8 women).....	\$8,106.02
Appropriation from the Royal Ministry of the Interior.....	1,332.80	Cost of administration and office.....	1,028.78
Cost to the city.....	9,005.38	Furnishing.....	493.28
		Heating.....	287.74
		Lighting.....	151.75
		Cleaning.....	346.29
		Rent of branches.....	154.70
		Appropriation for agricultural exposition at Nuremberg.....	43.00
Total.....	10,576.18	Total.....	10,576.18

* The expenditures here shown are the equivalents of the amounts given in the original, where the total is 10 marks (\$2.38) less than the sum of the items; the discrepancy can not be located.

It will be seen in all these bureaus, and the rule is general throughout Germany, that while the expenditure is met primarily by the municipality or private association maintaining the bureau, they all receive public aid. Practically all the German States give aid to the bureaus, either directly to individual bureaus or to the different federations of the bureaus. Since 1902 the Imperial Government has given a grant (in 1903 of about \$14,600) to the General Federation of Employment Bureaus.

This State aid and public recognition has been a great asset and cause of growth, as is seen in the statistics of a few of the principal bureaus.

The following table, giving the number of positions secured for male persons from 1883 to 1906, shows the growth of the Berlin bureau and the extent to which it is being made use of by new trades and occupations. It will be seen from the table that some of the

trades, like those of the masons and shoemakers, have used the bureau and then for one reason or another have dropped out. On the whole, however, the steady growth of the bureau is apparent.

SITUATIONS SECURED FOR MALES BY THE BERLIN PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU (NOT INCLUDING BRANCHES), BY OCCUPATIONS, 1883-1893 TO 1906.

Occupations.	1883 to 1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.
Unskilled.....	64,532	6,975	9,382	11,318	12,693	14,533	19,976
Painters.....		1,583	3,655	4,630	5,354	5,476	6,712
Locksmiths.....			1,071	1,483	1,569	1,361	862
Tinsmiths.....			875	1,300	1,065	871	708
Agricultural laborers.....				73	104		
Masons.....			230				
Shoemakers.....				226	179		
Paper hangers.....							
City employes.....							
Bookbinders.....							
Leather workers.....							
Stucco workers.....							
Roofers.....							
Machinists and heaters.....							
Butchers.....							
Bakers.....							
Glaziers.....							
Wood workers.....							
Elevator tenders.....							
Apprentices.....							
Total.....	64,532	8,558	15,213	19,020	20,967	22,241	28,258

Occupations.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Unskilled.....	26,593	15,929	16,859	25,282	33,930	40,058	41,768
Painters.....	7,696	5,948	7,307	6,900	8,834	8,461	7,408
Locksmiths.....	1,455	1,342	1,757	2,456	3,122	3,368	2,460
Tinsmiths.....	715	618	681	592	808	1,007	1,007
Agricultural laborers.....							
Masons.....							
Shoemakers.....							
Paper hangers.....		691	1,631	2,171	2,279	2,584	2,866
City employes.....				2,144	1,803	2,153	1,695
Bookbinders.....				1,013	1,243	1,263	1,482
Leather workers.....				204	423	487	378
Stucco workers.....				451	1,292	1,319	1,008
Roofers.....				345	687	438	330
Machinists and heaters.....				170	701	702	522
Butchers.....				42	129	32	
Bakers.....					1,728	3,506	3,299
Glaziers.....					651	2,074	961
Wood workers.....						11,319	17,163
Elevator tenders.....						13	69
Apprentices.....							101
Total.....	36,499	24,328	28,235	41,770	57,630	78,844	82,557

The figures show, with occasional setbacks, a steady normal growth, and in recent years the constant adhesion of new trades. How great has been the recent growth is seen in the following table:

TOTAL APPLICATIONS FOR SITUATIONS AND FOR HELP, AND TOTAL SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE BERLIN PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU, 1902 TO 1906.

Year.	Applications for—		Situations secured.
	Situations.	Help.	
.....	42,829	37,935	30,534
.....	74,541	68,869	48,318
.....	99,874	90,439	67,917
.....	137,025	128,249	92,190
.....	156,817	134,474	99,557

For the three years, 1904 to 1906, the following table gives the facts in more detail:

APPLICATIONS FOR SITUATIONS AND FOR HELP AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE BERLIN PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU, BY SEX AND OCCUPATIONS, 1904 TO 1906.

Occupations.	Applications for situations.					
	Total.			Without fees.		
	1904.	1905.	1906.	1904.	1905.	1906.
MALES.						
General bureau for unskilled:						
Older men.....	37,902	44,587	46,135	6,928	8,038	8,305
Younger men.....	12,951	13,555	14,331	293	292	266
Painters.....	11,814	11,972	11,667	2,046	2,005	1,687
Locksmiths.....	5,167	5,169	4,119
Tinsmiths.....	1,540	1,642	1,854	47	74	87
Paper hangers.....	3,531	4,026	4,587	369	329	302
Bookbinders.....	2,671	2,615	2,859	2,453	2,439	2,681
Leather workers.....	604	737	542	438	561	480
Stucco workers.....	2,472	3,248	3,185	40	116	111
Roofers.....	1,540	676	534	25
Machinists.....	1,135	1,442	1,509	806	1,067	1,112
Butchers.....	449	92
City employees.....	1,247	709	330	1,247	709	330
Bakers.....	2,885	4,646	4,609	725	1,570	1,595
Glaziers.....	756	2,758	1,586	11	49	40
Wood workers.....	20,291	36,478	20,291	36,478
Elevator tenders.....	38	227
Rummelsburg branch.....	1,718	2,643	1,577	1,718	2,643	1,577
Reinickendorf branch.....	397	1,264	1,125	397	1,264	1,125
Apprentices.....	376	376
Total males.....	88,779	122,110	137,680	17,543	41,507	56,002
FEMALES.						
General bureau.....	6,479	9,494	12,863	672	1,741	2,813
Workers for city.....	36	15	6	36	15	6
Laundresses.....	1,103	1,593	1,759	487	939	1,146
Undergarment makers.....	40	89	76	3
Bureau for younger women.....	430	501	513	430	501	513
Bookbinders.....	2,873	2,443	2,738	2,444	2,015	2,336
Housemaids.....	612	1,047	612	1,047
Rummelsburg branch.....	111	123	125	111	123	125
Reinickendorf branch.....	23	45	19	23	45	19
Total females.....	11,095	14,915	19,137	4,203	5,994	8,005
Grand total.....	99,874	137,025	156,817	21,746	47,501	64,007
Per cent of gain over previous years:						
Males.....	31.0	37.6	12.8	42.6	137.1	36.4
Females.....	64.0	34.4	28.3	90.3	42.6	33.5
Total.....	34.0	37.2	14.4	50.0	121.2	36.0

APPLICATIONS FOR SITUATIONS AND FOR HELP AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE BERLIN PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU, BY SEX AND OCCUPATIONS, 1904 TO 1906—Concluded.

Occupations.	Applications for help.			Situations secured.		
	1904.	1905.	1906.	1904.	1905.	1906.
MALES.						
General bureau for unskilled:						
Older men.....	26,627	32,898	34,167	23,580	29,147	30,324
Younger men.....	13,814	16,343	15,688	10,350	10,911	11,444
Painters.....	15,362	16,742	12,178	8,834	8,461	7,408
Locksmiths.....	3,511	3,799	2,589	3,122	3,368	2,460
Tinsmiths.....	1,120	1,439	1,349	808	1,007	1,007
Paper hangers.....	3,633	3,935	3,824	2,279	2,584	2,866
Bookbinders.....	1,570	1,656	2,175	1,243	1,263	1,482
Leather workers.....	475	528	431	423	487	378
Stucco workers.....	1,500	1,571	1,185	1,292	1,319	1,008
Roofers.....	823	661	515	687	438	356
Machinists.....	882	839	781	701	702	562
Butchers.....	176	43	129	32
City employees.....	1,884	2,459	2,112	1,803	2,153	1,685
Bakers.....	1,752	3,614	3,337	1,728	3,566	3,299
Glaziers.....	800	2,398	1,108	651	2,074	961
Wood workers.....	17,046	25,610	11,319	17,163
Elevator tenders.....	32	134	13	69
Rummelsburg branch.....	1,175	1,640	1,179	891	1,217	972
Reinickendorf branch.....	324	1,142	1,082	228	786	846
Apprentices.....	272	101
Total males.....	75,428	108,785	109,716	58,749	80,847	84,375
FEMALES.						
General bureau.....	8,701	10,650	13,953	4,854	7,272	10,380
Workers for city.....	80	79	58	43	56	30
Laundresses.....	1,443	1,792	2,087	910	1,397	1,614
Undergarment makers.....	227	183	346	29	52	56
Bureau for younger women.....	1,045	769	886	280	330	356
Bookbinders.....	3,423	3,149	3,635	2,086	1,675	1,799
Housemaids.....	2,575	3,629	432	803
Rummelsburg branch.....	99	162	155	55	97	112
Reinickendorf branch.....	53	105	59	11	32	12
Total females.....	15,071	19,464	24,758	8,268	11,343	15,182
Grand total.....	90,499	128,249	134,474	67,017	92,190	99,557
Per cent of gain over previous years:						
Males.....	44.8	44.2	0.9	40.6	37.6	4.4
Females.....	75.0	29.1	27.2	70.6	37.2	33.8
Total.....	49.1	41.7	4.8	43.8	37.6	8.0

The Cologne bureau shows an equally steady growth.

APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE COLOGNE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU, BY SEX, 1894 TO 1907.

Year ending June 30—	Applications for—						Situations secured.		
	Help.			Situations.			Male.	Female.	Total.
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.			
1895 (a).....	3,663	1,790	5,453	6,509	1,541	8,050	3,477	880	4,357
1896.....	7,022	4,490	11,512	5,729	3,879	13,608	6,856	3,199	10,055
1897.....	8,115	7,445	15,560	11,118	4,625	15,743	7,823	4,301	12,124
1898.....	11,038	9,394	20,432	14,423	5,241	19,664	10,026	5,070	15,096
1899.....	13,019	10,812	23,831	17,821	6,065	22,886	12,156	5,944	18,100
1900.....	16,499	11,200	27,699	23,856	6,638	30,494	15,536	6,405	21,941
1901.....	15,146	11,345	26,491	25,633	7,371	33,004	14,693	7,030	21,723
1902.....	12,835	10,601	23,526	32,431	8,005	40,436	12,480	7,784	20,264
1903.....	18,818	10,735	29,553	37,235	8,356	45,591	18,102	7,805	25,907
1904.....	20,509	11,191	31,700	36,835	8,474	45,309	20,076	8,124	28,200
1905.....	32,915	37,087	8,614	45,701	20,863	8,212	29,075
1906.....	38	35,989	8,889	44,878	22,163	8,306	30,469
1907.....	32	35,929	7,847	43,776	21,805	7,359	29,164

^a From 1

er 17, 1894, to June 30, 1895.

For Frankfort the following table shows the record of the activities of the public employment bureau absolutely and in proportion to the population for the different years:

NUMBER AND COST OF SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE FRANKFORT PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU, 1895 TO 1905.

Year.	Population.	Situations secured.	Number of inhabitants to each situation secured.	Cost of situations secured.	
				Total.	Per situation.
1895.....	209,000	6,492	32.19		
1896.....	235,000	9,699	24.23	\$2,493.27	\$0.26
1897.....	242,000	12,455	19.43	2,645.04	.21
1898.....	250,000	15,297	16.34	3,028.94	.20
1899.....	256,000	18,655	13.72	3,323.89	.18
1900.....	266,000	20,881	12.74	3,817.43	.18
1901.....	280,000	22,072	12.69	3,783.48	.17
1902.....	302,000	25,352	11.91	3,869.01	.15
1903.....	309,000	29,216	10.58	4,172.83	.14
1904.....	318,000	34,050	9.34	4,624.78	.14
1905.....	336,000	37,896	8.87	4,937.64	.13

This shows not only a steady growth for the bureau, but a remarkable growth in situations secured in proportion to the growth of population.

Nor is it only the larger bureaus which have thus grown. The following shows the statistics for all the public bureaus in the Frankfort-Mainz circle of bureaus, including places large and small.

SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF THE FRANKFORT-MAINZ UNION, 1898 TO 1906.

Locality.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Frankfort on the Main.....	15,297	18,655	20,881	22,072	25,352	29,216	34,050	37,896	37,780
Mannheim.....			16,116	12,025	11,357	13,206	16,649	17,940	18,989
Wiesbaden.....	5,719	6,712	6,822	7,352	7,643	8,083	7,309	7,015	7,299
Mainz.....	3,647	5,242	5,980	5,456	5,549	5,774	7,591	8,905	8,638
Heidelberg.....					4,858	4,780	5,514	5,153	6,612
Darmstadt.....	2,336	2,413	2,363	2,259	2,292	2,988	3,646	3,548	3,787
Worms.....	1,426	1,975	1,738	2,075	3,211	3,607	3,613	3,248	3,767
Kreuznach.....		761	433	384	424	432	384	467	307
Offenbach.....	429	506	370	186	193	204	858	3,600	3,672
Giessen.....	197	104	80	76	396	616	539	556	634
Friedberg.....	146	153	216	220	200	208	250	327	479
Butzbach.....	62	47	78	98	50	41	23	29	32
Gr. Karben.....	87	72	66	187	108	147	72	157	172

The following shows the operations of the Munich public employment bureau:

APPLICATIONS FOR SITUATIONS AND FOR HELP AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE GENERAL DIVISION OF THE MUNICH PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAU (NOT INCLUDING TRADE DIVISIONS), BY SEX, 1895 TO 1906.^(a)

Year.	Applications for—						Situations secured.			Per cent of situations secured of applications for—					
	Situations.			Help.			Male.	Female.	Total.	Situations.			Help.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.				Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
1895 ^b	6,712	2,949	9,661	1,352	1,287	2,639	1,127	838	1,965	16.8	28.4	20.3	83.4	65.1	74.5
1896	32,355	14,653	47,008	16,725	13,332	30,057	15,653	9,933	25,586	48.3	67.8	54.4	93.6	74.5	85.1
1897	25,540	15,462	41,002	20,572	13,880	34,452	18,186	10,669	28,855	71.2	69.0	70.4	88.4	76.9	83.7
1898	36,151	18,843	54,994	23,393	15,598	38,991	20,439	11,897	32,336	56.5	63.1	58.8	87.4	76.3	82.9
1899	30,505	19,967	50,472	28,145	21,235	49,380	25,179	14,308	39,487	82.5	71.7	78.2	89.5	67.4	80.0
1900	30,788	23,569	54,357	28,919	25,479	54,398	26,366	18,142	44,508	85.6	77.0	81.9	91.1	71.2	81.8
1901	42,912	30,395	73,307	27,203	29,353	56,556	24,358	20,815	45,173	56.8	68.5	61.6	89.5	70.9	79.9
1902	39,634	28,807	68,441	25,094	27,525	52,619	21,171	19,342	40,513	53.4	67.1	59.2	84.4	70.3	77.0
1903	35,599	29,849	65,448	26,253	30,357	56,610	22,109	20,063	42,172	62.1	67.2	64.4	84.2	66.1	74.5
1904	34,558	31,200	65,758	30,179	33,909	64,088	25,680	21,142	46,822	74.3	67.8	71.2	85.1	62.3	76.2
1905	33,421	32,086	65,507	31,239	36,747	67,986	27,317	22,161	49,478	81.7	69.1	75.5	87.4	60.3	72.8
1906	35,674	32,418	68,092	34,348	37,642	71,990	29,658	24,015	53,673	83.1	74.1	78.8	86.3	63.8	74.6
Total.	383,849	280,198	664,047	293,422	286,344	579,766	257,233	193,325	450,558	67.0	69.0	67.9	87.7	67.5	77.7

^a Young girls just leaving school and applying for positions as general maids or nurse girls not included.

^b For November and December only.

This shows not only a remarkable growth, but also a large percentage of situations secured in proportion to those sought and offered.

Results for the whole of Bavaria are shown in the following table giving the operations of the Bavarian public employment bureaus from 1900 to 1906:

APPLICATIONS FOR SITUATIONS AND FOR HELP, AND SITUATIONS SECURED, THROUGH THE BAVARIAN PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS, BY SEX, 1900 TO 1906.

Year.	Applications for—						Situations secured.		
	Situations.			Help.			Male.	Female.	Total.
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.			
1900	73,059	32,549	105,608	61,620	40,056	101,676	48,579	23,906	72,482
1901	120,560	48,561	169,061	60,553	51,659	112,212	46,992	29,886	76,878
1902	113,378	48,419	161,797	63,478	54,279	117,757	49,126	31,261	80,387
1903	93,828	51,478	145,316	70,188	56,528	126,716	53,906	34,450	88,356
1904	95,248	55,062	148,310	84,462	63,410	147,872	64,447	37,069	101,516
1905	90,930	56,451	146,381	86,690	66,523	153,213	66,776	38,945	105,721
1906	102,846	56,676	159,522	101,180	70,555	171,735	73,904	41,630	117,534

Of the 57 communal bureaus, however, in Bavaria in 1906, only 52 were active.

The following tables show the activities of the different bureaus in 1906, first by localities and then for each month:

APPLICATIONS FOR SITUATIONS AND FOR HELP, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE BAVARIAN PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS, BY LOCALITIES, 1906.

Locality.	Applications for—						Situations secured.		
	Situations.			Help.			Males.	Fe-males.	Total.
	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.			
Amberg.....	19	1	20	119	10	129	15	15
Anspach.....	549	210	759	684	435	1,119	143	199
Aschaffenburg.....	54	54	83	83	51	51
Augsburg.....	7,250	4,265	11,515	7,375	5,330	12,705	6,943	2,520	9,463
Kissingen.....	20	18	38	43	33	76	13	3	16
Reichenhall.....	345	479	824	294	393	687	202	228	430
Bamberg.....	2,992	1,320	4,312	2,383	1,904	4,287	1,589	823	2,412
Bairreuth.....	723	819	1,542	1,071	1,274	2,345	493	474	967
Berchtesgaden.....	113	276	389	169	373	542	74	159	233
Deggendorf.....	30	20	50	84	33	117	25	11	36
Dinkelsbühl.....	18	18	48	48	18	18
Eichstädt.....	19	7	26	33	13	46	10	2	12
Erlangen.....	336	1	337	165	2	167	87	1	88
Frankenthal.....	324	1	325	426	1	427	324	1	325
Fürth.....	3,064	1,282	4,346	2,597	1,773	4,370	1,722	960	2,682
Gunzenhausen.....	34	25	59	103	49	152	29	20	49
Hof.....	281	11	292	479	17	496	143	1	144
Ingolstadt.....	777	313	1,090	1,109	344	1,453	573	206	779
Kaiserslautern.....	6,670	329	6,999	5,751	439	6,190	4,367	256	4,623
Kempten.....	2,452	447	2,899	3,322	878	4,200	2,042	299	2,341
Kitzingen.....	155	1	156	68	1	69	59	1	60
Kronach.....	114	24	138	167	60	227	98	23	121
Kulmbach.....	430	17	447	446	41	487	231	12	243
Landau.....	145	145	115	115	35	35
Landsberg.....	344	11	355	472	33	505	238	6	244
Landshut.....	2,146	498	2,644	1,791	632	2,423	756	192	948
Lindau.....	1,329	179	1,508	1,624	204	1,828	1,289	154	1,443
Ludwigshafen.....	7,676	1,254	8,930	4,444	1,359	5,803	3,375	688	4,063
Redwitz.....	9	1	10	17	7	24	3	1	4
Mühdorf.....	518	88	606	606	129	735	323	58	381
Münchberg.....	38	1	39	78	5	83	24	24
Munich.....	35,674	32,418	68,092	34,348	37,642	71,990	29,658	24,015	53,673
Neumarkt.....	139	36	175	295	57	352	119	26	145
Neustadt-an-der-Hardt.....	84	84	149	149	84	84
Nördlingen.....	296	296	518	518	135	135
Nürnberg.....	10,299	5,146	15,445	11,844	7,914	19,758	9,878	4,940	14,818
Passau.....	62	8	70	328	4	332	60	60
Ratisbon.....	2,612	1,639	4,251	2,948	1,926	4,874	1,734	1,000	2,734
Rosenheim.....	6,181	1,455	7,636	4,610	1,662	6,272	2,581	1,000	3,671
Rothenburg-an-der-Tauber.....	125	1	126	198	16	214	98	1	99
Schwabach.....	24	24	8	8	4	4
Schweinfurt.....	550	550	442	442	418	418
Speyer.....	612	612	332	332	276	276
Straubing.....	2,326	777	3,103	2,568	912	3,480	1,924	597	2,521
Sulzbach.....	12	3	15	62	2	64	10	2	12
Tirschenreuth.....	470	1	471	71	9	80	75	2	77
Traunstein.....	355	155	510	441	142	583	279	93	372
Wasserburg.....	709	456	1,165	561	665	1,226	400	287	687
Weiden.....	410	346	756	463	455	918	143	178	321
Weisenburg.....	117	117	262	12	274	108	108
Wunsiedel.....	11	11	16	2	18	11	11
Würzburg.....	2,804	2,337	5,141	4,550	3,363	7,913	2,615	2,244	4,859
Total.....	102,846	66,676	159,522	101,180	70,555	171,735	75,904	41,630	117,534

APPLICATIONS FOR SITUATIONS AND FOR HELP, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE BAVARIAN PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS, BY MONTHS, 1906.

Month.	Applications for—						Situations secured.		
	Situations.			Help.			Males.	Fe-males.	Total.
	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.			
January.....	7,151	4,698	11,849	5,744	5,907	11,651	4,524	3,270	7,794
February.....	7,462	4,180	11,642	6,370	5,237	11,607	5,125	2,993	8,118
March.....	8,322	5,129	13,451	8,586	7,058	15,644	5,957	3,796	9,753
April.....	8,545	4,657	13,202	9,448	6,453	15,901	6,318	3,445	9,763
May.....	9,811	5,175	14,986	10,291	6,664	16,955	7,359	3,741	11,100
June.....	8,090	4,467	12,557	8,766	6,426	15,192	6,061	3,484	9,545
July.....	9,911	4,603	14,514	9,908	5,731	15,639	7,165	3,398	10,565
August.....	9,667	4,551	14,218	10,071	6,370	16,441	7,432	3,522	10,954
September.....	9,323	5,776	15,299	10,181	7,421	17,602	7,458	4,421	11,879
October.....	9,789	6,149	15,938	9,521	5,796	15,317	7,568	4,265	11,833
November.....	7,571	4,203	11,774	6,147	3,945	10,092	5,362	2,938	8,300
December.....	7,004	3,088	10,092	6,147	3,547	9,694	5,575	2,327	7,902
Total.....	102,846	56,676	159,522	101,180	70,555	171,735	75,904	41,630	117,534

The large part played by these public employment bureaus in the whole Empire and in a few cities outside of Germany is seen by the following table of their activities in a single month. Owing to differences in methods of registration comparison as to number of applications for situations is not justified between one bureau and another. Some reports refer to persons applying and others to applications made, while all do not construe application in the same way. In some cases the number of recorded applications does not represent the total number of actual applications.

APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE PRINCIPAL PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE, BY CITIES, NOVEMBER, 1907.

City.	Kind of bureau.	Applications for—						Situations secured.		
		Help.			Situations.			Males.	Fe-males.	Total.
		Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.			
Memel.....	Municipal.....	19	77	96	29	81	110	19	59	78
Königsberg.....	Municipal.....	307	230	537	578	291	869	278	164	442
Danzig.....	Municipal.....	186	19	205	601	23	624	167	13	180
Graudenz.....	Municipal.....	55	55	117	117	32	32
Posen.....	Municipal.....	575	1,213	1,788	1,442	859	2,301	530	314	1,344
Breslau.....	Municipal.....	682	737	1,419	1,067	577	1,644	572	504	1,076
Gleiwitz.....	Municipal.....	7	2	9	15	1	16
Legnitz.....	Central.....	182	267	449	255	199	454	140	110	250
Glogau.....	Public.....	10	1	11	2	1	3	1	1	2
Hirschberg.....	Public.....	80	80	71	71	39	39
Görlitz.....	Domestic and farm.	127	350	477	193	106	299	78	90	174
Stettin.....	Municipal.....	161	95	256	182	83	265	142	57	199
Eberswalde.....	Municipal and county.	27	41	68	27	38	65	5	13	18
Frankfort on the Oder.	Municipal.....	439	123	562	436	61	497	325	49	374
Rixdorf near Berlin.	Municipal.....	152	60	212	543	77	620	151	55	206
Schöneberg near Berlin.	Municipal.....	216	578	794	659	548	1,207	217	495	712
Charlottenburg.....	Municipal.....	440	160	600	810	215	1,025	365	118	483
	Branch for women domestics.	628	628	569	569	266	266
Potsdam.....	Municipal.....	502	60	562	661	39	700	492	39	531
Brandenburg.....	Municipal.....	357	145	502	1,031	152	1,183	278	82	360

APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE PRINCIPAL PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE, BY CITIES, NOVEMBER, 1907—Continued.

City.	Kind of bureau.	Applications for—						Situations secured.		
		Help.			Situations.			Males.	Fe-males.	Total.
		Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.			
Luckenwalde.	Municipal.	213	108	321	219	82	301	164	72	236
Berlin.	Municipal.	5,726	2,039	7,765	10,910	2,380	13,290	5,250	1,478	6,728
Kiel.	Public.	1,070	138	1,208	1,903	160	2,063	791	76	867
Flensburg.	Public.	519	93	612	530	86	616	450	51	501
Husum.	Public.	302	37	339	206	30	236	146	5	151
Hamburg.	Association.	4,503	20	4,523	5,823	6	5,829	4,082	3	4,085
Magdeburg.	Municipal.	1,102	656	1,758	2,910	470	3,380	883	379	1,262
Halle on the Saale.	Association.	113	164	277	215	142	357	100	135	235
Weissenfels.	Municipal.	26	24	50	39	19	58	14	8	22
Aschersleben.	Municipal.	17	17	15	15	15	15
Quedlinburg.	Municipal.	654	654	476	476	304	304
Erfurt.	Public.	422	426	848	469	612	1,081	353	343	696
Mühlhausen in Thuringia.	Municipal.	28	28	94	94	27	27
Coburg.	Municipal.	70	4	74	70	6	76	21	1	22
Dresden.	Central.	931	2,222	3,153	1,283	2,146	3,429	905	2,089	2,994
Hildesheim.	Municipal.	115	115	219	219	72	72
Hanover.	Municipal.	872	124	996	2,263	142	2,405	680	58	738
Osnabrug.	Municipal.	171	71	242	781	111	892	176	26	202
Delmenhorst.	Municipal.	37	14	51	178	13	191	25	6	31
Paderborn.	Central.	250	54	304	181	28	209	113	10	123
Bielefeld.	Central.	503	60	563	1,039	79	1,118	390	31	421
Münster.	Association.	231	61	292	380	36	416	161	27	188
Hagen.	Municipal.	145	145	87	87	65	65
Dortmund.	Association.	1,453	100	1,643	2,396	193	2,589	956	129	1,085
Herford.	Association.	424	117	541	496	59	555	315	36	351
Siegen.	Municipal.	48	48	50	1	51	14	14
Essen on the Ruhr.	Municipal.	258	330	588	441	257	698	291	165	366
Elberfeld.	Municipal.	512	137	649	938	134	1,072	481	91	572
Barmen.	Public.	641	165	806	872	161	1,033	548	147	695
Solingen.	Guild.	223	13	236	454	15	469	183	6	189
Düsseldorf.	Public.	2,738	472	3,210	3,770	510	4,280	2,660	435	3,095
	Women's association.	105	105	251	251	81	81
Duisburg.	Municipal.	85	85	43	43	10	10
Rheidt.	Municipal.	124	108	232	38	11	49	47	16	63
Neuss.	Municipal.	42	25	67	49	16	65	31	13	44
Oberhausen.	Public.	7	7	82	82	10	10
Cologne.	Association.	1,350	640	1,990	2,572	580	3,152	1,265	518	2,783
München-Gladbach.	Municipal.	105	90	195	1,083	168	1,251	195	90	285
Bonn.	Municipal.	490	97	587	671	60	731	321	37	358
Aix-la-Chapelle.	Association.	132	41	173	562	57	619	106	26	132
Treves.	Municipal.	259	117	376	500	204	704	216	66	282
Coblenz.	Municipal.	78	41	119	299	25	324	69	10	88
Saint Johann.	Municipal.	137	21	158	604	27	631	56	7	63
Kreuznach.	Municipal.	174	174	291	291	125	125
Wiesbaden.	Association.	36	4	40	275	8	283	6	1	7
Frankfurt on the Main.	Municipal.	210	483	693	364	414	778	121	206	327
	Municipal.	1,446	1,237	2,683	3,365	1,569	4,934	1,316	1,111	2,427
Mainz.	Municipal.	480	305	785	1,059	415	1,474	339	194	533
Offenbach.	District.	198	5	203	500	8	508	172	3	175
Hanau.	Municipal.	27	27	86	86	19	19
Cassel.	Municipal.	654	1,057	1,094	403	1,557	508	251	759
Darmstadt.	Public.	221	140	361	667	148	815	147	79	226
Worms.	Municipal.	267	78	345	624	78	702	243	39	282
Kaiserslautern.	Municipal.	458	36	494	546	28	575	380	24	404
Ludwigshafen.	Municipal.	183	110	293	420	119	539	169	75	244
Metz.	Municipal.	634	101	735	519	120	639	264	37	301
Strassburg.	Municipal.	1,356	374	1,730	2,156	536	2,692	1,062	206	1,268
Colmar in Alsace.	Municipal.	270	95	365	401	145	546	189	83	272
Mülhausen in Alsace.	Municipal.	931	371	1,302	1,294	535	1,829	624	226	850
GRAND DUCHY OF BADEN.										
Heidelberg.	Public.	374	41	415	1,166	61	1,227	310	27	337
Lahr.	Public.	129	45	174	232	35	267	101	34	135
Freiburg.	Public.	918	573	1,491	1,821	765	2,586	734	401	1,135
Schopfheim.	Public.	26	23	49	337	21	358	19	9	28
Lorrach.	Public.	177	58	235	537	52	589	141	32	173
Mülheim.	Public.	76	37	113	451	25	476	49	13	61
Karlsruhe.	Public.	628	166	794	2,024	257	2,281	409	70	479
Bruchsal.	Municipal.	165	102	267	463	54	517	127	41	168
Offenburg.	Public.	157	27	184	388	19	407	117	5	122
Constance.	Public.	341	167	508	869	186	1,055	279	133	412

APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE PRINCIPAL PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE, BY CITIES, NOVEMBER, 1907—Concluded.

City.	Kind of bureau.	Applications for—						Situations secured.		
		Help.			Situations.			Males.	Fe-males.	Total.
		Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.			
Pforzheim.....	Public.....	1,395	817	2,212	1,998	699	2,697	869	434	1,303
Ludwigsburg.....	Municipal.....	200	89	289	535	76	611	151	54	205
Esslingen.....	Municipal.....	247	26	273	747	35	782	163	10	173
Tübingen.....	Municipal.....	27	27	50	50	2	52	7	2	9
Reutlingen.....	Municipal.....	66	82	148	153	55	208	24	32	56
Göppingen.....	Municipal.....	45	45	134	134	31	31
Heidenheim.....	Municipal.....	89	89	58	3	61	17	17
Gmünd.....	Municipal.....	42	63	105	123	60	189	77	48
Heilbronn.....	Municipal.....	329	46	375	916	65	981	283	28	309
Ravensburg.....	Municipal.....	267	37	304	332	18	350	137	7	144
Ulm.....	Municipal.....	602	344	946	663	290	956	280	105	385
Schwainfurt.....	Municipal.....	24	24	32	32	22	22
Würzburg.....	Municipal.....	263	334	597	150	217	367	150	175	325
Bamberg.....	Municipal.....	196	110	306	365	89	454	145	52	197
Fürth.....	Municipal.....	145	123	268	315	102	417	121	75	196
Nuremberg.....	Municipal.....	852	401	1,253	822	381	1,203	814	353	1,167
Ansbach.....	Municipal.....	275	237	512	226	241	467	222	159	372
Ratisbon.....	Municipal.....	223	178	401	218	141	359	169	127	296
Straubing.....	Municipal.....	232	118	350	204	110	314	124	56	180
Munich.....	Municipal.....	2,802	2,328	5,130	3,088	2,793	5,881	2,510	1,973	4,483
Brunswick.....	Municipal.....	133	13	146	160	30	190	98	6	104
OUTSIDE OF GERMANY.										
Vienna.....	Municipal.....	4,604	6,932	11,536	5,360	9,029	14,389	4,326	6,770	11,096
Brno.....	Municipal.....	177	69	246	202	80	282	164	66	230
Graz.....	Association.....	259	156	415	413	208	621	259	148	407
Budapest.....	Municipal.....	6,179	542	6,721	9,099	1,280	10,379	2,265	253	2,518
Bern.....	Municipal.....	668	454	1,122	879	417	1,296	445	260	705
Zurich.....	Municipal.....	601	186	787	1,040	183	1,223	552	109	661
Rorschach.....	Municipal.....	154	62	216	273	43	316	92	24	116
Copenhagen.....	Communal.....	1,108	1,676	2,784	3,000	2,161	5,161	1,453	1,608	3,061

While the above table gives statistics for a very much larger number of bureaus, Mr. W. H. Beveridge, in an article in the *Economic Journal* for March, 1908, gives for a few of the more important of these public bureaus the following tables, which show the work they are accomplishing:

SITUATIONS FILLED BY PRINCIPAL PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF GERMANY, 1906 OR 1906-7.

[From article by W. H. Beveridge on Public Labor Exchanges in Germany, Economic Journal, March, 1908, p. 3.]

City.	Population (1905). ^(e)	Kind of bureau and date of establishment.	Situations filled in 1906 or 1906-7.		
			Males.	Females.	Total.
Berlin.....	2,040,000	Voluntary association (1883) with municipal subsidy since 1893.	680,847	611,343	1,292,190
Stuttgart...	240,000	Municipal (1895).....	37,893	18,427	56,320
Munich.....	539,000	Municipal (1895).....	29,658	24,015	53,673
Frankfort...	335,000	Municipal (1895).....	22,285	15,701	37,986
Dresden.....	517,000	Voluntary association.....	11,248	22,893	34,141
Cologne.....	429,000	Representative association, with all expenditure met by municipality (1894).	21,805	7,359	29,164
Dusseldorf..	253,000	Representative association, with all expenditure met by municipality since 1905. Formerly voluntary association (1896).	25,862	2,844	28,706
Leipzig.....	504,000	Voluntary association, with municipal subsidy.....	9,945	16,425	26,370
Mannheim...	164,000	Municipal since 1905. Formerly voluntary association (1893).	(d)	(d)	19,925
Freiburg....	74,000	Municipal since 1897. Formerly voluntary association, with municipal subsidy (1892).	11,268	6,433	17,701
Strassburg..	168,000	Municipal (1895).....	12,171	3,293	15,464
Nuremberg..	294,000	Municipal (1896).....	9,878	4,940	14,818

^a The figures in this column can be taken only as a very rough indication of the population actually dealt with by each bureau.

^b Figures for 1905.

^c Figures for 1905-6. The total does not agree with the sum of the items, but the figures are given as shown in the official report for Frankfort on the Main.

^d Not separately reported.

SITUATIONS FILLED BY PRINCIPAL PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF GERMANY, AND PER CENT OF APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, FOR EACH SEX, 1896, 1901, AND 1906.

[From article by W. H. Beveridge on Public Labor Exchanges in Germany, Economic Journal, March, 1908, p. 9.]

MALES.

City.	1896.			1901.			1906.		
	Situations filled.	Per cent of situations filled of—		Situations filled.	Per cent of situations filled of—		Situations filled.	Per cent of situations filled of—	
		Applications for help.	Applications for situations. ^a		Applications for help.	Applications for situations. ^a		Applications for help.	Applications for situations. ^a
Berlin.....	19,030	97.8	77.5	24,528	93.7	66.5	680,847	74.3	(c)
Stuttgart.....	10,474	73.3	59.3	12,900	75.4	48.7	37,893	84.1	72.5
Munich.....	15,653	93.5	49.1	24,358	89.5	50.8	29,658	86.3	83.1
Frankfort.....	9,145	(c)	(c)	16,149	(c)	(c)	22,285	82.8	42.4
Cologne.....	7,823	96.4	70.4	12,480	97.2	38.5	21,805	95.3	60.7
Dusseldorf..	1,201	(c)	(c)	(c)	(c)	(c)	25,862	94.0	68.9
Freiburg.....	4,974	86.3	45.5	6,014	77.2	40.1	11,268	74.3	50.1
Strassburg..	922	(c)	(c)	1,494	(c)	(c)	12,171	64.0	53.4
Nuremberg..	4,818	61.6	37.6	4,940	90.3	32.5	9,878	82.9	55.4

^a Owing to differences in methods of registration figures in this column do not justify comparison between one bureau and another; they can be used only to compare activities of the same bureau in different years. The Cologne and Freiburg reports refer to persons applying, the others to applications made, but do not all construe "application" in the same way. In Munich, at least, the recorded applications by no means represent all the actual applications.

^b Figures for 1905.

^c Not reported.

^d Figures for 1905-6.

^e Figures for 1904-5.

^f Figures for 1895.

SITUATIONS FILLED BY PRINCIPAL PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF GERMANY, AND PER CENT OF APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, FOR EACH SEX, 1896, 1901, and 1906—Concluded.

FEMALES.

City.	1896.	1901.	1906.		
	Situations filled.	Situations filled.	Situations filled.	Per cent of situations filled of—	
				Applications for help.	Applications for situations. ^a
Berlin.....	1,662	2,072	^b 11,343	^b 58.3	(^c)
Stuttgart.....	2,638	3,843	18,427	68.1	92.0
Munich.....	9,933	20,815	24,015	63.7	74.1
Frankfort.....	534	5,913	^d 15,701	^e 74.4	^e 82.5
Cologne.....	4,301	7,784	7,359	66.0	93.8
Dusseldorf.....	117	(^c)	2,844	72.3	71.4
Freiburg.....	1,892	2,935	6,433	67.4	72.4
Strassburg.....	1,004	1,040	3,293	51.3	48.2
Nuremberg.....	142	3,193	4,940	61.2	95.2

^a Owing to differences in methods of registration figures in this column do not justify comparison between one bureau and another; they can be used only to compare activities of the same bureau in different years. The Cologne and Freiburg reports refer to persons applying, the others to applications made, but do not all construe "application" in the same way. In Munich, at least, the recorded applications by no means represent all the actual applications.

^b Figures for 1905.

^c Not reported.

^d Figures for 1905-6.

^e Figures for 1904-5.

^f Figures for 1895.

These figures show how far the bureaus have met a real need and have served the public, and, in spite of early opposition and criticism (still continued in part by the Socialists), how they have made their way into the confidence of employers and employees.

As already stated, the first attitude of the trade unions to these public bureaus was one of strenuous opposition. As late as 1896 the General Trade Union Congress in Berlin voted that labor employment bureaus should be conducted by organized labor alone. Two years later, however, at the Frankfort congress of 1898, the use of the public bureaus was advised under certain conditions.

According to a translation by D. F. Schloss, in his Report on the Agencies and Methods for Dealing with Unemployed in Certain Foreign Countries (pages 83-85), the Sozialdemokratische Reichstags-Handbuch expressed this as follows:

The object of the labor organizations of the trade unions was, at first, to keep the provision of labor as much as possible in their own hands. Its organization by the commune, or by any public authority, was opposed on principle.

This position has been gradually given up, because for large masses of workmen the trade union employment bureau remained ineffective, and more than all because the employers converted the supply of labor into a monopoly, and the question presented itself whether the best means of combating the employer's registry was not the "jointly controlled" or communal bureau, as it might be more easily established in view of the movement in its favor.

It is probable that the trade-unions
their fear of the employers'

a greater degree by the ill effects which they apprehended to be the results of the want of any system at all ("Umschau").

The workman was the first to establish labor registries in the defense of his own interests. The masters followed, and this movement is of quite recent date. A conference of employers at Leipzig in 1898 showed very clearly the objects they had in view in the establishment of bureaus of registration on their own account. This was the control over the laborer and the use of rejection as a means of punishment in case of agitation for higher wages or shorter hours. The registry was to serve partly, at any rate, as a means of repression and as a weapon in the struggle against the Social Democrats.

The promoters of the public, or impartial, bureau had therefore, in view of the extent and number of the skilled labor registries, whether trade-unionist or employers' organizations, to settle the question of their attitude to the latter. The opposition between the two is obvious in many respects. The management of the public registry is impartial, and its head, being an official, is not afraid of being removed if he offends a party interest. The public registry is free, i. e., in the main supported by the town or the State. The special registry must be paid for by the special interest it serves. The task of the public bureau is more difficult, where many trades are concerned and where applicants are not known to the officials in charge. The most important point of difference, however, is the attitude to be observed in case of strikes or lockouts.

The practice of the public labor bureaus in this respect is varied. The "strike clause," i. e., the rule that a bureau shall, in case of a strike, not be used by either side, is not in force at either Stuttgart or Frankfort, which seems to be a proof by itself that it is unnecessary. In Berlin it was decided that the "trade court" should be referred to and that the side against which it gave its judgment should be refused the services of the bureau. The objection to this is that it calls unnecessary attention to the strike. Difficulties, of course, must arise, but a labor bureau should continue its activity, and it is far easier for it to do so when it is managed by a joint committee of masters and men. The principle of joint control is therefore considered to be the main safeguard.

Of this principle the labor bureau of the Berlin breweries is a striking example. This bureau is unconnected with the central labor bureau in Berlin except in the fact that it communicates its statistics to that institution. After a series of unsuccessful attempts the present bureau was established in 1894 on the understanding that masters and men should equally participate in its management. The managing committee consists of four employers and four labor representatives, with an impartial president, who is at the present time also the president of the general federation of German labor bureaus. All workmen employed in the breweries in any capacity, including the mechanics and drivers, are subject to the rules of the bureau, and must obtain their places through its mediation. A workman must wait his turn before he is placed, i. e., on registration he gets a number, and must then wait till all the numbers on the list prior to his own have been satisfied. The employer, however, can reject any man who does not suit him, and the workmen have the same right of refusing a place offered.

It is understood that the employer must not take political reasons into consideration in rejecting a workman, and any dispute on such a point is decided by the joint committee. The employers are allowed to engage a certain small number of men without the intervention of the bureau, but in this case they must pay a small fee, which, as a matter of fact, is devoted to out-of-work support. Thus in the years 1895 to 1899 15,417 situations were filled by the bureau and only 1,884 were engaged without its help.

The Berlin breweries have thus successfully introduced the principle of joint control in an independent labor bureau, and the plan works so well that there is no reason for connecting the bureau with the Berlin central labor office, except, as already mentioned, for statistical purposes. The system of joint control has also been introduced in Berlin in a number of skilled labor registries, which are more closely connected with the central office.

More recent experience is still more valuable. In regard to the vexed question of the position to be taken by a public employment bureau in times of strikes and lockouts, the experience of Germany is most significant.

This has been the question perhaps most hotly discussed between the friends and opponents of the bureaus and even between varying friends of the bureaus themselves. It was at first demanded by the trade unionists generally that in case of a strike the bureau should refuse to send workmen to the establishment where the strike was in progress until it was officially declared off by the striking union or unions. It was demanded on the other hand by the employers that the bureaus should by their regulations be prevented from taking any official notice whatsoever of a strike or lockout, and so be compelled to supply establishments where there was a strike, just as when there was no strike. Other ways of treating the problem were tried, but one course has in practice been accepted and at present both employees and employers are almost unanimous in support of it. In Stuttgart, at the first even the trade unionists agreed that the bureau should not recognize a strike, and should supply workmen to establishments when there was a strike; and in Berlin this was made a stated regulation of the bureau at the demand of many employers, who said that otherwise they would not patronize it, but in Cologne the opposite course was taken upon a similar threat by the trade unions, and it was made a regulation that the bureau should supply workmen to no establishment where there was a strike until the strike was officially declared off. Most of the bureaus attempted to dodge the question by having no regulation concerning the matter. By 1905 the trade unionists at Cologne desired the removal of the clause forbidding the bureau to supply workmen to establishments where there was a strike, because the mere refusal to send workmen to an establishment showed that there was a strike there, and therefore notified any nonunionists who chose to take advantage of the strike they could go and obtain

positions there in spite of the bureau, while the bureau, by seeming to take sides with the employees, offended many of the employers, and thus hurt its influence, and this prevented its finding as many situations for men as otherwise it would. In Berlin the employers asked also in 1905 for the removal of the clause compelling the bureau to supply workmen to establishments where there was a strike, because they found it did them no good. Any workmen who might desire to replace the strikers could be secured without the aid of the bureau by a simple notification that there was a strike, while union men who were there through misunderstanding and not knowing there was a strike, left as soon as they found out the real situation. The employers gained nothing by the regulation, while the employees were so antagonized that the best workmen, in many cases, would not use the bureau, and the employers lost thereby. On the other hand, for the bureaus, through a committee or in other ways, to undertake to decide as to the merits of a strike—as some bureaus did undertake to do—meant endless difficulties and disputes, while the question continually came up as to what constituted a strike, or what was a lockout. The upshot of the matter was that in all the German cities employers and employees are agreed, with few exceptions, that the bureaus should take no notice of a strike, but simply allow each side to post up notice in the bureau that there is a strike in a certain establishment and then let each workman act as he sees fit. This accomplishes all that the employees desire, and keeps away from the establishment all union men, and yet allows the employers to get any workmen who choose to take advantage of the situation. It throws the burden of responsibility not on the bureau but on the men.

Another and interesting point in regard to these bureaus is the special efforts they have made as to agricultural laborers. In Germany, as in other countries, great difficulty is found in inducing workmen who have once settled in the cities to return to the country. The remarkable development of industry in Germany has built up the city at the expense of the country districts even more than in most countries. German agriculturists and the landed interests claimed that the employment bureaus aggravated the evil. This question was discussed at the congress of the federation of the bureaus at Munich in 1898, and since then great efforts have been made to remedy the defect. By 1900 it was reported that from 10,000 to 12,000 laborers had been placed on the land by the bureaus in different portions of the Empire. By 1902 the figures were 16,000. Since then there has been more growth. Different methods are followed by different bureaus. Some bureaus have especial departments

for agricultural laborers. Some bureaus have been established directly for agricultural laborers, usually by the chambers of agriculture. In other cases, as in Silesia and Sleswick-Holstein, the chambers of agriculture work with and help support agricultural departments of city bureaus. In Bavaria, as stated above, there being an organized network of employment bureaus for the whole Kingdom, it is able especially to meet the agricultural need. The following table shows the operations of the Bavarian agricultural employment bureaus:

APPLICATIONS FOR SITUATIONS AND FOR HELP AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE BAVARIAN AGRICULTURAL EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS, 1905 AND 1906.

Year.	Applications for—						Situations secured.		
	Situations.			Help.			Male.	Fe-male.	Total.
	Male.	Fe-male.	Total.	Male.	Fe-male.	Total.			
1905.....	8,199	1,665	9,864	8,479	2,905	11,384	6,314	1,404	7,718
1906.....	9,258	1,201	10,459	10,062	2,815	13,777	7,392	1,058	8,450

Another matter of interest is that several of the bureaus make a special feature of finding situations for boys and girls upon leaving school.

AUSTRIA.

The Austrian Empire in many of its Provinces has been very active in the establishment of public and other employment bureaus, but the results are difficult to analyze and tabulate because of the unusual variety of methods adopted for their organization in different portions of the Empire. Few countries in the world have so many languages, such varied forms of provincial government and especially of local government, as has the Austrian Empire. This complicates all statistics.

VARIOUS CLASSES OF EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.

There are at least six principal classes of employment bureaus and many variations in each class. In portions of the Empire the old trade guilds or their modern trade successors play a large part. Trade union bureaus are not so important, because trade unionism has not yet been strongly developed except perhaps in Vienna. Roman Catholic associations of various kinds have shown considerable activity in securing situations, but charitable organizations apart from these do little. By far the most successful bureaus are the va-

Arious public bureaus, mainly on the German plan, and largely municipal or provincial. A large work is also done in securing situations by the relief shelters (*Verpflegungsstationen*), also copied from Germany, but which have largely spread through Austria, beginning as early as 1887.

The relative numbers and activities of the bureaus of the different kinds can be seen by the following quotations from the Austrian Report on the Securing of Work in 1906 (*Ergebnisse der Arbeitsvermittlung in Oesterreich im Jahre 1906*):

EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF EACH KIND IN AUSTRIA, 1905 AND 1906.

Kind of bureau.	1905.	1906.
Public.....	611	768
Guild or employers' unions.....	311	458
Trade union.....	260	498
Other organizations.....	334	448
Charitable organizations.....	72	82
Commercial.....	532	492
Relief stations.....	7,828	7,563
Total.....	9,950	10,309

The same official publication reports the activities of these bureaus as follows:

APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS OF EACH KIND, AND PER CENT OF SITUATIONS SECURED OF APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, IN AUSTRIA, 1905 AND 1906.

Kind of bureau.	Year.	Applications for—		Situations secured.	Per cent of situations secured of applications for—	
		Help.	Situations.		Help.	Situations.
Public.....	1905	273,250	333,708	209,065	76.51	62.65
	1906	349,209	371,553	248,624	71.20	66.91
Guild or employers' unions.....	1905	35,560	42,277	30,377	85.42	71.15
	1906	43,257	47,431	36,555	84.51	77.07
Trade union.....	1905	16,498	29,651	13,815	83.74	46.59
	1906	28,579	46,321	23,296	81.51	50.29
Other organizations.....	1905	29,581	48,650	17,809	60.20	36.61
	1906	41,925	41,179	25,701	61.30	62.41
Charitable organizations.....	1905	9,970	6,339	5,087	51.02	80.25
	1906	12,485	6,990	5,411	43.34	77.74
Commercial and domestic.....	1905	51,006	40,794	31,003	60.78	76.00
	1906	47,458	36,181	27,899	58.79	77.11
Total.....	1905	415,865	501,409	307,156	73.86	61.26
	1906	522,913	549,625	367,486	70.28	66.16

During 1906 situations were secured through the various kinds of employment bureaus throughout the Empire as follows:

SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS IN AUSTRIA DURING 1906, BY LOCALITY AND KIND OF BUREAU.

Province.	Situations secured through each kind of bureau.							Total.
	Public.	Guild or employers' unions.	Trade unions.	Other organizations.	Charitable organizations.	Commercial and domestic.	Relief stations.	
Lower Austria (a) . . .	152,370	26,601	19,571	17,169	1,823	16,440	7,510	241,484
Upper Austria . . .		499	166	1,357	581		2,409	4,982
Salzburg . . .		248	195					443
Styria . . .	4,745	4,182	82	157	167		3,900	13,302
Carinthia . . .		272	21					293
Carniola . . .	1,601		1			303		1,905
Coastland . . .			155					155
Dalmatia . . .			17					17
Tyrol . . .	2,473	889	79					3,441
Bohemia (b) . . .	76,180	1,049	2,518	5,676	1,661	11,156	24,657	122,897
Moravia . . .	3,561	2,845	267	1,174	519		2,489	10,855
Silesia . . .	2,711		29	14			387	3,141
Galicja . . .	4,983		156	154	660			5,953
Bukowina . . .			39					39
Total . . .	248,624	36,555	23,296	25,701	5,411	27,899	41,421	408,907

^a Included in the figures for Lower Austria there were for Vienna alone 232,937 situations secured: 151,333 through public bureaus; 26,601 through guilds or employers' unions; 19,571 through trade unions; 17,169 through other associations; 1,823 through charitable organizations, and 16,440 through commercial organizations.

^b Included in the figures for Bohemia there were for Prague alone 43,886 situations secured: 24,305 through public bureaus; 2,123 through trade unions; 4,635 through other organizations; 1,661 through charitable organizations, and 11,156 through commercial organizations.

The total number of applications for help and for situations by men, women, and apprentices, and the number of situations secured, with per cent of each class, is shown as follows:

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED BY MEN, WOMEN, AND APPRENTICES, THROUGH THE AUSTRIAN EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS, 1906.

Classification of workers.	Applications for—				Situations secured.	
	Help.		Situations.			
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Men . . .	232,381	44.44	269,908	49.11	175,919	47.87
Women . . .	268,609	51.37	244,276	44.44	181,552	49.40
Apprentices . . .	21,923	4.19	35,441	6.45	10,015	2.73
Total . . .	522,913	100.00	549,625	100.00	367,486	100.00

Of the total number of situations secured the following percentages were procured by the various classes of bureaus:

PER CENT OF MEN, WOMEN, AND APPRENTICE WORKERS SECURED BY THE VARIOUS KINDS OF EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS IN AUSTRIA, 1906.

Kind of bureau.	Per cent of situations secured for—		
	Men.	Women.	Apprentices.
Public.....	49.44	72.42	78.35
Guild or employers' unions.....	12.99	4.33	11.34
Trade unions.....	10.38	.80	.37
Other organizations.....	9.10	3.11	7.42
Charitable organizations.....		2.86	
Commercial and domestic.....	2.10	12.42	.08
Relief stations.....	15.99	4.06	2.44
Total.....	100.00	100.00	100.00

PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.

The most important of Austrian employment bureaus are, as in Germany, the public bureaus. In 1903 there were five of these bureaus reported by the Austrian official *Soziale Rundschau*. The Vienna bureau was the first, established in 1885, to assist working people in finding work, especially for those employed in factories and in industries in which no guild existed. This is the general nature of the Austrian bureaus of this class. The Brunn and Prague bureaus are the most important next to the Vienna bureau.

Several of the employment bureaus have now become, as in Germany, municipal (or provincial) bureaus. The first of the provincial bureaus was established at Pilsen in 1898, and the first of the municipal bureaus at Vienna in 1898.

By far the most important is the Vienna municipal bureau. It occupies commodious quarters, has several branches, and plays a large part in the city life. It found places in 1906 for 143,121 persons. Every week a list of all the applications for employment and for help is classified according to the trades and printed and posted in all districts of the city. Applicants are sent to employers, as a rule, in the order of their application, but precedence is given to those having a legal residence in Vienna, as well as to those having children dependent upon them or having other special needs. If a strike takes place, the bureau does not suspend its work, but applicants are notified that there is a strike. This bureau has proved so satisfactory that at the end of the first year forty of the trade guilds handed over their employment agencies to the municipal bureau, and by 1902 this number had increased to forty-six. In 1903 the work of the bureau was extended to domestic service, and by October of that year

eleven district employment offices had been opened for women servants and one for men servants. Some of the trade unions exact a fee from their members to cover expenses, but otherwise the bureau is absolutely free, no payment being asked from either employees or employers, except that employers in the domestic branch are charged a small registration fee.

The Prague municipal employment bureau stands next to that of Vienna in importance in Austria, and is conducted on substantially the same plan. In case of a strike, however, the town council undertakes to decide in each particular case what shall be the attitude of the bureau. The latter is managed by a committee composed of a chairman, who is a member of and appointed by the town council, three members of the executive committee of the town council, three representatives of the employers appointed by the town council, three representatives of the employed actually employed in Prague, an inspector of relief stations, appointed by the Bohemian provincial council, and the director-in-chief of the poor-law administration. The Bohemian bureaus are particularly noteworthy for being organized systematically.

SWITZERLAND.

Switzerland has had and still has most of the various kinds of employment bureaus usual to continental European countries. But Switzerland is of special interest because she seems to be the first country proposing a really national or federal system of bureaus. This will be all the better for being an evolution rather than a new creation. Switzerland has long felt the evils of private commercial employment bureaus, and there is quite a movement, as in France, to suppress them. Various associations of employers have done considerable in Switzerland in securing employees; the trade union bureaus have done less. The relief stations copied from Germany have done something along this line, though not a very large work, because they are not yet sufficiently numerous. It is the public employment bureaus which of late have come to the front, as in Germany. A public bureau of the German type was established at Bern in 1889, and another in Basel in 1890. Such bureaus were at first not generally favored in Switzerland, either by employers or employees, though they gradually grew into popular favor. In 1901, at Bern, and in 1903, at Basel, they were discussed at the meetings of the Association des Villes Suisses, and at the last meeting they were strongly favored. The following table, from the report of Dr. J. Vogelsanger to the

Swiss Federal Department of Industry, gives the most recent general statistics of the main Swiss public employment bureaus:

NUMBER OF APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS IN SWITZERLAND, BY LOCALITY, 1903 AND 1905.

Locality.	Applications for—				Situations secured.	
	Help.		Situations.		1903.	1905.
	1903.	1905.	1903.	1905.		
Anraue.....		3,409		2,465		1,498
Basel.....	4,298	12,927	5,022	14,186	4,024	10,780
Bern.....	6,724	11,025	5,955	9,082	4,373	6,554
Bienna.....	1,153	1,390	874	881	1,130	1,332
Geneva.....	6,373	7,947	9,481	9,083	3,743	5,614
Glarus.....		27		14		7
Schaffhausen.....	906	1,060	880	923	534	600
Saint Gallen.....		4,864		4,301		2,782
Winterthur.....	131	350	223	456	60	197
Zurich.....	15,843	21,626	16,488	18,305	11,397	15,660
Total.....	35,428	64,623	38,923	59,696	25,296	45,024

This does not show in all cases great strength or growth, yet in the main as soon as a Swiss bureau has found its way into general confidence its growth has been steady and rapid.

At present these municipal or cantonal bureaus are so generally favored that a proposal has been presented to the Swiss Federal Assembly to grant them a federal subsidy and to weld them into a national system.

All the details have not as yet been determined, but the Federal Council laid the following resolutions before the Federal Assembly, December 7, 1907. They are given in full as a summary of the most recent scheme relating to the subject.

ARTICLE I. The Confederation (of Switzerland), in order to develop the finding of employment, decrees subsidies to the following institutions:

(a) To public employment bureaus (labor bureaus or employment bureaus of the Cantons or the communes).

(b) To cantonal relief stations, so far as they serve the public by finding situations.

(c) To the Association of Swiss Labor Bureaus.

ART. 2. The granting of these subsidies is made conditional on the fulfillment of the following conditions:

I. As to bureaus of employment:

(a) They must seek to find positions for every kind of worker desiring employment in the arts and industry, commerce, agriculture, and domestic economy. Each bureau must have a separate department for women workers.

(b) The service rendered must be free for both parties; only expenses actually incurred for special services may be charged to those enjoying the services.

(c) The management of the bureaus must be absolutely impartial, employers and employees having equal representation on the commission in charge of the bureaus.

(d) In case of strikes, lockouts, or boycotts, the bureaus will continue their labors, giving, however, notice of the conflict to the parties using the bureaus.

(e) The bureaus shall be connected with the Association of Swiss Labor Bureaus, shall be connected with a central station, and shall have subsidiary bureaus in their Cantons. Relief stations may fill this function.

(f) In view of special ordinances of the association of Swiss cities, the bureaus shall cooperate with it, regularly reporting the condition of the labor market, the reports being intended for the Swiss Federal Statistical Bureau.

Permission is given to the Federal Council to determine all details, and even to abrogate the above conditions if local exigencies demand.

II. Concerning cantonal associations or relief stations:

(a) They are to seek employment for their patrons in a systematic way, cooperating with the employment bureaus, and to be connected with the nearest labor bureau.

(b) The stations shall also regularly report the condition of the labor market to the labor bureau.

The associations may, if they wish, limit their efforts to employment for men.

III. Concerning the Association of Swiss Labor Bureaus:

(a) The association, in agreement with the Department of Industry, shall designate one or more labor bureaus as central bureaus.

(b) It shall aim at the determination of the wisest methods and principles in the conduct of the employment bureaus, and shall devote itself to the development of the system of bureaus.

(c) In connection with the Department of Industry and the Federal Statistical Bureau it shall formulate and collect the statistics of the activities of the bureaus.

(d) It shall put itself at the disposition of the Department of Industry in collecting statistics as to the unemployed and shall encourage all efforts undertaken against unemployment.

ART. 3. The Confederation shall allow the following payments:

(a) All expenses of the central service.

(b) A subsidy to the local public employment bureaus to the extent of one-third of their expenses, not including expense of construction and furnishing.

(c) A subsidy to the cantonal relief stations of 50 centimes [10 cents] for each situation secured.

(d) An annual subsidy to the Swiss labor bureaus (of the Cantons) of one-half their expenses.

ART. 4. Institutions applying for these subsidies must present to the Federal Department of Industry their laws, regulations, and budgets, their annual accounts and statement of their activities, approved by competent authorities.

The calculation and determination of the subsidies shall be by the department of industry. Appeal, however, may be made to the Federal Council, whose decision shall be final. The Federal Council shall have final power over details.

ART. 5. The Federal Council, or its Department of Industry, shall have the right to demand an account of the activities of all institutions receiving subsidies.

ART. 6. The elaboration of the statistics of the employment bureaus subsidized by the Confederation and the publication of a periodical report of the labor market shall be conducted by the Federal Statistical Bureau.

The Federal Council shall finally determine all details of the organization of the statistical service.

ART. 7. The Federal Council, according to the law of June 17, 1874, shall have charge of submitting this law to the popular referendum, and shall determine the date of its going into effect.

ITALY.

Italy has as yet little to show in the way of efficient employment bureaus, although much attention is now being given to the subject. There are labor exchanges somewhat similar to the French bourses in Milan and other Italian cities.

Italy's most notable organization for employment is, however, connected with the famous Milan society, the Umanitaria. This society has an endowment of 10,000,000 lire (\$1,930,000), given by M. Prosper M. Loria in 1898, and amounting to 13,000,000 lire (\$2,509,000) in 1902, on the death of M. Loria. Its revenue is some 600,000 lire (\$115,800) per year.

The Umanitaria has created, among its other works, a successful employment bureau in connection with the Milan labor exchange, a similar bureau for placing nurses and women domestics in connection with the National Woman's Union, and a third bureau to aid the movement of the unemployed to the interior sections of the country where there is need of labor.

The success of the bureau, although a new one, may be seen by its activities for the first quarters of 1905 and 1906, as follows:

APPLICATIONS FOR HELP AND FOR SITUATIONS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH THE MILAN EMPLOYMENT BUREAU FOR THE FIRST QUARTER OF THE YEARS 1905 AND 1906.

Month.	Applications for—				Situations secured.	
	Help.		Situations.		1905.	1906.
	1905.	1906.	1905.	1906.		
January.....	118	293	206	340	73	113
February.....	154	585	302	545	67	188
March.....	212	933	367	729	91	388
Total.....	484	1,830	875	1,614	231	689

The bureau thus more than doubled its activities in the space of a year. There were nearly twice as many applicants for work in the first quarter of 1906 as in that of 1905, and nearly four times as many applications for help.

Especial interest, however, is given in Italy to getting laborers for the land, and if possible inducing some to go on Italian land who

otherwise would emigrate. The Italian national labor office has interested itself in furnishing statistics and information of the sections where agricultural labor is needed and in aiding efforts toward the removal of the unemployed to such sections. The bureau of the Umanitaria devoted to this end works, too, in connection with local employment bureaus and all who may aid in the work. Representatives of the Umanitaria have visited Sardinia and southern Italy to facilitate the removal of workers to those sections which need workers. The Italian Bureau of Immigration also in part works in the same direction. Cooperative efforts, too, which in certain parts of Italy have succeeded among the agriculturalists more than in many countries, have helped to attract the unemployed and have given them work, notably in the Province of Reggio Emilia.

But Italy, like other countries, has felt the need of national organization to meet the problem of unemployment. At a congress called by the Federation of Employers' Associations and committees of other private organizations, held June 30, 1906, it was voted that the federation should work for the creation of a national organization of employment bureaus, with a central office and branches in all portions of the Kingdom.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Great Britain has lagged behind in the establishment of public employment bureaus, though at present in London and in other cities much attention is given to the subject. Until recently the only British employment bureaus have been private commercial ones, to which must be added the work in this line being done by a few charitable or philanthropic bodies, and principally what was accomplished by the trade unions formally through their labor registries, or informally through their secretaries and other officials.

In 1902, however, a so-called labor bureau act was passed authorizing the establishment of public employment bureaus or employment exchanges by municipal authorities, and since then a few public employment exchanges have been established, notably by the London borough councils of Battersea, Chelsea, Croydon, Finsbury, Hammer-smith, Hampstead, Islington, Kensington, Lewisham, Poplar, St. Pancras, Southwark, and Westminster. They have as yet, however, accomplished only meager results. One of the troubles has been that their status, legal or otherwise, has not yet been clearly defined. The local distress committees, which, with the Central (Unemployed) Body for London, form the organization established under the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905, "with a view to the provision of employment or assistance for unemployed workmen in proper cases" in London, have interfered with y cases temporarily

superseded, the work of the employment bureaus. In the report of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London of May 12, 1906, it is stated that in only two boroughs had the employment bureaus been independently maintained through the winter. The attempt has been made to meet this difficulty and to increase the usefulness of the exchanges by creating a central employment exchange, managed by a committee of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London, with which the local bureaus should be connected. Such a central exchange was opened in March, 1905, at 24 Victoria street, Westminster.

The Central (Unemployed) Body reported in June, 1907, that a central exchange and twenty-five local labor exchanges, covering almost every part of London, were then in operation. All were in telephonic communication with each other and with the central exchange. The local exchanges were managed directly by the central body and were kept entirely distinct from the work of the local distress committees. This policy appeared to be of advantage, since the superintendents report that as this is getting understood the industrial quality of the work people registering is improving. The central exchange does not itself receive applications, but acts as a clearing house.

The number of persons registered between August, 1906, and June 30, 1907, was 74,273, including 11,035 women. This number may, however, include some cases of persons reregistering after obtaining temporary employment.

Employment up to the end of June had been found for 12,529 of those registered, including 2,973 women.

Advisory committees composed of representatives of the borough councils and local employers and employees were being formed, consisting of not less than nine members, five of whom may be nominated by the respective borough councils. The cost of the employment bureaus in London from May 12, 1906, to June 30, 1907, amounted to £7,791 10s. 4d. (\$37,917.42).

In twenty-one cases the bureau or employment register was stated to be kept open both in summer and winter; in some cases during the morning only, in others for practically the whole day.

In Dudley, out of 881 applicants 520 were found employment, in Nottingham 356 out of 816, in Plymouth 277 out of 719, in Reading 429 out of 839, and in Warrington 481 out of 1,448.

Up to September 30, 1907, about fifty metropolitan and provincial employment bureaus had been established, though most of these are even yet incompletely organized. During the ten months from December, 1906, to September 30, 1907, these bureaus received 120,000 applications for work, placed 30,000 persons, and directed many more to likely places of work.

The attitude of the English trade unionists to this movement has thus far been one of suspicion, increased by the decision of Mr. John Burns, as president of the Local Government Board, October, 1907, that the bureaux should not compel employers to conform to a union wage standard before being placed on the books of the bureau. The general attitude of the British trade unions to the exchanges was thus stated by the secretary of the General Federation of Trade Unions:

If these exchanges are to compete with the existing trade union registries they may expect the most determined opposition from organized labor. If they are not intended to be antagonistic to the trade-union method, then before any move was made the responsible organizations which have done so much in the past and are so well meeting requirements at present should have been consulted.

Thus the English employment bureaux have not yet completely won their way either in legal position or in popular favor, but the need for them is so realized by the public that they seem bound to grow. They are slowly developing into a system. The most of them are connected with the central employment exchange by telephone and are slowly growing into effectiveness and success. The central employment exchange is working to develop an effective general system, and to this end has issued the following suggestive circulars:

SELECTED DOCUMENTS ISSUED BY CENTRAL COMMITTEE.

RELATING TO EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGES.

(1) *Model rules suggested by the central committee.*

[Copy.]

— Employment Exchange.

(Affiliated to the central employment exchange.)

1. The exchange will be open for men daily from ——— and for women daily from ——— except Saturdays. The exchange will be closed on Good Friday, Christmas Day, bank holidays, and on any occasion the ——— may see fit to notify.

2. Only persons resident in the borough of ——— at the time of the application can be registered for employment; but this restriction as to residence does not apply to employers of labor.

3. Every applicant for registration shall either fill up correctly a printed form, obtainable on personal application to the superintendent, or answer such questions as shall be put by the superintendent, for the purpose of enabling him to enter the necessary particulars in the register.

4. The superintendent will recommend applicants for employment according to suitability, but employers may select from the registered applicants anyone whom they consider suitable.

5. Only those out of employment, or under notice of discharge, will be registered.

[NOTE.—In Hampstead the experiment is being tried of registering men who, though in work, desire to use the exchange. In this borough a minimum registration fee of 1 penny [2 cents], covering a period of six months, is charged to every one. For those who, though in work, register, a differential fee of 6 pence [12 cents] is charged.]

6. The name of every applicant will be removed from the register after one month, exclusive of Sundays and public holidays, unless the ——— want, on or

before the end of the month, gives notice that he or she is still out of employment, such notice to be repeated not less often than on every succeeding month that the applicant remains out of employment.

[NOTE.—The minimum period of notice adopted for those still out of employment varies greatly. In Westminster applicants must call at the exchange and enter their names on slips provided for the purpose at least twice a week.]

7. Applicants must notify the superintendent when they obtain employment through the exchange.

8. Any employers' association may affiliate to the exchange. Secretaries of affiliated associations shall be invited to specify the kinds of employee required by their members, and to encourage individual members to give notice to the exchange of vacancies, so that they may be informed when suitable applicants offer.

9. Any registered club, union, branch of a union, or other organization of workmen, may affiliate to the exchange. Secretaries of affiliated organizations shall be invited to specify the employment suitable to their members and shall be notified when such employment offers.

Forms of application for registration and all other information may be obtained at the exchange.

(2) *Rules suggested for exhibition in the exchange.*

1. The name of any person knowingly making a false statement on the forms, or knowingly giving any false information to the superintendent, will be struck off the register, and such person will be debarred from being again registered.

2. No person of known bad character will be registered.

3. Applicants are not permitted to wait about the premises after their application has been dealt with.

4. Smoking and spitting in the offices of the exchange are strictly prohibited.

(3) *Application form suggested for use by the local exchange. (a)*

[Copy.]

— Borough Council.

Employment Exchange.

(In association with the central employment exchange.)

[Address of office, with office hours.]

Application for employment.

No. —

Date — 190

1. Surname, Christian names, and age.
2. Married or single.
3. Full address.
4. How long resident in the borough of ———?
5. How long unemployed?
6. Exact description of employment required.
7. Other work for which qualified.
8. Name and address of last employer and description of work.
9. Name and address of longest employer and description of work.
10. Particulars as to sick benefit, trade, or other provident society.
11. Any remarks the candidate may desire to make, e. g., as to number of children, references, wages, causes of present unemployment, etc.

For the sake of other candidates, please inform the superintendent directly you obtain work.

N. B.—Employment can not be guaranteed. The exchange is intended to aid candidates in their search for work, and not to take the place of their own efforts.

* NOTE.—This form is not adequate for the purposes of classification for special assistance, but only for the normal work of an employment exchange.

(4) *A leaflet issued by the central committee.*

[Copy.]

A note on employment exchanges: What they can do.

The object of a labor exchange is to act as a medium of introduction between employers and employed. It is a center through which on the one hand work, and on the other workers, may be found.

The exchange can, however, serve no purpose if it is not used—by employers no less than by employed.

If thus used, it centralizes information as to what class of men or women employers are seeking; and as to what class of men and women are seeking employment. By the simple machinery it provides, those who stand in industrial need of each other can find each other.

The local exchange can only do this for its own locality. But it may often happen that employers can not find the men, or men the employers, they want in their own borough. Men out of work, or places unfilled, there may be—just in the next street, if this be in another borough—or on the other side of London; and the superintendent of the local exchange, if acting in isolation, may know nothing about them.

In order to avoid this and to increase the usefulness of every local exchange, the central employment exchange has been established by a metropolitan committee, representative of the London borough councils and boards of guardians. Every man who wants work and every employer who wants men is now enabled to draw upon the registers of all the exchanges of London.

An industrial "clearing house" for the metropolis is thus provided; and men in Hammersmith, for instance, can now hear of unfilled places in, say, Hampstead; or employers in Finsbury who fail to find the men they want there may get them, say, from Kensington or Westminster.

At present (^a) nine exchanges are thus working together. In a year it is hoped that an affiliated exchange will be found in every London borough.

Exchanges only aid men who are willing to take some trouble themselves—including that of going to their own exchange and of giving the necessary information to the superintendent there.

If well used, exchanges will help to avoid industrial congestion; to avoid unemployment; to make the wheels of industry run a little more easily. They can not guarantee men work, or employers men; but they can help to fill the gaps.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AS TO EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS.

Perhaps the general conclusions to be derived from the study of European employment bureaus have not been better stated than by Dr. Louis Varlez, of Ghent. His conclusions are as follows:

DOCTOR VARLEZ'S RECOMMENDATIONS FOR EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS. (³)

1. The employers and the employees should have an equal voice in the management of the bureaus. They should also have equal rights in the administration of the bureau.

2. The presidency should be in the hands of men not interested in industrial conflicts.

3. A purely bureaucratic management is irreconcilable with an effective management of the bureaus.

4. The management should not be placed exclusively in the hands of philanthropic institutions.

5. The expenses of the organization and administration of bureaus, in which employers and employees are equally interested, should fall upon the public authorities, principally upon the local community.

6. The placing of laborers outside of the community should be in charge of a central bureau rather than in that of the district u.

^a June, 1905.^b Report on the Reorganization of the Ghent Employment Exchange,

7. The procuring of work should be free of charge.

8. The placing of laborers should not be purely a local matter; it should extend to the surrounding district.

9. The bureau should try to keep in touch and, if possible, to cooperate with all agencies which undertake to find employment.

10. The public authorities should control all employment bureaus and should see that there is no improper competition against the public bureaus.

11. The statistics of the bureaus should be kept with the greatest care.

12. The public bureaus should be for both sexes.

13. The public bureaus should endeavor to place both workingmen and domestics.

14. Women clerks should be used in placing women applicants.

15. Direct contact between employers and employees, and also between persons of different sexes, should be avoided in the office of the bureau.

16. Strikes and lockouts should be reported immediately to the employment bureau, and should be announced there, but it should not be necessary to close the office to the trades concerned.

17. All the transactions of placing people should be carried on within the office of the bureau.

18. Managers of offices should try to satisfy their clients, both employers and workingmen, without following the strict order of application, which is more or less a matter of chance.

19. Officers should energetically combat the practice of workingmen in applying directly to employers who are patrons of the bureau for positions.

20. To make known their work the public employment bureau should use all the different methods of advertising which are used by commercial institutions.

21. The employment bureau should be interested in placing of apprentices and in the form of their contract, because the future of the labor market depends upon the proper management of apprenticeships.

22. Employment bureaus of neighboring villages should as far as possible cooperate with each other.

23. Bureaus in villages should try to interest themselves in the question of the depopulation of the country districts and the scarcity of farm laborers.

One conclusion, however, not directly stated by Doctor Varlez, though it may be deduced perhaps from his conclusions, seems to be regarded in European practice as of great importance and to deserve direct statement. The different local employment bureaus should be connected very closely by telephone and in other ways, and all should be developed into one complete, harmonious, and effective system.

MEANS OTHER THAN THE EMPLOYMENT BUREAU OF FINDING WORK FOR THE UNEMPLOYED WHO ARE EMPLOYABLE

Apart from employment bureaus the main other means which foreign countries have adopted to find work for the unemployed who are employable may be summed up in the phrase "Back to the land."

This is not to say that foreign countries consider agriculture the only important or valuable work for the unemployed, for every country does what it can to develop industries of all kinds, and this, of course, tends to absorb such of the unemployed as are available in such industries, but the tendency of economic life in all countries is so strongly to the city and away from the country that, apart from general measures favorable to all industry, any direct government activity in placing people in permanent work—apart from temporary relief work—has, as a matter of fact and perhaps wisely, been directed to getting them “back to the land.”

These efforts will not be studied in this article so fully as employment bureaus have been, partly because they have not yet developed anything like the same success, and partly because conditions as to land ownership and development are so different in the United States^{*} and in Europe that a study of the details of European methods on this point is not of large practical value for the United States. Nevertheless, these efforts in a general way are most important and suggestive.

In general it may be said that the European efforts to get the unemployed back to the land are divided into the two main subheads of colonization to foreign lands and efforts at placing men on land in the home country. These are considered separately.

COLONIZATION.

Efforts at colonizing unemployed workmen in foreign countries play a considerable part in European discussions, and yet the treatment of the subject here can be especially brief because there is perhaps no portion of the whole question less applicable to the situation in the United States. Few, if any, seriously purpose to send the unemployed of the United States to foreign shores.

In Europe, however, the subject is widely discussed, and particularly in Great Britain. Not a few of the British colonies, including some of the most important, have been consciously developed, in part, to find an outlet for England's surplus labor. A similar element enters into Germany's present colonial discussions. Even England's early penal colonies, some of them now great commonwealths, like New South Wales, have been used to find place for her vagrants, and some of these convicts and vagrants, sent out in this way by England, have developed into valuable and successful citizens.

In more recent times, however, propositions for the colonization of England's unemployed have played no small part. Perhaps the best known of these recent propositions has been that of Mr. Rider Haggard, in a report issued in 1905.

After a visit as government commissioner on this subject to this country Mr. Haggard was instructed by the Ex^{ecutive} Government to

investigate agricultural and industrial settlements which have been established in Colorado and California by the Salvation Army. These settlements were established with the idea of facilitating the flow of suitable men and women from the great cities of this country to the land, and the commissioner's special object was to ascertain how far an analogous system might be with advantage applied in the emigration of the urban population of the United Kingdom to different parts of the British Empire, especially Canada.

On the whole the experiments seem to Mr. Haggard to be eminently successful, and to demonstrate in the case of Fort Romie that indigent people of the agricultural laborer class can be settled upon land and there do well, and in the case of Fort Amity that such persons can even be taken from towns and yet prosper. In both cases they are nearly self-supporting (according to Mr. Haggard), for though nominally there has been a total loss of about £10,000 (\$48,665) on the two he attributes the loss to certain exceptional difficulties—to the high rate of interest the Salvation Army has to pay, and charges which should not have been included.

To quote Mr. Haggard's own words:

Broadly stated, these results may be said to include the turning of a block of waste prairie land into a prosperous settlement, where a population of about 270 persons are living in happiness, health, and comfort, with a good prospect of becoming entirely independent and, in sundry instances, comparatively wealthy.

Mr. Haggard suggests that these colonies or settlements might well be established by an arrangement between the British and Canadian governments, and he has drawn up a scheme and given a financial estimate whereby land which the Canadian government is willing to grant, 240,000 acres, should be divided up among 1,500 families, or about 7,500 people. The cost of emigrating and establishing such a number in Canada he puts down roughly at £200 (\$973) per family, or £300,000 (\$1,459,950) in all, and he suggests that the interest on such a loan should be guaranteed by His Majesty's Government, or perhaps by a combination of the two governments. He adds that the municipalities might be empowered to join in the guaranty. For the management of such a vast organization he suggests the appointment of a superintendent of land settlements, or a board representative of the colonial office, the colonies, and the treasury, whereof the superintendent would be a member. The expenses and salary of his office would be a charge on the land-settlements loan.

He believes, however, that under the superintendence of such an official the work should be carried out by some such private and philanthropic body as the Salvation Army.

Mr. Haggard's scheme, however, has not been generally favored. Many question the real success of the Salvation Army colonies. Mr.

John Burns, as president of the Local Government Board, is strongly opposed to such schemes. He himself visited the colonies and considers them to be anything but a success. For this and for other reasons, therefore, Mr. Haggard's proposal has come to nothing, while the same result has befallen various other similar propositions.

In spite of this, a great deal is actually being done in small ways to send the abler of England's unemployed to the British colonies and to Canada in particular. Mr. Burns himself, though a most pronounced foe of so-called labor colonies, greatly favors getting the unemployed British workmen on the land in ordinary industry in England's various colonies.

The Central (Unemployed) Body for London has a permanent emigration committee that undertakes to assist unemployed workmen and their families to emigrate, especially to Canada and New Zealand, if their cases seem to offer any basis for the hope of their doing well in those countries.

A close scrutiny of the applicants is made so as to avoid sending out emigrants who would not be welcome in their new home, but great care is taken to avoid rejecting men without good cause shown.

The following, condensed from the preliminary report of this body and covering the period from the organization of the body in November, 1905, to May 12, 1906, throws considerable light upon the methods pursued:^(a)

Nearly 600 applications have been received from single men, and the decision as to the best way of dealing with these occupied a considerable amount of the time of the committee. A wide experience had shown that it was desirable to take special steps to make unmarried men feel when they went to Canada that they were taking a serious step, and it was also felt that such men, without dependents, should make some contribution toward the expense incurred on their behalf. On the other hand, it was not desired to make it unnecessarily difficult for men in distress from unemployment to sail. The plan was therefore decided upon of insisting on the provision—save in very exceptional cases—of a guarantor for the repayment by the applicant of £4 [\$19.47] toward the total expenses of his emigration. Forms for guarantors were prepared for signature by the guarantors and by the applicants, stating that £2 [\$9.73] was to be paid by the latter within six months of the date of signing the agreement, and the remaining £2 [\$9.73] within eighteen months. In a few cases either the first installment of £2 [\$9.73] or the whole £4 [\$19.47] has been immediately forthcoming.

Guarantors have been provided by 297 out of the 587 provisionally accepted. Up to May 31 [1906] 134 single men had sailed to Canada or New Zealand.

Toward the end of February [1906] the office of the government of New Zealand made public the particulars of a new offer to emi-

^a The report of the emigration committee was brought up to May 31, 1906.

grants made by that colony, brought about by the demand that existed there for suitable men for railway extension work. For such men, especially for those who could be described as "good pick and shovels men," the government offered to remit the capital qualification of £50 [\$243.33] that had been previously enforced, and to extend the present system of the reduced £10 [\$48.67] passages to such men as might be accepted. It was stated that single men would be preferred, but that the claims of suitable men with not more than two children would also be considered.

All suitable single men who had applied to their distress committees and had expressed no special desire to go to Canada had the offer of the New Zealand government brought to their notice, and a certain number of cases of married men with small families have been also selected for this colony. Up to May 31, 73 individuals have gone, not to the great colony of the west, but to the flourishing islands of the Southern Hemisphere.

At the outset the arrangements made with the Joint East End Committee for payment not to exceed £9 [\$43.80] per adult of cases dealt with was to include the provision of necessary outfit, but the unexpected pressure of the numbers applying for emigration made it necessary subsequently to modify this arrangement. For a few weeks prior to May 2 [1905] payment was made by the central body for the wages of two forewomen employed under the direction of Mrs. Vatcher, who has, for some years, organized this branch of the work of the joint committee. After May 2 it was agreed that payment for outfit should be made at the rate of £1 [\$4.87] per adult and 10s. [\$2.43] per child on all cases dealt with by the joint committee.

This rearrangement happened to afford an admirable opportunity for meeting in some measure the requirements of the women's work committee, which was considering the best means of dealing with qualified applicants who had been referred to them, and several women recommended by this committee were accordingly found ordinary employment under Mrs. Vatcher on work for the emigrants.

The following table gives the general results of the work of the winter [1905-6] up to May 31 [1906]. It has been carried out under some difficulty, owing partly to the general pressure upon all departments of the work of the central body, partly to the unexpectedly numerous claims made by applicants for emigration, and to the late date at which many of these were forwarded to the central office by the distress committees, and partly owing to the pressure on the organization of the Joint East End Committee, with which the central body has been in most active cooperation.

As regards the men who have been selected, although they represent a great variety of occupations, very many of them belong to the general laboring class, for which there is such an abundant opening in Canada at the present time, and of which there is a superabundance in London.

Every man emigrated has employment found for him on the other side, although it is made a condition that those who go must be willing to accept any suitable employment offered them, whether it be at their own past trade—if they have one—or not.

The statement showing statistics of emigration through applications submitted by distress committees to the Central (Unemployed) Body up to May 31, 1906, follows:

Applications.

Number of applications submitted by distress committees.....	1,847
Declined by emigration committee of Central (Unemployed) Body--	191
Referred to—	
Joint East End Emigration Committee.....	925
Self-Help Society.....	242
New Zealand government.....	158
Other societies.....	31
Deferred.....	98
Under consideration or in abeyance.....	202

Decisions.

Number of decided cases at May 31.....	1,191
Declined by emigration committee of Central (Unemployed) Body--	266
Applications for New Zealand declined by the high commissioner --	40
Sailed to May 31.....	350
Recommended and sailing at a future date.....	161
Withdrawn.....	374

Sailings.

Number of families sailing to May 31.....	^a 350
Number of those referred to East End committee.....	185
Number referred to Self-Help Society.....	^b 115
Number referred to New Zealand government.....	^c 41
Number referred to other societies.....	9
Expenditure to May 31.....	\$40,738.09
Number of persons emigrated to May 31.....	1,191

SIZE OF FAMILIES REPORTED BY CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY AS EMIGRATING UP TO MAY 31, 1906.

Size of family.	Total families.	Total persons.	Size of family.	Total families.	Total persons.
1 person.....	134	134	7 persons.....	27	189
2 persons.....	13	26	8 persons.....	8	64
3 persons.....	42	126	9 persons.....	6	54
4 persons.....	48	192	10 persons.....	4	40
5 persons.....	42	210			
6 persons.....	26	156	Total.....	350	1,191

MALE HEADS OF FAMILIES REPORTED BY CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY AS EMIGRATING UP TO MAY 31, 1906, BY AGE GROUPS.

Age group.	Number.	Age group.	Number.
20 years or under.....	14	41 to 45 years.....	24
21 to 25 years.....	83	46 to 50 years.....	11
26 to 30 years.....	93	Over 50 years.....	1
31 to 35 years.....	72		
36 to 40 years.....	62	Total.....	350

^a Of these 134 were single men.

^b Of these 198 were single men, and 7 were families containing 36 persons.

^c Of these 26 were single men.

MEN REPORTED BY CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY AS EMIGRATING UP TO MAY 31, 1906, BY OCCUPATIONS.

Trade and occupation.	Total men.	Trade and occupation.	Total men.
Building trades (exclusive of laborers):		Printing and paper trades—Concluded.	
Bricklayers.....	18	Compositor.....	1
Mason.....	1	Paper stainers.....	2
Slater and tiler.....	1	Box cutter.....	1
Plasterers.....	5	Dress:	
Lath render.....	1	Boot finisher.....	1
Carpenters.....	19	Oilskin dresser.....	1
Painters.....	19	Food and drink:	
Plumbers.....	3	Pastry cooks.....	2
Handy men.....	5	Dealers and clerks:	
Navvies.....	4	Clerk.....	1
Gas fitters.....	3	Traveler.....	1
Laborers:		Tailor.....	1
Builders, general and others.....	155	Grocer's agent.....	1
Woodworkers:		Locomotion, transport, and other labor:	
Upholsterer.....	1	Engine drivers and stokers.....	4
Sawyers.....	2	Warehousemen.....	5
Cooper.....	1	Lightermen.....	2
Metal workers:		Stevadores.....	2
Filters.....	7	Shipwright.....	1
Iron workers.....	6	Barge builder.....	1
Smiths.....	4	Gardener.....	1
Silversmiths.....	3	Stableman.....	1
Electric wire men.....	2	Coal trimmer.....	1
Machinists.....	2	Carmen.....	30
Zinc worker.....	1	Porters.....	12
Plater.....	1	Civil and municipal services:	
Tinsmith.....	1	Lamplighter.....	1
Gun maker.....	1	Service (various):	
Sundry manufactures: *		Farm bailiff.....	1
Mill hand.....	1	Window cleaner.....	1
Spinner.....	1	Storekeeper.....	1
Glass cutter.....	1	Unclassified:	
Harness maker.....	1	Stock cutter.....	1
Machine band finisher.....	1		
Printing and paper trades:			
Pressmen.....	2	Total.....	350

The following figures from the second report of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London, covering the work of that body from May 12, 1906, to June 30, 1907, show a considerable advance in the number of persons assisted to emigrate during that period. In all, 5,415 persons were assisted to emigrate, of whom 1,800 were heads of families and single men. The destination was Canada. The report states that the net expenditure on emigration and migration from November 10, 1906, to November 2, 1907, was £38,613 17s. 11d. (\$187,914.52).

With the English labor colonies, which will be considered later, no little effort has been made to aid the most capable and promising of the colonists to emigrate, particularly to Canada. The emigrants from the Hollesley Bay Colony are included in the report of the Central (Unemployed) Body, but at every labor colony visited it was stated that the best colonists are sent to Canada or other British colonies.

The following as to results is from a report of the emigration committee:

From most of the cases that have gone out communications have been received. In only one case has the wish been expressed to return. In a few instances letters to friends have been seen, and in two or three other cases the news has come that those who have already gone are hoping that some relative will soon be able to follow, thus

affording sufficiently conclusive evidence that the outlook is being regarded as satisfactory.

The letters have drawn attention not only to the chances that the country offers, but also to the responsibility that rests upon the individual for grasping these. "As to my opinion of this country," writes one man, "it is that if a man is willing he can get on, but they don't want wastrels or lazy men here." The benefit to the family health is frequently mentioned, and pleasant pictures are often drawn of the special happiness and well-being of the children. On the whole, the communications received afford convincing proofs in the great majority of cases of that renewal of hope which is the greatest safeguard as to the future, not merely of success but also of assured content, that a man can possess.

Colonization as a solution for the unemployed in other European countries plays probably a much larger part than in Great Britain, but in most cases it is not so much a question of the direct solution of the unemployment problem as a matter of general emigration of the working classes. It is therefore a question beyond the limits of this article. But emigration is a large fact and a large problem in practically every European country. The importance of emigration to Europe's working classes may be seen by the amount of immigration in the United States.

On account of the depression in the labor market in the United States during the winter of 1907-8 thousands of European laborers were returning to Europe from the United States every week, almost by every steamer. This became a matter of concern to every European government, and each labor bureau manifested anxiety concerning the prospects of the duration of the depression in the United States. It is hard to imagine what would be Europe's unemployed problem were it not for the million she sends almost annually to the United States; and it must be remembered that by no means all of Europe's emigration is to the United States. The visitor to Europe discovers that much of European emigration goes to South America, and even Africa and Asia and the various European colonies, because it is this emigration rather than that to the United States which one hears most discussed. In several countries, indeed, there is serious discussion of how to divert their emigrants from going to the United States and of inducing them to go to their own colonies. It is apparent that all this bears very directly upon the problem of the unemployed.

BACK TO THE LAND.

"Back to the land" in other ways than by colonization to foreign lands is more distinctly an endeavor for the unemployed. In many countries the effort is being made to get the unemployed workmen from the cities back to the country. In all countries, however, it is a most difficult undertaking.

FREE COLONIES OF HOLLAND.

Among the oldest, in some ways the most interesting, but probably not the most successful of these efforts are the so-called free colonies of Holland, not to be confused with the Dutch penal colonies, and not similar to the more famous German labor colonies, which are of quite another class. The German labor colonies are in the main but temporary shelters for the lower class of workmen. The Dutch free colonies are attempts at getting the unemployed of the cities, with their families, permanently on the land. There are three of these colonies situated near together in the province of Overijssel, near Steenwyk, east of the Zuider Zee. The colonies own about 10,000 acres of land, consisting of sand and heath, not favorable to agriculture, and yet they have a thrift and a quiet beauty which make them among the most attractive of all the various industrial colonies of Europe. The public buildings are substantial and well built of brick. The workmen's cottages have their living rooms and stalls for the animals all under one roof, but are usually neatly kept, attractive, and picturesque. There are three colonies, Frederiksoord, Willemsoord, and Wilhelminasoord. They are supported by and belong to a Dutch charitable society, Maatschappij van Weldadigheid (Society of Beneficence) founded in 1818 by General van den Bosch, who had acquired in the Dutch East Indies a favorable impression of the system of small holdings, and conceived the design of placing the able-bodied paupers of Holland on small holdings subject to a life-rent, upon the great tract of moorland in the Provinces of Friesland and Overijssel in North Holland.

Within a year after its formation the society consisted of 20,000 members, and the annual subscriptions reached about \$22,500. The plans of the society included colonies for the repression of mendicity, for indigent persons and veterans, for inspectors of agricultural works, for orphans and foundlings, and for agricultural instruction, and free colonies.^(*)

A tract of land, about 1,200 acres in extent, was purchased for about \$23,300, "the money being raised by loan, to be repaid by installments in sixteen years, with interest at 6 per cent." Additional estates were purchased from time to time until in 1827, the free colonies covered altogether an area of 2,900 acres; the colonies of veterans 1,253 acres, and the beggar colonies 4,280 acres, or an aggregate of 8,433 acres, upon which there were 6,751 persons, including officials. In addition to the amount of land in cultivation, as above detailed, the society owned about 5,000 acres of heath land.

^{*} The Dutch Labor Colonies. By H. G. Willink (London, 1889), p. 3.

The two most important departments were the beggar colonies and the free colonies. The beggar colonies were administered by the society up to 1859, when the Government took them over.

The beggar colonies were penal rather than reformatory. The conditions are described as having been insanitary.

The free colonies were conducted upon a different principle. The colonists were from the beginning, and are now, not peasant proprietors, but life renters. The distinction between the free colonists and a farmer working under the ordinary conditions of tenant farming lies simply in the circumstance that the free farmer is entitled to rely upon the society to make up any deficiency in his maintenance, whereas the tenant farmer has no such resource.

Sir John MacNeill, who visited the colonies in 1853, reported that at Frederiksoord there were only 16 free farmers, against 25 in 1848, and that, owing to the want of aptitude of the colonists for agricultural labor, and a general want of economical habits, "the free colony, regarded as an attempt to make the families maintain themselves, must be pronounced a failure."

The above account, condensed from Mr. Willink's book, states briefly the history of the colonies, and their condition is not essentially different to-day. The motto of General van den Bosch was a noble one, "Help the people and improve the land," but the result was a disappointment to its founder, and is not enthusiastically spoken of in Holland to-day. Of the elaborate plans little remains but the colonies for more or less indigent and aged men, sometimes with their families, a few of whom have been given the life tenancy of small farms, and are well housed and cared for. But neither in quality or quantity have important results been attained. The number of families is not large, and little of the spirit of freedom is developed. The best result is in the education of the children of the colonists, who are taught horticulture and similar pursuits, which has enabled some of them to acquire desirable situations. This is distinctly worth doing even for a few, but the colonies are an expensive way of doing it, and they can not be said to contribute much to the solution of getting the unemployed on the land.

In 1906 the benevolent society consisted of 83 branches with 8,944 members, represented in practically all the cities and large towns of Holland. Each ward or town contributing a certain amount is entitled to send a certain number of indigent persons to the colony. The men sent are usually over 40 years of age and are men who for one reason or another have not been successful in the city, but are recommended by charitable associations and societies. Most of them are unskilled laborers, and few of them have any knowledge of agricultural work. Frederiksoord, the best known of the three, has a population of 1,900, and the number of colonists engaged is

chiefly agricultural, although it includes dairying, brick making, mat making, and basket work. Wages paid for basket making by piece-work amount to about 32 cents per day.

On arrival each laborer's family is housed in a separate cottage with a garden, and the members of the family who are capable of working are given some light employment. The man himself is set to work on one of five large farms, in the central dairying establishment, or in the basket-making or mat-making workshops. The children who are too young to work are sent to the public schools, which are built and maintained by the Government. A specialty is made of teaching the older boys horticulture or tree raising. After the laborer has been in the colony a certain number of years, at least two, he may be promoted to the class of "free farmer," provided there is a vacancy. At present there are over 150 free farms of $6\frac{1}{2}$ to $7\frac{1}{2}$ acres, all in good condition. The necessary capital is advanced by the colony, and in many cases the free farmer has more than doubled the value of his stock and plant.

The three colonies receive married men with their families, as well as unmarried men. At Frederiksoord there are at least 400 families. As a rule a colonist is not capable of earning his own living until he has been two years in the colony, so that this is the shortest probation possible in which to qualify for the position of a free farmer. Sometimes men remain four or five years before they obtain this promotion. The holdings are cultivated on what is practically a life tenure. Rent is paid to the colony, which provides stock and seeds and the necessary credit. If the free farmer conducts himself well, he can hold his farm until death, while frequently in such a case the widow is allowed to retain the holding, providing she can cultivate it herself with the aid of the members of her family. In a few cases the daughter of a free farmer who marries the son of a colonist takes over the farm, but there is no legal right to a holding under such circumstances, and a farmer might possibly be expelled without compensation for improvement. Such cases, however, are few and far between. Besides growing enough food to supply his family, a free farmer keeps two or three milch sheep and four or five pigs; for the rest the principal produce is butter and potatoes. Generally speaking, the credit of the farmers is improving, and there are few bad debts. No interest is charged on loans, but the amount due to the colony by the free farmers is steadily decreasing.

For the aged and invalids at Willemsoord, Dutch benevolence has erected a homelike and attractive old men's home. Altogether the life of the colonists in the central farms or in their little cottages, widely scattered over the broad acres, usually neat and well kept, and each with its little patch of ground for cultivation, is attractive, but the Dutch colonies can not be considered sociologically of great im-

portance. To carry large numbers of needy families in this way, would be, to say the least, very expensive, and while in Willemsoord, on the whole the best of the colonies, one is conscious of an attractive spirit of peace and quiet, there seems lacking that spirit of progress, of endeavor, and of self-reliance which freemen should have. The cost to the society for each man, woman, or child at the colonies is said to be about \$7.50 annually, without allowing for interest on the capital invested. A number of children (orphans and children of paupers) are boarded out with the colonists by poor-law authorities and charitable societies, the money paid for their maintenance going to the persons in whose houses they live. Children of from 4 to 8 years of age are preferred; those coming to a colony after attaining the age of 8 are difficult to deal with. In no case are children over 12 years taken.

GERMAN HOME COLONIES.

Only two of Germany's labor colonies have attempted to get the colonists at all permanently on the land. This idea, which the Germans call the establishment of *Heimat-kolonisten* (home colonists), was broached as long ago as 1886, but with small result. At Friedrichwilhelmsdorf, near Walsdorf, about 3 miles from Bremerhaven, 12 colonists were taken on the understanding that it meant permanent settlement if they proved industrious and capable. It has proved very slow work. At the present time there are only four or five colonists permanently settled on farms of their own, and some forty or fifty are in the probation stage working on the farm.

Another and more successful experiment was begun in December, 1898, by the executive committee of the town labor colony at Hamburg. It acquired an estate of over 900 acres at Schäferhof in Holstein, which has now developed into one of the most interesting and attractive of all the German labor colonies.

A member of the central board in 1903 thus described its aims and results at that time:

Whereas up till now the colonies have had a constant succession of inmates who, on account of their want of strength and skill, have been hardly able to do as much as one-half or one-quarter of a man's work, we have in our permanently settled inmates at our home colony at Schäferhof got together a set of workmen who have so far done really wonderfully good work. Our home colonists, who now number 100, not only do all the agricultural work on the Schäferhof estate of over 875 acres, but also, even in the first four years, when there were many fewer colonists, they helped us to build a big cow house, a colonists' house with cubicles for 60 men, and a splendid greenhouse, which last, indeed, they built entirely themselves. Besides this they have in the same period put 1000 acres of waste and moorland into cultivation, and laid out 1000 yards of field roads, which

they carried out in an altogether satisfactory manner, and for which they broke up about 400 cubic yards of stone. In the last two years they have planted out and tended 7,854,500 saplings for other people, and 83,000 oak, fir, apple, and pear tree saplings for the colony.

The colony owes part of its success to the generosity of the rich men of Hamburg, who have erected buildings for it, among the most substantial and attractive to be found in all the German colonies, supplied in many cases with up-to-date conveniences, while many of the barns for the stock are models of their kind. A spirit of success reigns at Schäferhof not found in other colonies. A report of this colony, made in 1907 (for the year 1906), shows the progressive spirit of the colony.

The regular agricultural occupations were carried on with success, and experiments were made with manures and regarding adaptability of soils to various products. During the year the nursery sold and delivered 600,000 4-year-old pine trees, 60,000 3-year-old birch trees, 10,000 2-year-old birch trees, 700,000 3-year-old common alders, 10,000 2-year-old common alders, 30,000 4-year-old ash trees, 5,000 3-year-old Canadian poplars, and 30,000 2-year-old white alders. The colony was also successful in the breeding of horses, cattle, and other domestic animals, for the shelter of which necessary buildings were erected by the colonists. At the close of the year there were 97 men at the colony, of whom 74 had been there less than one year.

This colony is typical to a large extent of all the German colonies. Religion is a prominent feature of the colony, and is an essential characteristic of all the German colonies. Frequent references to gifts by donors are made in the reports of the colony. None of the colonies pretends or aims to be economically independent.

The report shows that Schäferhof is a permanent free home for workmen, the most of whom are able to do considerable work, but not capable, for one reason or another, of winning their own way in life. There is little or no attempt to get families or single men in homes of their own on the land. At Schäferhof the men all live in the dormitories and general living rooms of the colony. Schäferhof, therefore, must be considered as a very prosperous and unusually attractive permanent farm home for the only partly employable. It must not be considered an endeavor to get other employed workmen on to the land. No existent colony, so far as known, has succeeded in this, only the Dutch free colonies even aiming at this end.

MEANS OF RELIEF OTHER THAN EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS FOR THE TEMPORARILY UNEMPLOYED WHO ARE EMPLOYABLE.

Thus far consideration has been given to the needs only of those who are unemployed and without prospect of returning to their former work—those who for one reason or another find themselves in need of a new position or a new career. The needs of those only

temporarily unemployed—who have work in prospect, but who through the temporary shut down of a mill, mine, or other establishment, or for some other cause, are in temporary need—are next considered. Their need, generally speaking, is not for a new situation, but, as stated above, for some form of temporary aid to enable them to tide over the waiting time. The form of this relief which has been most developed and is in many ways the best is the trade union out-of-work benefit.

TRADE UNION OUT-OF-WORK BENEFITS.

This form of relief for the temporarily unemployed is developed more or less wherever there are trade unions. It is considered here, however, but briefly, for the reason that this is one of the subjects on which Europe has least to teach America. American trade union benefits, though not to be compared with those paid by British unions, exceed those of any other country in the world, except England. This is partly because most of the American unions are stronger than the continental European trade unions and partly because wages in the United States in most trades, being materially higher, members of American trade unions can and do pay higher dues to their unions, and therefore the unions can and do give larger and more out-of-work benefits.

GREAT BRITAIN.

The trade unions of Great Britain, in proportion to the population of the country, lead the trade unions of the world. They lead in numbers, in extent of influence, in solidarity of organization, in many ways. They lead in the amount of insurance or benefits given to those out of work. Trade unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor reported, in 1905, \$85,050 paid out in unemployed benefits.^a This is not the whole amount paid out in such benefits in the United States, but it is a large share of it. Only 15 national unions paid such benefits, though the above amount does not include large sums paid out by local lodges or branches of the national unions, of which no report is made to the national officers. Of this sum, too, a large portion was paid out by a few unions. The cigar makers alone, in 1905, paid out \$29,872 in unemployed benefits, while in 1896 they paid out as high as \$175,767, showing what the Americans can do, and on occasion have done, in times of especial need. But in Great Britain, in 1904, 81 of the 100 principal unions paid out in unemployment dues £647,722 (\$3,152,139). This is nearly \$3 per head for the 1,127,529 members of the 100 unions covered by the report, while in the 125 national unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor so few of the unions report

^a Bulletin of New York Department

to the national officers that the average is less than 6 cents. The following table from the Report of the Labor Department of the British Board of Trade on Trade Unions in 1902-1904, shows the expenditure of the 100 principal unions for ten years:

UNEMPLOYED BENEFITS PAID BY 100 PRINCIPAL TRADE UNIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, BY GROUPS OF TRADES, 1895 TO 1904.

Year.	Building, 12 unions.	Mining and quarry- ing, 15 unions.	Metal, engineer- ing, and ship- building, 15 unions.	Textile, 22 unions.	Clothing, 4 unions.	Trans- porta- tion, 10 unions.	Other, 22 unions.	Total, 100 principal unions.
1895.....	\$254,737	\$331,146	\$935,852	\$244,040	\$14,118	\$17,057	\$231,329	\$2,028,279
1896.....	122,144	208,753	550,070	171,496	11,680	15,042	196,534	1,275,719
1897.....	117,847	121,064	947,069	205,055	9,709	16,337	186,757	1,603,838
1898.....	108,275	66,841	523,684	170,493	10,322	86,521	195,614	1,161,759
1899.....	118,144	49,867	306,678	131,965	6,711	14,682	197,161	915,208
1900.....	225,587	21,505	456,585	300,078	7,971	17,578	251,710	1,281,014
1901.....	327,165	86,269	655,727	219,392	8,375	16,935	281,303	1,595,166
1902.....	359,167	91,890	996,294	275,726	6,604	16,473	317,496	2,063,620
1903.....	393,223	87,694	1,090,305	556,358	7,378	17,471	327,895	2,480,324
1904.....	668,618	229,650	1,482,015	348,626	8,687	21,413	393,130	3,152,139

The report says of this table:

Under the heading of "unemployed benefits" are included not only ordinary weekly benefit or "donation," but also payments to members traveling in search of employment, payments on account of fires at works, failures of firms, temporary stoppages and breakdowns of machinery, emigration grants, special grants during times of excessive slackness in trade, and all other payments on account of unemployment, except such as have already been treated of under the head of "dispute benefit." During 1904 81 of the 100 unions, representing 84 per cent of the total membership of the 100, paid unemployed benefit in one form or another, and sometimes in several forms. The expenditure incurred by the 100 unions on unemployed benefit during the ten years 1895-1904 is shown by groups of trades. * * *

It will be seen that a greater expenditure was incurred on this benefit during the years 1902-1904 than in any other years in the table, the total spent in these three years (£1,581,441) [\$7,696,083] being only slightly less than that expended during the previous six years, 1896-1901 (£1,609,513) [\$7,832,695].

The unemployed benefits of the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters and Joiners, which is one of the largest unions, were £90,814 (\$441,946) for 70,763 persons, or £1 5s. 8d. (\$6.25) per head, in 1904. The Amalgamated Engineers, a still larger union, with 96,106 members, spent £120,560 (\$586,705), or £1 5s. 1d. (\$6.10) per head. The Boiler Makers and Iron and Steel Shipbuilders, with 48,776 members, spent £82,697 (\$402,445), or £1. 13s. 11d. (\$8.25) per head. Mr. Percy Alden^(a) says that the highest rate of payment with which any society begins is 18s. (\$4.38) per week (London Coach Makers), and the lowest 3s. 6d. (85 cents) (a textile union).^(a) Many of these unions, though not all, have special unemployment dues, so that the

^a The unemployed, p. 58.

payment becomes a regular insurance premium against unemployment. "In England," says Mr. Alden, "there are over 200 unions giving unemployed benefit, these unions being chiefly found in the engineering, iron, shipbuilding, building, textile, clothing, and printing trades. As a rule the payments to the unemployed are graduated on a descending scale, but there is no uniform rule, and there is a growing feeling among trade unionists that a high scale of payment established at the outset tends to encourage the malingeringer."^(a)

THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

Trade unionism is not so strong in Germany as in Great Britain, and naturally does not do so much in unemployed benefits, but the following table, compiled from the recent report upon unemployment by the Labor Department of the German Imperial Statistical Office, gives for 1904 the facts as to unemployed benefits of the German unions.^(b)

EXPENDITURES OF THE GERMAN TRADE UNIONS FOR 1904.

Societies.	Unemployment (in loco).	Strikes.	Victimized and locked out men (Gemasregeln).	Unemployment (traveling).	Moving.	Other benefits (sick, death, etc.).	Total of benefits.	Total of all expenses.
Trade unions (Gewerkschaften).....	\$380,063	\$1,359,985	\$127,618	\$153,943	\$147,967	\$425,034	\$2,595,210	\$4,221,823
Hirsch-Duncker trade unions (Gewerksvereine).....	(b)	c 57,276	a 16,984	74,260	235,063
Christian trade unions (mainly Roman Catholic).....	d 31,740	(b)	14,013	45,753	e 169,384
Independent societies (1903).....	6,962	283	631	244	11,572	19,662	161,530

^a Including expenditures for cases of distress.

^b Included in expenditures for strikes.

^c Including expenditures for unemployment.

^d Including expenditures for trade disputes.

^e Other Christian unions not yet joined had total expenses of 382,943 marks (\$91,140).

This shows that, including benefits paid out for traveling and moving, something like 3,000,000 marks (\$714,000) was paid out for unemployment in 1904. The membership of the unions in that year was as follows:

Trade unions	1,052,108
Hirsch-Duncker unions.....	111,889
Christian trade unions.....	118,917
Independent societies.....	74,458
Total.....	1,357,372

^a The Unemployed, p. 58.

^b Die bestehenden Einrichtungen zur Versicherung gegen die Folgen der Arbeitslosigkeit. Teil III., p. 239.

This makes an average expenditure of over 50 cents per head for each member of the unions. The rates of payment to the unemployed were about 30 cents per day for an average of about 125 days. Members are generally entitled to support after a membership in the union of three months (in some cases six months).

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

In Austria-Hungary, according to the *Gewerkschaft*, the organ of the Austrian trade unions (Social Democratic), the amount of benefits paid out for unemployment by the Austrian unions in 1905, with 323,099 members, was nearly \$149,000, and for traveling benefits \$24,000, or together about 54 cents per head. The similar amounts paid out by 40 Hungarian unions, with 71,173 members, were \$33,550 and \$8,000, or about 58 cents per head.

THE GHENT SYSTEM. ✦

A system which has been successfully operated in several countries of Europe and is now being extended to others is the so-called Ghent system, which is said to have originated in 1900 in Ghent, Belgium.

The creation of the plan followed the report of a special commission on unemployment, which reported April 10, 1900. The idea was to make grants from a municipal fund to trade unions which had unemployment benefits; the subsidy to be granted to the trade union to be proportionate to the amount of the unemployed benefit paid by the trade union. There was a section of the scheme which was to apply to nonunionists who paid dues to a special fund for the purpose, but this portion of the plan has proved a total failure. The plan of making grants to the trade unions, however, has been a marked success. The plan was adopted October 29, 1900, and since then has been only slightly changed. The exact details are of interest, as the plan has worked with marked success and has been copied in practically all the Belgian cities and is now being introduced into France, Holland, Denmark, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, Scandinavia, and other countries. The rules as modified down to February 22, 1904, are as follows:

ARTICLE 1. There is established by the city of Ghent and its suburbs ("The Ghent Agglomeration") a special fund to encourage provision against unemployment. This fund shall receive from the communal administrations of the Ghent Agglomeration annual subsidies, the amount of which shall be determined by the communal councils according to needs and circumstances.

Each subsidy shall be payable January 1. The affiliated communes shall pay interest at the rate of 3 per cent per annum on all sums paid after the date when they are due.

The city of Ghent shall advance the cost of administration of this fund. The other communes shall contribute to this expense in proportion to their population.

The subsidies of the various communes shall be carried in a special account, each commune being required to look out for the needs of the unemployed having residence within that commune.

ART. 2. This fund shall be administered by a committee elected every three years. Ten members of this committee shall be appointed by the communal council of Ghent. Each member shall have an alternate, who shall replace him in case of resignation.

Three of the delegates from Ghent shall be communal councilors and five shall be members of the associations of workingmen and of employees affiliated with the fund.

Any member who shall have absented himself without cause for three consecutive meetings shall be considered as having resigned, and provision shall be made for his replacement.

The communal council shall fill all vacancies which may occur in the administration of this fund through resignation, retirement, or otherwise.

The burgomaster of Ghent, or an alderman delegated by him, shall have the right to preside at the meetings of this commission. In such cases he shall have a casting vote, but only in case of a tie.

Each one of the suburban communes affiliated with the fund shall also have the right to appoint one delegate, who shall have the same rights as the ten delegates of the communal administration of Ghent.

ART. 3. The resources referred to in article 1 shall constitute the ordinary budget of the unemployment fund.

These resources shall be employed exclusively to aid the workingmen and salaried employees of the affiliated communes in getting adequate unemployment benefits.

To these ordinary resources may be added the proceeds of subscriptions, festivals, bequests, or other donations.

These extraordinary resources, other than the communal subsidies, shall constitute a special account which the committee shall have power to employ for the purpose of combating the effects or causes of unemployment in any manner which may seem to it to be most efficacious.

ART. 4. The special fund shall encourage provision against unemployment in the following two ways:

First. By adding to the insurance benefits granted by the trade unions to their members out of employment;

Second. By augmenting the efficacy of savings made with the purpose of combating the financial consequences of unemployment.

ART. 5. The special fund shall increase the insurance benefits accorded by the labor unions by granting the unemployed a subsidy proportionate to the amount of the unemployment benefit.

The unemployment benefits shall not be increased by more than 100 per cent nor be granted to one member for more than sixty days per annum nor amount to more than 1 franc [19 cents] per day.

Strikes and lockouts or their consequences, as well as illness and physical incapacity for work, shall not be reasons for indemnification by the unemployment fund.

ART. 6. Associations of workmen and salaried employees who wish to have their members participate in the subsidies of the present fund shall report each month the number and amount of benefits which they have paid, and must submit annually the balance sheet of their operations, as well as forward their by-laws and regulations.

ART. 7. The committee shall appoint an auditor, whose duty shall be to examine into the correctness of the information furnished by the associations and individuals.

This auditor shall have the right to control all the books of the participating associations in regard to insurance against unemployment and to communicate to the committee the data thus obtained.

All the members of the committee shall pledge themselves not to divulge any personal information which they have obtained from the said books.

ART. 8. Any association or person refusing to submit to the requirements of these by-laws and the regulations which shall be adopted shall immediately cease to participate in the subsidies.

The committee is authorized to impose regulations for the purpose of control, to which all the associations and persons affiliated with the fund must submit within three months after notice to those concerned. Under the same conditions it can adopt general measures for the purpose of removing abuses which have been brought to its notice.

The retirement of the offender shall cease after he has submitted to the measures imposed.

ART. 9. Workmen and salaried employees not belonging to a trade union affiliated with the fund can participate in the subsidies granted to those who save to provide for unemployment.

The subsidies shall be given in one of two ways: Either directly to individual saving persons or to members of associations affiliated with this part of the unemployment fund.

ART. 10. By submitting to the measures of control prescribed by the regulations every unemployed workman and salaried employee who is a bona fide possessor of a savings account in the general savings and retirement fund can, when he makes withdrawals of savings, obtain the same additional payments as members of organizations insured against unemployment.

Every mutual association, cooperative association, labor union, establishment fund, workmen's society, or other group which has organized a system of savings for the purpose of relief of unemployment can be authorized to organize for itself the control under conditions agreeable to the committee of the fund.

The payments granted to owners of savings accounts shall not exceed the amount of those granted to insured persons.

The committee is authorized to permit the affiliation of all associations which, under any form whatever, have for their object the encouragement of provision against unemployment, and is authorized to grant to the members similar subsidies in appropriate form.

ART. 11. Any unemployed person who refuses employment indicated by the committee shall be excluded from participation in the benefits.

The committee shall, for this purpose, put itself into the closest possible communication with other institutions, public or private, which make efforts to overcome unemployment.

ART. 12. Each month the committee shall fix the amount of the additional payment which in case of unemployment shall be made to the amount of the insurance benefits and savings withdrawals.

ART. 13. For those communes of Ghent and its suburbs which consent thereto the committee is authorized to employ the reserves of preceding years and sums especially designated for this purpose, to constitute a special fund with the object of prolonging the period of additional payments to workingmen and salaried employees who continue to be unemployed after their benefits have been exhausted.

These special subsidies, which shall be equal in amount to the last additional payments received, may be granted for half of the length of time for which benefits have been obtained.

ART. 14. The committee shall publish annual reports of its operations.

ART. 15. The committee shall adopt at its first meeting regulations indicating the details of organization, the exact conditions of participation, and the formalities to which the payments shall be subject.

The Ghent fund in aid of insurance against unemployment, so constituted, began operations in August, 1901, and a report upon it to the Milan Congress of 1906 shows its success.

The sums paid out by the municipality up to 1905 were as follows:

1901.....	6, 253. 84 francs (\$1, 206. 99)
1902.....	16, 171. 10 francs (\$3, 121. 02)
1903.....	17, 018. 63 francs (\$3, 284. 60)
1904.....	20, 641. 60 francs (\$3, 983. 83)
1905.....	16, 033. 77 francs (\$3, 094. 52)

In 1903 the fund was enabled to increase the amount paid out to those unemployed for a long period. Thirty-three unions having unemployment benefits have availed themselves of the funds. These unions had (1906) a membership of 13,241. The number of unemployed actually aided has not been small. In 1901 (five months) it was 2,089; in 1902, 3,250 for 31,325 days; in 1903, 2,711 for 30,296 days; in 1904, 3,010 for 36,402 days. The activities of the bureau in 1903 spread beyond Ghent to the neighboring villages. The effect upon the unions was to induce them to increase their own unemployment insurance funds and also to build up the unions by making it more desirable for the men to belong to them. The total amount paid out for unemployment from August 1, 1901, to September 1, 1903, was 120,845.70 francs (\$23,323.22), of which sum 36,963.91 francs (\$7,134.03), or 30.6 per cent, came from the municipal fund.

In the part of the original plan devoted to aiding the insurance against unemployment on the part of nonunionists it was proposed to create an especial saving fund for this class, and men out of employment, who had insured themselves in this fund, were to be aided by the general fund in proportion to the amounts they had paid in. This part of the plan was a complete failure.

A report published by the managing committee of the fund in 1903 says of this part of the plan:

The members of this association are authorized to arrange among themselves for the receipt of thrift contributions, and to verify themselves the accuracy of declarations of unemployment, and the fulfillment of the necessary formalities. The requisite special authority for the creation of this thrift fund was given on February 25, 1903, but up to the present time this fund has not, so far as we know, produced any results. In any case the experiment has been in existence for so short a time that it is not possible to draw from it any definite conclusions.

The general plan was so successful that it was soon copied. Antwerp created a fund in 1902 on almost exactly the same lines, only with some cooperation with the Antwerp labor exchange (public employment bureau). This fund, too, has succeeded, and with a still greater effect in increasing the amounts paid by the trade unionists themselves. In 1902 the unions paid in unemployment dues 8,787 francs (\$1,695.89), and received 5,284 francs (\$1,019.81) from the fund; in 1903 they paid 19,050 francs (\$3,676.65) in unemployment dues and received 8,766.12 francs (\$1,691.86) from the fund; in 1904 they paid 27,988 francs (\$5,401.68) and received 14,213 francs (\$2,743.11) from the fund.

From Antwerp the movement spread over Belgium and into Holland. At present every Belgian city having 40,000 inhabitants, except Verviers (where it is being agitated), has adopted the system. Several of the Provinces also have adopted it—West Flanders, Hainaut, and others.

The number of unemployed insurance funds in Belgium and their credits from 1900 to 1906 were as follows:

In 1900, 1 fund, with a credit of.....	1,500 francs (\$289.50)
In 1901, 2 funds, with a credit of.....	11,500 francs (\$2,219.50)
In 1902, 10 funds, with a credit of.....	41,500 francs (\$8,009.50)
In 1903, 16 funds, with a credit of.....	58,150 francs (\$11,222.95)
In 1904, 18 funds, with a credit of.....	60,800 francs (\$11,734.40)
In 1905, 24 funds, with a credit of.....	66,500 francs (\$12,834.50)
In 1906, 32 funds, with a credit of.....	82,650 francs (\$15,951.45)

The number of unions affiliated to these funds, their membership, and the amounts paid out from 1900 to 1904, were as follows:

In 1900, 3 unions, with 289 members, which paid out.....	1,220 francs (\$235.46)
In 1901, 29 unions, with 13,285 members, which paid out.....	19,090 francs (\$3,684.37)
In 1902, 105 unions, with 15,740 members, which paid out.....	68,392 francs (\$13,315.46)
In 1903, 143 unions, with 21,349 members, which paid out.....	72,298 francs (\$13,953.51)
In 1904, 140 unions, with 22,554 members, which paid out.....	84,187 francs (\$16,248.09)

THE FRENCH SYSTEM.

The French system is slightly different from the Belgian.

Following a discussion by the French Chamber of Deputies in 1904 of the subject of the unemployed in France, a fund of 110,000 francs (\$21,230) was voted for 1905 to aid trade union or local associations having insurance funds against unemployment. The plan adopted was the Ghent plan with a few modifications. The money granted was to be paid to the union or association itself, on the condition of its being limited to one trade, that it have at least 100 members, that these members pay an out-of-work due, and that the union or association handle the fund without charge. Only in communes of fewer than 20,000 inhabitants could the unions or associations be mixed, and unions or associations of fewer than 50 members could receive a subsidy if they were also subsidized by the commune. The amount of the subsidy was to be proportioned to the amount granted to the unemployed by the union or association, not to exceed 2 francs (39 cents) per day and for not more than sixty days in one year. A commission of 11 members, of whom 4 were to be administrators of such local insurance funds, was to have the general fund in charge.

By a decree of December 31, 1906, several modifications were made in the law, the principal of which are as follows: Unions or associations having more than 50 but fewer than 100 members may receive grants on condition of also receiving grants from the local commune. Grants may also be made in communes of 20,000 to 50,000 inhabitants to associations composed of representatives of different trades. The minimum grant from the State is fixed at 10 francs (\$1.93) half yearly, provided that the association has had continued existence during the half year and has paid at least 30 francs (\$5.70) in half-yearly indemnities against unemployment. Mutual aid societies having unemployment funds were allowed a representative on the general committee.

The following table, published in the Bulletin de l'Office du Travail for October, 1907 (p. 1043), gives the workings of the plan in 1906:

STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT FUNDS IN FRANCE, 1906.

Class of unions or associations.	Number of funds receiving subsidies.	Average membership of funds.	Number of unemployed.	Days unemployed were aided.	Indemnities paid by the funds.	Amount on which subsidies were calculated.	Amount of subsidies.
Federations.....	3	18,714	5,705	62,720	\$28,414	\$26,667	\$6,401
Local associations:							
Trade union funds of at least 100 members.....	19	14,698	1,506	27,099	9,334	7,146	1,142
Trade union funds of 50 to 100 members, subsidized by the commune or the department.....	1	62	60	553	107	107	17
Inter trade union funds of at least 50 members, subsidized by the commune or department and situated in cities of less than 50,000 population.....	2	174	128	1,504	585	575	93
Trade union funds with traveling benefit.....	6	693	417	417	67
Funds subsidized by application of article 12, decree of December 31, 1906 (a).....	2	100	57	82	33	32	8
Funds subsidized by application of article 23, decree of December 31, 1906 (b).....	1	94	9	156	60	60	10
Funds which have changed their character from one semester to another.....	2	221	23	228	88	88	15
Total.....	36	34,063	8,181	92,351	39,038	35,092	7,753
Funds subsidized for one semester only..	28	4,990	2,141	15,316	3,130	2,793	449
Grand total.....	64	39,053	10,322	107,667	42,168	37,885	8,202

^a Minimum allowed to unions paying at least 30 francs (\$5.70) the semester to the insured.

^b Making certain allowances for the years 1906 and 1907.

Already local bureaus to insure the unemployed have been established at Dijon, Limoges, Amiens, Agen, Asnières, Boulogne, Castres, Cherbourg, Châlons-sur-Marne, Issoudun, Lyon, Mâcon, Tarbes, Bourges, Melun, Vierzon, Toulouse, etc., while Paris is preparing to fall into line.

ITALY.

In Italy the Umanitaria, a philanthropic society to help the needy and the unemployed, has established (July 1, 1906) an endowed unemployment insurance bureau, on the Ghent plan, except that, being endowed, it pays larger benefits. It has already achieved considerable success, as is shown by the following statement from the organ of the Italian labor bureau, the Bolletino dell' Ufficio del Lavoro, April, 1907:

Members relieved	588
Days of relief.....	13,856
Receipts from the unions.....	15,132.25 lire (\$2,920.52)
Contribution of the Umanitaria.....	5,827.75 lire (\$1,124.76)
<i>Total amount of receipts.....</i>	<i>20,960.00 lire (\$4,045.28)</i>

The unions giving unemployment relief were only 24 out of 37. Each one of the out-of-work members received relief for twenty-three and five-tenths days, a sum of 35.65 lire (\$6.88), of which 25.74 lire (\$4.97) were given by the associations and 9.91 lire (\$1.91) by the Umanitaria. The relief per day was 1.51 lire (29 cents), of which 1.09 lire (21 cents) came from the associations and 0.42 lira (8 cents) from the Umanitaria.

The contribution of the unions for the whole number of persons relieved was 72.2 per cent and that of the Umanitaria 27.8 per cent.

Of the 24 unions giving nonemployment relief, those having the most unemployed were the typographical unions, which received the assistance of the Umanitaria to the extent of 69.8 per cent of the total amount of relief given.

OTHER COUNTRIES.

The Ghent system is spreading into other countries. In Germany it has as yet been adopted in only one city—Strassburg. The system, however, is being adopted in Norway, Denmark, Holland, and in at least two Swiss cities—Basel and Zurich. Its development, however, in these countries is yet too new to call for special notice, except that the general adoption of the system is a marked tribute to its merits and success.

INSURANCE AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT APART FROM TRADE-UNION BENEFITS.

The direct insurance of workmen against unemployment by State, charitable, or commercial bodies, apart from the trade unions, has been often proposed and more rarely discussed, but as yet very little tried. In the United States and in England there has been practically no attempt in this line. In Germany, where so much has been accomplished in industrial insurance against old age, sickness, and accident, the important and voluminous report upon the subject of unemployment referred to elsewhere has been issued and an imperial commission has been engaged in the study of the subject. The German accident insurance system allows those who have received accident insurance benefits to continue to receive these benefits even after recovery, if it can be shown that they are still out of work, but endeavoring to find work. For this class of persons this does constitute State aid in case of unemployment.

So far as municipalities are concerned, though Strassburg has in substance adopted the Ghent system of municipal aid to trade unions, and Munich has adopted the principle, while Baden is planning to

introduce the system into all her large cities, apart from aid to trade unions the only actual local attempts at unemployment insurance have been at Cologne and more recently at Leipzig.

Apart from these cities the direct insurance of the unemployed has been tried only in Switzerland, and that with no marked success, though with results which it is important to study.

SWITZERLAND.

The Swiss experiments began with a private bureau for the insurance of the unemployed, established at Bern in 1892, by the League of Manual Laborers through the efforts of Doctor Wassilieff, the labor secretary. It was founded on the principle that each one of its 600 members should pay dues in proportion to the wages earned and receive a benefit when out of work. The bureau, however, soon applied for municipal aid, and it was decided in January, 1893, to make it a municipal bureau. This took effect on April 1 of that year. Its regulations have been altered several times, but in the main its method of working has been as follows: Insurance in the bureau is voluntary upon the part of the workingmen and is open to any able-bodied Swiss citizen not over 60 years of age, living in Bern. Employees of the municipality are compelled to insure themselves. Men who have been insured in the bureau for at least eight (formerly six) months and have paid full 8 monthly premiums, if they have had employment for at least six months in the year, may, during the winter months, claim a daily allowance of about 29 cents a day for single men after they have been unemployed one week. No payment may be for more than ten weeks (originally two months). Unemployment due to incapacity for labor gives no claim to unemployment pay. The payment is about 10 cents more for married men than for single. In 1905 the number insured in the bureau was still 600, two-thirds of whom were married and 50 per cent of whom had been without work at least once between 1903 and 1905. They were almost exclusively from the building trades. In the year 1906-7 21 per cent of the receipts came from the dues of the insured, over two-thirds from the municipality, and about 6 per cent from employers and donations. The amount of the annual grant made by the municipality to cover deficits was increased from 5,000 francs (\$965) in 1894-95 to 7,000 francs (\$1,351) in 1895-96 and 12,000 francs (\$2,316) in 1899-1900. For one year (1900-1901) it was 13,200 francs (\$2,547.60), since which it has remained at 12,000 francs (\$2,316). The insurance bureau is worked in close connection with the Bern municipal employment bureau. The following table gives

particulars as to the number of persons insuring themselves and the number of persons unemployed in each of the financial years from 1893 to 1907:

PERSONS INSURED IN THE BERN BUREAU FOR THE INSURANCE OF THE UNEMPLOYED, AND NUMBER AND PER CENT UNEMPLOYED, 1893-04 TO 1906-7.

Year.	Number of insurers.					Proportion of insurers reporting themselves unemployed.
	At beginning of year.	New insurers during year.	Whose insurance lapsed in year.	At end of year.	Who reported themselves unemployed.	
1893-04.....		404	50	354	216	<i>Per cent.</i> 61.0
1894-95.....	354	126	67	413	226	54.7
1895-96.....	413	357	226	544	325	59.7
1896-97.....	544	290	340	494	242	49.0
1897-98.....	494	118	181	431	295	68.4
1898-99.....	431	235	123	543	375	69.1
1899-1900.....	543	151	109	585	297	50.8
1900-1.....	585	171	159	597	330	55.3
1901-2.....	597	171	124	644	248	38.5
1902-3.....	644	304	229	719	292	40.6
1903-4.....	719	214	335	598	297	49.7
1904-5.....	598	185	190	593	305	51.4
1905-6.....	593	196	175	614	234	38.1
1906-7.....	614	126	169	571	239	41.9

The following table shows the receipts and expenditures of the bureau for each year 1893-94 to 1906-7:

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE BERN BUREAU FOR THE INSURANCE OF THE UNEMPLOYED, 1893-94 TO 1906-7.

	1893-94.	1894-95.	1895-96.	1896-97.	1897-98.	1898-99.	1899-1900.
RECEIPTS.							
Payments by members.....	\$217.09	\$263.79	\$310.77	\$378.57	\$329.64	\$407.13	\$426.82
Contributions by employers.....	183.27	328.81	318.06	316.91	210.37	247.81	286.41
Donations.....	194.14	689.43	226.29	1,111.29	47.42	1,077.60	121.39
Municipal grant.....	913.93	965.00	1,351.00	1,351.00	1,351.00	1,351.00	2,316.00
Interest.....		2.83	7.57	9.91	29.74	19.25	15.95
Total.....	1,508.43	2,249.86	2,213.99	3,167.68	1,968.17	3,102.79	3,166.57
Surplus from preceding year.....			255.07	347.76	1,316.51	900.55	647.99
Grand total.....	1,508.43	2,249.86	2,469.06	3,515.44	3,284.68	4,003.34	3,814.56
EXPENDITURES.							
Expenses of administration.....	184.18	114.91	74.76	31.49	29.43	39.95	17.43
Heal.....	4.95	10.82	17.82	16.79	12.60	16.34	17.12
Contributed to employment bureau.....			96.50	96.50	96.50	96.50	96.50
Payments to unemployed.....	1,319.13	1,869.06	1,932.22	2,054.15	2,245.60	3,202.56	3,191.16
Total.....	1,508.43	1,994.79	2,121.30	2,198.93	2,384.13	3,355.35	3,322.21

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE BERN BUREAU FOR THE INSURANCE OF THE UNEMPLOYED, 1893-94 TO 1906-7—Concluded.

	1900-1.	1901-2.	1902-3.	1903-4.	1904-5.	1905-6.	1906-7.
RECEIPTS.							
Payments by members.....	\$600.65	\$528.92	\$758.59	\$896.79	\$904.41	\$907.60	\$737.78
Contributions by employers...	308.36	16.21	8.10	140.50	233.86	261.82	201.44
Donations.....	293.71	120.24	120.86	94.91	102.29	44.20	14.78
Municipal grant.....	2,547.60	2,316.00	2,316.00	2,316.00	2,316.00	2,316.00	2,316.00
Interest.....	11.27	9.86	21.24	35.61	78.11	141.96	194.38
Total.....	3,761.59	2,991.23	3,224.79	3,483.81	3,634.67	3,671.58	3,464.38
Surplus from preceding year...	492.35	369.81	468.54	1,019.74	2,134.57	3,636.24	6,057.63
Grand total.....	4,253.94	3,361.04	3,693.33	4,503.55	5,769.24	7,307.82	9,521.41
EXPENDITURES.							
Expenses of administration....	75.05	29.58	65.59	68.83	20.26	24.91	90.42
Heat.....	11.58	13.95	9.46	12.27	7.94	23.69	31.92
Contributed to employment bureau.....	96.50	96.50
Payments to unemployed.....	3,701.00	2,501.38	2,598.54	2,287.88	2,104.80	1,202.19	1,892.31
Total.....	3,884.13	2,641.41	2,673.59	2,368.98	2,133.00	1,250.79	2,014.65

* This is not the correct balance of the figures shown in the preceding column, but it is the equivalent of the amount shown in the original official report—2,427.65 francs.

It will be seen from the above table that the bureau does not rest upon a self-supporting basis. The payments by the members in 1906-7 were less than two-fifths of the amount of the payments to the unemployed members. The bureau is mainly supported by the grants of the municipality and by small donations. Nor does it accomplish a large work. The payment of 9,804.70 francs (\$1,892.31) in the last financial year to 239 persons means an average of 41.02 francs (\$7.92) per unemployed person. This can scarcely be called an insurance. It is at best a disguised charity calling out some thrift and saving in those who receive the aid. In 1906, 193 of the members were in the building trades, 394 were laborers, agricultural or otherwise, and 27 were of other occupations. This shows that the bureau is an institution for aiding those in the winter months whose occupation makes them largely idle at that season.

Opinion seems divided in Switzerland as to whether the bureau is a success. It certainly has not accomplished large results, but some argue that it has continued in existence now for fifteen years and has steadily done good, if not large good. It is generally believed in Switzerland that the main trouble with the bureau is that insurance in it is voluntary.

Professor Reichesberg, of Bern, observes that the relatively high proportion of the insured workmen who became unemployed "is connected with the fact that insurance is voluntary, and consequently, as a rule, such men only insure themselves as have been accustomed to become unemployed in the winter months. The number of persons having claims on the fund would probably have been still greater if the men who entered their names as insurers had kept up their pre-

mium payments for a longer time than they did. But, either from carelessness or other causes of one kind or another, a large number of insurers fail to keep up their premium payments and accordingly lose all claim on the fund. It is true that the insured workmen who have been entitled to claim unemployed pay from the fund have so far received what was due to them; but the fund is never certain beforehand that in any given set of circumstances it will be in a position to discharge its liabilities. The fear that this might not be the case led, in the winter of 1898-99, to the reduction of the amount of the unemployed pay after the first four weeks of unemployment."

Dr. E. Hoffman, a member of the National Council from Frauenfeld and author of an important report upon unemployment to the Swiss Federal Department of Industry, remarks: "Only upon one point has a practically unanimous opinion been arrived at—that is, upon the entirely impracticable character of voluntary municipal unemployed insurance—an opinion largely based upon the experience of the Bern fund." (a)

The St. Gallen experiment.

On May 19, 1894, the great council of the Canton St. Gallen gave power to the municipal and communal authorities to establish an insurance fund against unemployment which should be compulsory on all men not earning more than 5 francs (97 cents) per day. Any man earning more than this could be insured if he so desired. Women could be insured either voluntarily or compulsorily, as the managers of the fund thought to be wise. The bureau was established July 1, 1895. The general conditions under which the fund was conducted were as follows: The weekly dues from the insured were to be 15 centimes (3 cents), 20 centimes (4 cents), and 30 centimes (6 cents) for daily wages of 3 francs (58 cents), 4 francs (77 cents), and 5 francs (97 cents). No one was to receive unemployed pay if work could be found for him in the trade to which he belonged at rates current in his district. Payments for unemployment were to begin only after dues had been paid for an uninterrupted period of six months. In case of foreigners a longer period was required. The expenses of administration were to be met out of moneys of the police department. The other expenses of the fund were to come from (a) the dues paid by the insured; (b) voluntary subscriptions and donations; (c) by grants from the municipalities or communes not to exceed 2 francs (39 cents) per person per year; (d) subsidies from the Canton; (e) subsidies, if any should be granted, from the Swiss Federal Government. Payments for unemployment were a daily sum of 1.80 francs (35 cents) for a maximum period of sixty w

^a *Sociale Praxis*, June, 1903, col. 353.

days in any one year to men earning 3 francs (58 cents) or less; 2.10 francs (41 cents) to men earning from 3 to 4 francs (58 to 77 cents), and 2.40 francs (46 cents) to men earning from 4 to 5 francs (77 to 97 cents) a day. In times of necessity the committee of management was empowered to reduce the payment of unmarried men, but not to a lower figure than 1 franc (19 cents) per day. Men whose unemployment was caused through serious misconduct or having ceased to work on account of strike, or who refused work without reasonable ground, or who were incapable of work because of accident, sickness or other causes, or who were in the army, could not claim unemployment pay. Unemployment for less than five consecutive days within three months gave no right to a payment. The committee of management was to consist of 9 members, 2 to be appointed by the municipal council and 7 chosen from the insured workingmen.

The experience at St. Gallen was, if anything, less favorable than at Bern. Great difficulty was found in inducing the workingmen to become insured. Those who did become insured were those receiving the smaller wages. The higher class of workingmen did not favor the plan. Various criticisms were made of the system; the management of the fund was criticised, and the whole experiment soon became so unsatisfactory that the bureau was closed June 30, 1897. In the course of its two years' existence the fund had received from the municipality 22,135.55 francs (\$4,272.16) and from the Canton 6,000 francs (\$1,158). Nevertheless, when the fund was closed there was still a deficit of 4,516.19 francs (\$871.74). Doctor Schanz states that one-fourth of the workingmen of St. Gallen were never insured at all, and that of those who were insured 15.6 per cent were not entitled to make any claim on the fund, in most cases because their minimum period of premium payment had not expired.

The English Report on Agencies and Methods for Dealing with the Unemployed in Certain Foreign Countries, by Mr. D. F. Schloss (1904), speaking of the St. Gallen experiment, says:

One reason for the failure of this scheme is said to have been that the administration of the fund was made part of the business of the poor law department of the St. Gallen municipality, a fact which gave the scheme at once an outdoor relief complexion and added to the hostility of the better situated among the working classes. What is more, the officer in charge of the poor law department, though his work was thus greatly increased, received no extra pay for the performance of his duties in connection with the fund. * * *

The manner in which the scheme was carried out appears to have been very defective. The rules governing the administration of the fund were not properly observed in actual practice. Thus, in the first year of the fund, men who had not fulfilled the requirement that they should have paid their premiums for an uninterrupted

period of six months, and who were months in arrear with their payments, were allowed to receive unemployed pay, merely having their arrears, plus a fine of 1s. 7.2d. (39 cents) per month, deducted from this pay.

Altogether, it may be said that the manner in which this St. Gallen scheme was carried out was so unsystematic and that in its organization so much want of judgment was shown that its value as an experiment is not great. So far as it goes, the experience gained in this attempt to introduce compulsory insurance against unemployment can not be held to be favorable, though, of course, it may not be impossible that a different scheme, better administered, might be more successful. At the same time it appears sufficiently proved that the difficulties in the way of any such system must always be very considerable.

The Basel experiment.

In the spring of 1901 the Basel Labor Federation established a bureau and an unemployed fund on the following basis:

It was to be open to all workmen in Basel, whether trades-unionists or not. Its funds were to come (a) from monthly dues of its members; (b) annual contributions for honorary members; (c) donations and collections; (d) grants from the trade unions; (e) subsidies from the Canton. The monthly dues were as follows: From men earning 4 francs (77 cents) or less per day, 40 centimes (8 cents) per month; from those earning from 4 to 5 francs (77 to 97 cents) per day, 50 centimes (10 cents) per month; from those earning over 5 francs (97 cents) per day, 60 centimes (12 cents) per month. The amount to be paid to the unemployed was to be determined by the management. No one could claim any payment until he had been out of work fifteen days after reporting himself as unemployed. If, in the meantime, he had received work, he was bound to report it, or if he got temporary employment his claim was to be reduced by one day's benefit for every two days' temporary employment.

Unemployed pay could not be given except to those who had made payment to the fund for at least six months. Anyone in arrears with his dues was to pay a fine of 1 franc (19 cents). This system also received aid from the Government, the Basel government contributing, in 1901-2, 1,000 francs (\$193) to the fund, though the management of the bureau is in the hands of the trades-unionists, the Canton, however, being represented on the management. Municipal employees were compelled to be insured in the fund.

The fund has not been a great success. In 1902-3, 1,174 persons were insured in it; in 1904-5, 401, and in 1905-6, 498. Two-thirds of the insured were in the building trades. In 1906, 207 of the 498 members insured were out of work.

The following table shows the membership and financial status of the bureau from 1901-2 to 1905-6:

MEMBERSHIP, RECEIPTS, AND EXPENDITURES OF THE UNEMPLOYMENT BUREAU OF THE BASEL LABOR FEDERATION, 1901-2 TO 1905-6.

	1901-2.	1902-3.	1903-4.	1904-5.	1905-6.	Total.
Active members.....	866	1,174	506	401	498
Honorary members.....	91	86	69	(a)	(a)
Unemployed members.....	102	168	106	126	207
Receipts:						
Dues from active members.....	\$417.19	\$451.31	\$333.54	\$356.82	\$370.54	\$1,929.40
Contributions from honorary members.....	\$261.51	\$242.02	\$187.21	\$182.39	\$180.84	\$1,053.97
Cantonal subsidies.....	\$193.00	\$193.00	\$386.00	\$386.00	\$386.00	\$1,544.00
Grants from cooperative society.....	\$193.00	\$193.00	\$193.00	\$193.00	\$772.00
Donations from individuals and from other societies.....	\$76.44	\$43.59	\$13.16	\$5.39	\$1.26	\$139.84
Miscellaneous.....	\$14.85	\$50.35	\$26.47	\$40.14	\$41.95	\$173.76
Total receipts.....	\$1,155.99	\$1,173.26	\$1,139.38	\$1,163.74	\$980.59	\$5,612.97
Expenditures:						
Allowances to unemployed members.....	\$556.23	\$1,038.09	\$759.72	\$853.06	\$1,301.67	\$4,508.77
Other expenses.....	\$82.13	\$97.77	\$66.67	\$59.92	\$190.15	\$496.64
Total expenditures.....	\$638.36	\$1,135.86	\$826.39	\$912.98	\$1,491.82	\$5,005.41

^a Not reported.

In the above table virtually the same results are shown in Basel as in the Bern municipal bureau. The bureau here is no more successful in being self-supporting than the one at Bern, nor does it accomplish large results. In the first two years quite a number joined the bureau, perhaps owing to its novelty, and quickly dropped out, but since these two years, the numbers and their payments have remained fairly steady. This, taken in connection with the fact that most of the members are of the building trades, shows that, while the bureau has not met a general need, it is made use of by a steady proportion of men whose occupation involves more or less suspension of work in the winter months. For them the bureau is a help. Men making use of the bureau year by year come to be known by the management. The officers of the bureau know who are reliable men. Sources of waste and weakness are eliminated. The advocates of the work of the bureau argue that while this bureau and that of Bern has to be aided by the Canton, it must be remembered that in some way in every country the unemployed are an expense to the community, and the question arises if this way, which makes the unemployed pay something, is not one of the best ways to aid them. It is noteworthy that the Swiss Federal Council in 1907, while voting federal aid to the public employment bureaus, voted to consider still further the question of federal aid to the bureaus of insurance against unemployment. The conclusion seems to be that while these bureaus are not to be declared wholly failures, as some writers assert, their usefulness is not yet great, and they are to be classed rather as small but interesting experiments.

GERMANY.

The experience in Germany with unemployment insurance has not been essentially different from that of Switzerland. As stated above, no attempt has been made for any scheme of this kind for the Empire. In only two cities have there been experiments in this line—Cologne and Leipzig.

The Cologne bureau for insurance against unemployment in winter was established May 9, 1896. The system adopted (according to the rules as amended in 1898 and again in 1901) is as follows: The object of the bureau is to provide, with the assistance of the Cologne employment bureau, an insurance against unemployment during the winter (December 10 to March 10) for the benefit of male work people in the Cologne district.

Membership consists of workingmen, employers, honorary members, and other contributors. Employers make one payment of 300 marks (\$71.40), honorary members pay 5 marks (\$1.19) annually, workingmen pay 1 mark (24 cents) or over per month.

The receipts are composed of the dues of members, contributions of societies, donations of employers and benevolent persons, and subsidies by the city of Cologne.

Originally workingmen of 18 years or over, who had lived at least two years in Cologne, were admitted on payment of uniform dues of 25 pfennigs (6 cents) per week for twenty-six consecutive weeks, beginning April 1. These conditions have been changed several times in a number of ways. The weekly dues must now be paid for thirty-four weeks, and their amount was first changed to 35 pfennigs (9 cents) for mechanics, while unskilled laborers were to pay 25 pfennigs (6 cents). The residence required for membership was reduced from two years to one (March, 1898), and for soldiers honorably discharged during the autumn to six months (March, 1901). In March, 1903, the dues were raised to 30 and 40 pfennigs (7 and 10 cents), respectively, and in March, 1905, to 35 and 45 pfennigs (8 and 11 cents), respectively. A provision was introduced that only workingmen who have a regular trade should be admitted as members; idlers and temporary inhabitants of the city are excluded.

The insured receive 2 marks (48 cents) per day for twenty days if married, and 1.5 marks (36 cents) if single. For thirty days thereafter the amount is reduced one-half in each case. Later the distinction between married and single people was abolished, and 2 marks were paid to all insured for twenty days and 1 mark for twenty-eight days after.

These benefits are forfeited if a member has not paid his dues; if he was permanently unemployable at the time he entered the organization; if he has lost his work through sickness or old age; if he has

a claim upon sick benefit, accident, invalid, or old-age insurance; if he lost his work by his own fault; if he declines suitable work when offered, and if he leaves Cologne. It is held that the imperial insurance fund covers most of these cases.

The general management of the organization is representative of the interested classes. The chief burgomaster of Cologne is president, and the executive committee consists of the head of the general employment bureau—a municipal institution—and 24 members, 12 of whom are elected by the insured, and 12 patrons or honorary members, six of whom must be employers and six neither employers nor employees. All members have the right to vote at the annual meeting.

One of the greatest advantages of this organization is its close connection with the municipal employment bureau, since many members—90 per cent in 1904-5—are thus given work, even during the winter. This relieved the treasury to such an extent that the city did not need to make a contribution for several years. The moral effect of getting work is of course evident.

Experience has shown that the working people have not been enthusiastic concerning this scheme. Unskilled laborers were unable to pay the dues, and skilled mechanics who had a fair chance to be employed during the winter did not care to insure. The organization became, consequently, an institution chiefly for skilled workingmen who were certain to be unemployed during the season; for example, carpenters, masons, etc. These men draw, of course, more than they pay in, and the organization is therefore less an insurance institution than one of disguised philanthropy for which employers, honorary members, and the city furnish the means.

A comparison for the different years shows the growth of the organization.

PERSONS INSURED AND ALLOWANCES PAID BY THE COLOGNE BUREAU FOR INSURANCE AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT IN WINTER, 1896-97 TO 1906-7.

Year.	Persons insured.			Insured persons unemployed.		Days for which unemployed found work.	Days for which unemployed allowances were paid.	Total allowances paid.	Amount contributed by persons insured.	
	Total.	Policies lapsed.	Remaining insured.	Number.	Per cent of those remaining insured.				Total.	Per cent of allowances paid.
1896-97,....	220	88	132	90	72.7	2,181	1,408	\$560.49	\$238.12	42.5
1897-98,....	324	88	236	151	64.0	2,646	2,197	829.52	526.75	63.5
1898-99,....	347	65	282	144	51.1	2,8574	2,0254	795.60	581.85	73.1
1899-1900,....	256	30	226	134	68.1	3,7084	2,7724	1,120.59	478.26	42.7
1900-1,.....	571	25	546	441	82.3	6,4784	12,6584	4,662.28	1,085.70	23.6
1901-2,.....	1,205	100	1,105	842	76.2	15,853	18,2584	7,150.95	2,721.35	38.4
1902-3,.....	1,355	90	1,265	1,008	79.7	28,9464	16,0454	6,856.07	3,424.56	49.9
1903-4,.....	1,624	123	1,501	1,164	77.5	26,7154	22,9104	9,490.77	4,705.78	49.5
1904-5,.....	1,717	121	1,596	1,271	79.6	29,6484	25,0344	10,194.02	4,946.16	48.5
1905-6,.....	1,610	147	1,463	1,087	74.3	28,7144	13,4144	5,627.51	5,160.28	91.7
1906-7,.....	1,255	100	1,155	980	84.8	18,2384	24,0864	9,323.33	4,662.22	49.9

The report of the insurance for 1906-7 shows that of the 1,255 persons insured 38 were from 18 to 20 years of age, 376 from 21 to 30, 423 from 31 to 40, 239 from 41 to 50, 152 from 51 to 60, and 27 from 61 to 70. There were 1,039 married and 216 single persons. Of the 980 unemployed 923 were in the building trades. The number who reported their unemployment immediately on losing work was 535, 307 reported in from 1 to 5 days, 35 in from 6 to 10 days, 24 in from 11 to 15 days, 11 in from 16 to 20 days, 27 in from 21 to 40 days, and 41 in 41 days or over. Sickness was the main cause of the delayed reports. The following table shows the number of skilled and unskilled persons receiving payments for each specified number of days:

PERSONS RECEIVING ALLOWANCES FROM THE COLOGNE BUREAU FOR INSURANCE AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT FOR EACH SPECIFIED NUMBER OF DAYS, 1906-7.

Number of days.	Skilled workers.	Unskilled workers.	Total.	Number of days.	Skilled workers.	Unskilled workers.	Total.
1 to 5.....	24	48	72	31 to 35.....	21	77	98
6 to 10.....	23	75	98	36 to 40.....	14	52	66
11 to 15.....	17	70	87	41 to 45.....	10	32	42
16 to 20.....	38	80	118	46 to 47.....	6	17	23
21 to 25.....	45	99	144	48.....	24	71	95
26 to 30.....	32	80	112				

The following table shows the number of persons receiving each specified allowance:

PERSONS RECEIVING EACH SPECIFIED ALLOWANCE FROM THE COLOGNE BUREAU FOR INSURANCE AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT, 1906-7.

Allowance received.	Number of persons.	Allowance received.	Number of persons.
1 to 5 marks (\$0.24 to \$1.19).....	27	41 to 45 marks (\$9.76 to \$10.71).....	144
6 to 10 marks (\$1.43 to \$2.38).....	40	46 to 50 marks (\$10.95 to \$11.90).....	112
11 to 15 marks (\$2.62 to \$3.57).....	47	51 to 55 marks (\$12.14 to \$13.09).....	93
16 to 20 marks (\$3.81 to \$4.76).....	49	56 to 60 marks (\$13.33 to \$14.28).....	66
21 to 25 marks (\$5 to \$5.95).....	54	61 to 65 marks (\$14.52 to \$15.47).....	42
26 to 30 marks (\$6.19 to \$7.14).....	32	66 to 67 marks (\$15.71 to \$15.95).....	23
31 to 35 marks (\$7.38 to \$8.33).....	43	68 marks (\$16.18).....	95
36 to 40 marks (\$8.57 to \$9.52).....	83		

The following table shows the receipts and expenditures of the bureau for the year ending March 31, 1907:

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE COLOGNE BUREAU FOR INSURANCE AGAINST UNEMPLOYMENT, 1906-7.

Receipts.		Expenditures.	
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount.
In treasury April 1, 1906.....	\$32,905.46	Advertising.....	\$103.27
Subsidy from the city.....	4,760.00	Printing.....	73.70
Annual payments from honorary members.....	610.47	Postage.....	31.14
Weekly dues of the insured.....	4,153.28	Office supplies.....	37.36
Miscellaneous.....	1.43	Imperial industrial insurance costs..	9.69
Interest.....	1,512.03	Salaries.....	539.90
		Rent of office.....	165.29
		Miscellaneous.....	44.51
		Notices.....	27.88
		Dues returned.....	61.06
		Premiums paid.....	9,523.33
		In treasury March 31, 1907.....	33,385.38
Total.....	43,942.69	Totals	43,942.69

The Leipzig bureau insures against unemployment all the year round. Membership is voluntary and is confined to men of 16 to 60 years who have lived in Leipzig for at least one year. The dues vary according to the risks of unemployment in the trades—30 pfennigs (7 cents) per week for the smallest and 60 pfennigs (14 cents) per week for the greatest, with two intermediary classes. The benefits are uniform and amount to 1.20 marks (29 cents) per day for forty-two days, beginning with the fourth day of unemployment, provided the unemployed was not to blame for losing his work. Members who have not drawn benefits for two years receive special privileges, either in an extension of time or in a reduction of premiums. The organization has no connection with any employment bureau and has but few results to show since operations began in March, 1905.

Why Germany has not developed State insurance against unemployment as it has other forms of industrial insurance is a question often asked. Even the Ghent plan, extending as has been stated through several other European countries, has scarcely entered Germany. At Munich the principle of municipal insurance has been adopted, but as yet even here there has been no action. Cologne and Leipzig still remain the only instances of unemployment insurance apart from trade-union benefits in the Empire.

The reason is to be looked for in more directions than one. The German trade unions have not particularly desired it. Committed to social democracy more than in most countries, their members often in conflict with the Government, they have not seemed particularly desirous of seeing the Government enter this field in which they themselves are doing considerable.

A second reason probably is that Germany with its recent rapidly progressing industrial life has not felt the unemployment question quite so keenly as some other countries.

Thirdly, the Government itself has been fully occupied in developing other forms of industrial insurance.

The feeling has existed among Germans that unemployment insurance is on many grounds more difficult to establish and administer than other forms of insurance. Personal questions and moral questions enter much more into this field than in most fields. Few persons will seek sickness or accident in order to get an insurance payment. But people might be tempted to quit work if they could get even a small unemployment payment. These and a multitude of other reasons have probably entered in. It is interesting in any case to consider the conclusions on the subject in the exhaustive three-volume report on unemployment which the Labor Department of the

Imperial Statistical Office made to the Reichstag in 1906. These conclusions are as follows:

Conclusions of the Report of the Imperial Statistical Office of Germany on "The Existing Institutions for Insurance against Unemployment," made to the Reichstag in 1906.^a

The Imperial Statistical Office has no proposals of its own to offer, but has restricted itself to giving a comprehensive account of the existing systems and proposals. From this account it may be concluded that the struggle against unemployment itself has to take the form not of insurance, but partly of preventive measures of a general character, such as the regulation of production, general economic policies, raising the standard of general education, regulation of the conditions of entrance to trades, etc., and partly of finding employment for the existing labor supply, and of creating employment, such as relief work. On the other hand, insurance offers only a relief from the consequences of unemployment without removing the cause.

The statement of the facts concerning unemployment showed that as far as the temporary unemployment of a limited class of persons was concerned, it was an economic phenomenon occurring with some regularity and definiteness, and that on the basis of experience an estimate might be made as to the time of its occurrence as well as to its duration and extent. There would therefore be no insurmountable difficulties to a system of insurance from the purely insurance point of view. Furthermore, it has been shown that the risk of unemployment varies greatly in different occupations, so that the need of relief from the results of unemployment is not uniform in all occupations. On the other hand, it has been shown that in some occupations—such as agriculture, transportation on inland waterways, the building trades—the temporary stopping of work during a certain time of the year is a characteristic of the method of operation of these industries. In part this fact finds expression in the wages paid in these industries, and in part requires special consideration of the importance of such unemployment in view of peculiar conditions in some industries, as in agriculture.

The difficulties of a system of insurance against the results of unemployment come emphatically from another direction. The principal difficulties arise, first, in connection with the determination and definition of what sort of unemployment is entitled to benefits, and, second, in connection with supervising the carrying out of this definition in actual practice. Enforcing the requirement that any offer of work must be accepted by the workman brings further difficulties. The problem of checking or controlling the facts concerning unemployment of large numbers of unorganized and unemployed men has not yet been solved anywhere in actual practice.

In considering those forms of solving the problem which involve the use of the funds of the state for insurance against unemployment, it has been shown that a system of compulsory insurance against un-

^a See Die bestehenden Einrichtungen zur Versicherung gegen die Folgen der Arbeitslosigkeit, Part I, pp. 665-667.

employment for all workmen—the effort in St. Gallen was the only practical attempt of this kind—places burdens on classes of occupations for which the risk of unemployment either does not exist or is very slight. On the other hand, adjusting the premiums to correspond to actual risk is extremely difficult. Aside from the question of the necessity of giving the insurance such a scope, it was also shown that systems of insurance against unemployment for all workmen, when managed by government officials, have to make use of certain tests, and have to restrict the definition of what sort of unemployment is entitled to benefits. Workingmen would probably regard these tests and limitations as a restriction on their freedom of migration and as an interference with the objects sought by their unions. This is particularly true both in the treatment of a workman who voluntarily gives up his place and the requirement that a workman must accept any job offered to him.

If the insurance system covers a large number of persons, the risk of its abuse is very great. The check afforded by the employment bureau alone has not yet shown itself as sufficiently effective, as it is still possible, while receiving benefits, to secretly get a position or to get partial employment. It is as yet unsettled whether, under the conditions prevailing in large cities, the employment bureau will ever be in a position to accomplish what a universal unemployment insurance system requires.

The solution offered by voluntary insurance against unemployment can count only on those persons who themselves realize their need of insurance. Experience has shown that, aside from the organized workmen, these persons are but few in number. To judge from previous experience, in the worst situated workmen there is lacking, first, the personal initiative to take out the insurance, and, second, income sufficient to pay the premiums regularly. Unemployment insurance funds of the voluntary type, therefore, can depend on enrolling only a very limited number of workmen, and those will be of the better situated class. In the existing voluntary funds it is those engaged in the building trades especially who have made provision of this kind.

A compromise between the compulsory and the voluntary systems of insurance which has many advantages consists of the system of granting subsidies to the existing institutions for the relief of unemployment. The subsidies are granted to (a) workingmen's associations and (b) other organizations which, through public officials, provide aid in case of unemployment. In Belgium this plan has been adopted by the communal administrations and in France by the national administration. Since in most countries the proportion of workingmen who are organized is relatively small, the greater part of the workingmen are not included in such a system. The plan to remove this difficulty by providing an equal relief for the unorganized workmen through granting subsidies to savings has everywhere been proved to be difficult of execution. Such arrangements, wherever tried, have so far not attained any degree of importance. On the other hand, general insurance funds for unorganized workmen to complete the system have never yet been established, but would be required to equalize the system in favor of the unorganized workmen. An extension of the system in use in Belgium and

France is contained in the proposals made to the commissions considering this problem in Norway and Denmark. These proposals all seek to remove the serious objections raised against a one-sided grant to labor unions only, by suggesting a better method than the creation of savings institutions for unorganized workmen. With the exception of Belgium, all solutions involving the participation of the Government are either in their first stage of development or are only projects, and have as yet not produced results which would permit of a definite conclusion as to their value. As far as the participation of the communes is concerned, the experience of Belgium, on the whole, has not been unfavorable. The serious difficulties connected with this solution of the problem have already been discussed in the report.

For a limited class of workmen, assurance against the results of unemployment through various systems of self-help without the assistance of public funds, has been successful to an increasing extent in all countries. This has taken place partly through the labor organizations and partly with the assistance of cooperative consumers' societies. Workingmen, however, only partly admit that self-help alone is the normal form of assurance against the results of unemployment; they take the ground that leaving workmen to systems of self-help burdens them unjustly, that unemployment is a consequence of the existing economic order, and that therefore the cost of the assurance should be borne by society as a whole. In this connection, however, it should not be overlooked that this reasoning can not be restricted to workingmen; exactly the same claim could be made for any person who is economically dependent, and this in consequence would lead to the demand for a state insurance of everyone not independent in the economic sense.

The objection that leaving workmen to systems of self-help burdens them unjustly is also raised against the system of compulsory saving which has been proposed as a substitute for insurance against unemployment, and which, in opposition to the insurance principle of "all for one," is based on the individualistic principle of "each for himself."

All proposals are agreed and all practical experience has shown that for every form either of insurance or of unemployment relief the existence and development of employment agencies is of the highest importance.

UNEMPLOYED RELIEF WORKS.

A means of relief for the temporarily unemployed is the provision of relief works by the municipality, state, or other government, philanthropic, or charitable body. Normally such relief is not, or at least should not be, necessary. Especially is this the case if there be developed a good system for finding men work and again of insuring against unemployment until they do find work. Yet frequently there come periods—in some countries almost every winter—when even the most skilled and those most anxious for work can not find it, when trade unions are unable adequately to help their members, and when no system of insurance against unemployment has yet

been found able to meet the requirements. In all countries various forms of relief works have been instituted at such times with manifold results of experience and frequently with success. Such relief works when offered are made use of somewhat by the trades-unionist and the skilled artisan temporarily thrown in need, but more usually they are needed by the nonunionist, the unskilled and the lower class of labor bordering upon the unemployable.

On this subject Great Britain has had more experience than any other country.

This study is of especial importance to America, for during the hard times of 1893-94 most of the larger American cities tried one form or another of relief works. With the exception, however, of the vacant-lot plan American attempts have been so desultory, so short-lived, and usually so unsuccessful, that there is especial value in learning how England, beginning under conditions in many ways similar to American conditions, has nevertheless worked out some very definite conclusions and some distinct successes.

English efforts, especially those made in times of exceptional distress, have resembled the American efforts to meet the problem, and from these efforts a considerable amount of experience has developed.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Great Britain's modern experiments began in 1861. The winter of 1860-61 was unusually severe, and a fund of about £40,000 (\$194,660) was raised in London and distributed mainly through the police courts. Again in 1863-64, chiefly on account of the cotton famine, there was great distress in Lancashire from lack of work. A special measure was enacted, placing £1,200,000 (\$5,839,800) at the disposal of the authorities to organize relief work, and sewers and similar works were undertaken. A total of 7,838 men were employed and paid from funds provided by the act, and it was estimated that about 38,014 persons were supported by means of the public works.

In 1886 a fund known as the Mansion House Fund was raised in London, but it is generally thought that it was not wisely spent. Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, at that time president of the Local Government Board, issued a circular emphasizing the great need of providing work for the unemployed which would not pauperize. It enumerated various kinds of work and laid stress on the advantages of spade labor. It also recommended "That the wages paid should be something less than the wages ordinarily paid for similar work, in order to prevent imposture, and to leave the strongest temptation to those who avail themselves of this opportunity to return as soon as possible to their previous occupations." The Local Government Board under these conditions promised to facilitate loans. The distress, however, con-

tinued, and the next year the Mansion House Fund was revived, in order to assist the Metropolitan Gardens Association, which had for two previous years given some work to the unemployed. As a result of an appeal £5,303 (\$25,807.05) was raised and 394 men employed. Of these men it is said that little more than a hundred were permanently benefited, and none of them belonged to a trade or a friendly society, a fact which may be noted in nearly all relief works carried on by private charity.^(a) In 1892 other efforts were made. Thirty-three parishes in London undertook special relief work, mainly in street cleaning and repairing, sewers, etc. It was very differently conducted in different parishes, occasionally wisely, but usually with poor results. The amount of work given varied from two to six days per week. Wages varied from 4d. to 8½d. (8 to 17 cents) per hour, and from 3s. 2d. (77 cents) to 4s. (97 cents) per day. Outside of London work was given in 63 districts. The Mansion House Committee raised £1,315 (\$6,399), of which £565 (\$2,750) was paid in wages, £417 (\$2,029) for emigration, £108 (\$526) for relief, £83 (\$404) for tools, etc; 224 men accepted and performed relief work at 6d. (12 cents) per hour. The work was restricted to casual dock laborers; it was given mainly as a test, but good work was required and obtained.

This same year a royal commission on labor presented a report with considerable evidence bearing on the unemployed problem. Wide interest was aroused, and Mr. Fowler (later Sir Henry Fowler) published a Local Government Board circular emphasizing the necessity of cooperation between the boards of guardians and other local authorities so as to avoid pauperization.

In the winter of 1893-94 work to the unemployed was given by 27 district authorities, 7 in London. The most important of these were the relief works of West Ham and Poplar. In the case of West Ham between £2,000 (\$9,733) and £3,000 (\$14,600) was raised partly by grant from the municipal exchequer and partly by donations. The work consisted mainly in digging and leveling ground for the city, the men being employed for four days a week, six hours a day, at 6d. (12 cents) an hour.^(b) Mr. Alden says, regarding this:

The work was considerably more costly than it would have been if performed under contract, but the following facts must be borne in mind: In the first place, although these works would not have been undertaken under ordinary circumstances, the playing grounds thus created are still a valuable asset to the community as regards health and recreation. Secondly, a large number of the men were so physically weak that it was some considerable time before even the willing were able to do a hard day's work. These men must inevitably have

^a Percy Alden, *The Unemployed*, p. 9.

^b *Id.*, pp. 9, 10.

received outdoor relief, owing to the congested state of the workhouse, but for the unemployed fund. It was far better that they should make some return of labor for the wages they received than take doles of food and money from the guardians and be thereby pauperized.^(a)

In 1895 new efforts were made; a House of Commons committee on distress from want of employment was appointed to consider the possibility of giving satisfactory relief, either in the shape of work or in any other way, with the view of tiding over the winter. The Local Government Board addressed a circular to the mayors of towns and the chairmen of district councils requesting information as to employment. The result of the inquiry showed that in 454 localities, with a population of 10,381,607 persons, there was exceptional distress due to the severity of the winter, and that in 154 localities, with a population of 3,722,372 persons, there was an exceptional want of employment due to local or general industrial causes apart from that due to the weather. The full report of the House of Commons was made the next year, 1896, but it reached few important conclusions. It was felt that the question was still in an experimental stage and that no important successes or results had yet been reached.^(a)

Between 1896 and 1903 very little was done. A somewhat general prosperity and the calling off of a large number of men to the South African war relieved for the time the pressure of the problem. But at the close of the war and on the return of the volunteers, together with some depression in trade, the unemployed question was again before the country. A national conference was called in the spring of 1903, attended by 587 delegates, representing 123 city and borough councils, rural district councils, boards of guardians, etc., with 118 trade unions, employers' associations, etc. The findings made by this conference were important. Perhaps the most important conclusion, however, was that the problem was a national problem and could be satisfactorily worked out only on a national basis—that is, the uniting of local efforts into a system under the supervision of the National Government. It was therefore urged that the Government appoint a minister of labor with a seat in the cabinet, one of whose duties should be to deal with the problem of unemployment and to devise and to promote plans both for the temporary and permanent utilization of the unemployed labor of the nation.^(b)

The same year a conference on the subject was called by the London County Council, which adopted a report October 27, 1903, calling upon the Government to take up the problem in a national way and to appoint a minister of labor.^(b)

^a The Unemployed, pp. 10 and 11.

^b The Unemployed, pp. 13-15.

It is thus significant how, after considerable experience, those who have studied the question in Great Britain have felt the need of organization to meet the problem from a national standpoint, as has proved necessary in Germany.

The following winter, 1903-4, the Mansion House Committee made some interesting experiments in connection with labor colonies; but these are considered elsewhere. In March, 1904, a bill was introduced into the House of Commons by Sir John Gorst to further the establishment of labor colonies. The same year the board of trade made its report on "Agencies and Methods for Dealing with the Unemployed in Certain Foreign Countries."

The main event of 1904, however, was the conference called by the metropolitan boards of guardians by Mr. Long, president of the Local Government Board. While not believing that there was any grave crisis and while refusing to allow any imperial money to provide employment, he did make certain recommendations. London was to be formed into one area and provision was to be made: First, for those resident in London temporarily disabled; second, for those who had been frequently or permanently in the workhouse and who it was believed could be reclaimed if put on the land; third, for the hopelessly irreclaimable who, it was proposed, should be detained in colonies. It is thus seen that the Government realized that the problem is a somewhat permanent one and must be met by separate action for various classes of the unemployed.

April 18, 1905, Mr. Gerald Balfour introduced into the House of Commons an unemployed bill which, after various alterations in the House and in committee, was passed and considered a great step forward, but did not sanction any expenditures to carry out the work, and the bill was therefore very much criticised by the friends of the movement. Early the same year (1905) Mr. Rider Haggard was appointed to report upon the agricultural and industrial settlements established in the United States by the Salvation Army, with a view of the practicability of adopting a similar plan, to be put in execution perhaps in Canada, and to which England could send some of her unemployed.

An unemployed fund which finally amounted to £153,635 (\$747,665) was formed on the initiation of Queen Alexandra in November, 1905. At first it was proposed that the fund should be disbursed by the distress authorities, under the Unemployed Workmen Act, but this plan was afterwards modified by allowing discretionary subscriptions to the fund to be applied through the medium of charitable agencies.

In the following pages is given a statement of the work of the distress committees under the Unemployed Workmen Act, 1905, in

England and Wales during the first six months of the application of this law:

PROCEEDINGS OF DISTRESS COMMITTEES UP TO MARCH 31, 1906.

Applications received and entertained.

The following table gives particulars of the applications received and entertained by the committees:

APPLICATIONS RECEIVED AND ENTERTAINED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN LONDON AND OUTSIDE OF LONDON, SIX MONTHS ENDING MARCH 31, 1906.

	Committees taking proceedings.	Applications received up to March 31, 1906.	Applications entertained.		Per cent of total applicants and dependents considered of estimated population (1905).
			Applicants.	Dependents.	
Distress committees in London	29	39,728	23,838	69,038	2.0
Other distress committees	85	71,107	49,979	130,927	1.6
Total	114	110,835	73,817	199,965	1.7

It will be observed that 37,018 of the applications were not entertained during the period mentioned. All these were, however, not rejected applications, for it is understood that in some instances the committees limited their investigation to the number of applicants for whom there was immediate prospect of finding work, and that in other cases the committees were only able to investigate a proportion of the whole number of applications by the 31st of March. It appears that 3,080 cases, or less than 3 per cent, were rejected solely on account of the applicants having received poor-law relief.

Ten distress committees acted for areas bordering on London, namely, the boroughs of Croydon, West Ham, East Ham, and Hornsey, and the urban districts of Edmonton, Erith, Leyton, Tottenham, Walthamstow, and Willesden. The number of applications received by these committees was 13,931. Of these, the applications of 11,808 persons were entertained. The number of dependents of the latter, so far as ascertained, was 33,504. The percentage of applicants, whose cases were entertained, and their dependents in these areas to the total population of the areas was 3.6.

Of the total number of applicants to the distress committees only 1,434 were women. Of these 575 applied to distress committees in London.

The census (1901) returns show that the male population (including young persons) engaged in occupations of all kinds in the 114 districts numbered 4,576,524. Calculated on this basis, and disregarding any increase between 1901 and 1905, the total number of men who applied to the distress committees and whose applications were entertained represented 1.6 per cent of the working male population. Similarly calculated, the male applicants to the distress committees in London whose cases were entertained formed 1.7 per cent of the working male population of London.

The largest numbers of applications to distress committees outside London were received in West Ham (4,692), Newcastle-on-Tyne^(*) (3,679), Leeds (3,387), Liverpool (3,075), and Bristol (2,900). In the metropolis six distress committees, viz, those of Fulham, Battersea, Hackney, Lambeth, Camberwell, and Islington, had between 2,000 and 2,500 applicants each.

In a few cases in which the returns give information on the subject it appears that the majority of persons applying were found to be married men with families.

* Three thousand six hundred and seventy-nine applications were received at the labor bureau taken over by the committee; record papers were filed in for only 673 persons to whom the committee supplied work.

Ages and occupations of applicants.

The return shows the ages of the persons whose applications were entertained by the committees, as follows:

PERSONS WHOSE APPLICATIONS WERE ENTERTAINED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN LONDON AND IN LONDON AND THE PROVINCES, BY AGES, SIX MONTHS ENDING MARCH 31, 1906.

Age.	London.		London and provinces.	
	Number.	Per cent of total of all ages.	Number.	Per cent of total of all ages.
Under 20.....	279	1.2	1,645	2.2
20 or under 30.....	5,413	22.7	18,389	25.1
30 or under 40.....	7,509	31.5	21,516	29.3
40 or under 60.....	9,450	39.6	27,610	37.6
Over 60 years.....	1,187	5.0	4,227	5.8
Total.....	23,838	100.0	73,387	100.0

* Not including 430 persons whose ages were not classified.

The occupations of the persons whose applications were entertained are shown in the following table:

PERSONS WHOSE APPLICATIONS WERE ENTERTAINED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN LONDON AND IN LONDON AND THE PROVINCES, BY OCCUPATIONS, SIX MONTHS ENDING MARCH 31, 1906.

Occupation.	London.		London and provinces.	
	Number.	Per cent of total of all occupations.	Number.	Per cent of total of all occupations.
General or casual labor.....	11,995	50.3	37,902	51.5
Building trade.....	5,934	24.9	16,648	22.6
Engineering, shipbuilding, and metal trades.....	1,156	4.8	5,416	7.4
Boot and shoe making.....	231	1.0	1,284	1.8
Furnishing and woodworking trades.....	555	2.3	1,112	1.5
Food, drink, and tobacco trades.....	422	1.8	942	1.3
Domestic service.....	378	1.7	789	1.1
Textile trades.....	38	.1	745	1.0
Tailoring and clothing.....	117	.5	289	.4
Printing and paper trades.....	181	.8	323	.4
Other occupations.....	2,831	11.9	8,103	11.0
Total.....	23,838	100.0	73,353	100.0

* Not including 264 persons whose occupations were not classified.

The numbers registered in the building trade were highest in Plymouth (920), Bristol (883), West Ham (857), Camberwell (629), Hackney (592), Battersea (590), Brighton (565), and East Ham (503). It will be seen from the details that this trade was very largely represented in London and the neighborhood.

It will be understood that the persons classified in the above table as belonging to particular industries did not in all cases necessarily belong to the class of skilled laborers. It is evident from observations made in reports of the committees that some proportion of these were unskilled, or relatively less skilled hands; on the other hand, there is evidence that in some instances men preferred to register themselves as of the "casual or general labor" class in the hope of securing employment from the committees, which in the main consisted of rough, unskilled work.

Provision of work.

Of the 73,817 persons whose applications were entertained by the distress committees up to March 31, 1906, 41,321 are stated to have been provided with work.

Six distress committees outside London, among those which received applications under the act, reported that no work had been provided, viz, those for Hanley, Huddersfield, Aston Manor, Stockton-on-Tees, Gorton, and King's Norton and Northfield. In all these cases the number of applicants registered by the committees was small.

The following table shows the number provided with work by or through the medium of the committees:

PERSONS PROVIDED WITH WORK BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN LONDON AND OUTSIDE OF LONDON, SIX MONTHS ENDING MARCH 31, 1906.

	Number of committees providing work.	Total applicants entertained.	Provided with work.	
			Number.	Percent.
Distress committees in London.....	29	23,838	9,443	39.6
Other distress committees.....	79	49,263	31,878	64.7
Total.....	108	73,101	41,321	56.5

In the case of London men were selected by the committees from their registers (*a*) to fill the places allotted to the several committees by the Central (Unemployed) Body on the farm colonies, on work in the parks, etc., and on works carried out by certain borough councils to which the Central (Unemployed) Body contributed a proportion of the cost; and (*b*) to take up employment offered independently of the Central (Unemployed) Body, by the borough councils, and in some instances, by boards of guardians, the Metropolitan Asylums Board, etc.

As regards the work provided by the Central (Unemployed) Body, the following extract from a report made by them may be quoted: "On December 18 work was begun at Chingford (city corporation scheme). Operations were begun on January 22 at Long Grove on work offered by the London County Council, and on January 29 in 21 of the council's parks and open spaces. Schemes proposed by His Majesty's office of works were accepted and work was begun in Hyde Park on February 1 and on Primrose Hill on February 5. Cleaning out ponds in Clissold Park began on March 15 and the formation of a bathing lake on Tooting Common (in conjunction with the Wandsworth borough council) on March 19. The number of men employed on the foregoing works on March 31 was 851. Schemes of work were also arranged for with the borough councils of Battersea, Bermondsey, Camberwell, Fulham, St. Pancras, Shoreditch, and Wandsworth, the work consisting of laying out open spaces, recreation grounds and burial grounds, reducing a street gradient and piping and filling up ditches."

Provincial distress committees made use to some extent of their powers to carry out works providing employment for persons on their registers. But a majority of the men employed through the medium of these committees obtained work from the town or district councils, while smaller jobs were also provided in some cases by boards of guardians, asylum committees, and other bodies. In many such cases, the distress committees contributed toward the cost of the work.

The returns do not show that a large number of persons obtained employment with private employers through the instrumentality of the committee.

The following table shows the numbers provided with work by the various methods above alluded to:

PERSONS PROVIDED WITH WORK IN LONDON AND OUTSIDE OF LONDON, BY METHODS USED, SIX MONTHS ENDING MARCH 31, 1906.

Method used.	London.		London and provinces.	
	Number.	Per cent of total employed.	Number.	Per cent of total employed.
Through the Central (Unemployed) Body for London.....	a 4,382	46.2	4,382	} 33.3
By distress committees.....			9,392	
By local authorities.....	a 4,004	42.2	21,691	52.4
Through other agencies.....	1,105	11.6	2,881	7.0
Total.....	b 9,491	100.0	c 38,346	c 92.7

^a Including 48 men who received employment both from the central body and a local authority.

^b See note *a*.

^c Not including 3,023 persons (or 7.3 per cent of the total) who received employment, but were not classified in the returns.

The nature of the work provided, the rates of pay, and some other details were required to be shown in the returns furnished by the distress committees, where such work had been provided by the committees or by local authorities with the assistance of contributions from the committees.

The work appears to have been mostly of a rough character, such as street cleansing, drainage work, road making or repairing, leveling, digging with a view to cultivation, excavation, etc.—pick and shovel work generally. In some cases work of a more skilled character, such as painting and building, was found, but several committees deplore their inability to provide suitable work for skilled hands.

The average time worked per head varied considerably. The plan of giving a limited number of days (three or four) in a week was fairly common. In Norwich the men worked on an average for six and a half weeks of four days each; in Bradford over eight weeks of twenty-eight hours a week; in Oldham four weeks of three days each. In West Ham the men provided by the distress committee with work (other than farm colony work) appear to have been engaged in four day shifts, about a third of them getting two such shifts, or eight days in all. More than a fifth of the men only obtained one shift of four days, and the average time for the whole number employed was rather less than eight and one-half days. In Wolverhampton, on the average, four and one-half days' work per man in all had been provided up to March 31, and in Edmonton the corresponding amount was three and three-fourth days' work.

The rates of pay appear to have varied between 4d. (8 cents) and 6½d. (13 cents) an hour for the rough unskilled work, the commonest rates being 5d. (10 cents) and 5½d. (11 cents). Where more skilled work could be given to suitable men, e. g., carpenters, builders, etc., the pay was higher. Applicants employed by the local authorities at the instance of the committees were stated in several cases to have received the current rates of pay.

The value of the work performed by the applicants employed by the distress committees or local authorities was very generally reported as inferior to that of work performed under ordinary conditions. The work seems frequently to have occupied longer time and required more supervision than is usual.

Labor exchanges and employment registers.

According to the returns received, 19 distress committees established labor exchanges or employment registers, and 13 committees took over existing exchanges. As regards the first-named cases it appears, however, probable from the returns that the labor exchange or employment registry established was in some cases not in fact separate from the registry established by the distress

committee under the act. Similarly in the case of some of the labor exchanges taken over by the committees it would seem that the work of the exchange was merged in that of the committee, although there is evidence that many of the committees proposed to continue again the labor exchange during the summer when the registry established under the act had been closed.

The opinions expressed as to the value of the labor exchanges, etc., were diverse. Several committees report favorably. Thus the Kingston-on-Hull committee state that 200 men had found work through the medium of the exchange, and describe it as a useful adjunct to the work of the committee. At the same time, several reports point to the difficulty of inducing employers of labor to apply to the exchanges, particularly in the earlier stages of their work.

Emigration and removal.

Twenty-five distress committees aided the emigration of applicants. The number of persons emigrated up to March 31 was 155, with 284 dependents (including 77 wives). The large majority emigrated to Canada.

In some instances it appeared that a larger number of persons applied for emigration than the number actually assisted to emigrate prior to March 31.

The number of applicants assisted by committees to remove to other areas was 43, with 19 dependents. The lack of means of obtaining regular information as to the demand for labor in other districts is pointed to as a cause of the little that was effected in this direction.

The assistance for emigration and removal was stated in most cases to have been given by way of loan.

The emigration and removal of persons within the metropolis was carried out by the Central (Unemployed) Body.

Acquisition of land—Labor colonies.

Four distress committees outside London hired or otherwise acquired land for the provision of temporary work for unemployed persons, namely, Southampton (47 acres); Leicester (18 acres); Oldham (6 acres), and Bradford (8 acres).

The only distress committee outside London to establish a farm colony was that of West Ham. In this case a market garden estate of 204 acres at South Ockendon, in Essex, was purchased for £7,000 [\$34,066], toward which a single donation of £2,000 [\$9,733] was received. Accommodation on the land was provided for 100 persons. In the aggregate 137 persons were admitted to the colony up to March 31, 1906, and the average period of employment for each person was fifty and four-tenths days. The average rate of pay, per week of forty-eight hours, worked out at 22s. 7½d [\$5.51] per man; this included 10s. [\$2.43] to 13s. 6d. [\$3.28] allowance for dependents, 6d. [12 cents] tobacco money, 1s. [24 cents] to 5s. [\$1.22] bonuses, and 8s. 5½d. [\$2.06] the cost of lodging, fuel, clothes, food, medical and traveling expenses. The receipts from the working of the colony amounted to £12 9s. 8d. [\$60.75].

With regard to the labor colonies under the management of the London (central) body, it appears from a report made by them that (i) in respect of the Hollesley Bay colony, the central body took over responsibility for the men already in the colony on December 12, 1905, and arranged for the dispatch of fresh men up to a total of 350. The average daily number of men employed was 237; (ii) temporary colonies were established at Osea Island, where, on March 31, 69 men were employed, the work consisting of sea-wall repairing, road making and trenching; on the estate of the Garden City Company at Letchworth, where, on March 31, 108 men had been provided, on an average, with work; and at Fumbridge, where work for the prevention of encroachment by the sea was provided. Eighteen men were thus employed on March 31.

Finances of the distress committees.

The expenses incurred by distress committees in London were in accordance with the act to be defrayed out of a central fund under the control of the Central (Unemployed) Body, and are not shown in the appended return.

As regards the Central (Unemployed) Body for London, it appears that the total receipts from all sources during the period from November 23, 1905, to March 31, 1906, amounted to £46,757 [\$227,543]. This amount included £45,095 [\$219,455] from the Queen's unemployed fund. Out of the contributions called for from the rates, only £1,502 [\$7,309] was actually received up to March 31,

1906, but expenses chargeable against the rate contribution account were incurred in excess of this sum, and these would ultimately be met out of the contributions received after March 31.

The total expenditure during the same period amounted to £32,718 [\$159,222], including £27,044 [\$131,610] expended on various works (inclusive of farm colonies) and £5,674 [\$27,613] for salaries of officers, establishment and other charges. Included in the sum of £5,674 [\$27,613] is £4,440 [\$21,607] in respect of expenses incurred by distress committees with the consent of the central body.

Of the 89 distress committees outside London, 11 had no receipts or expenditures up to March 31, viz: Barrow-in-Furness, Coventry, Grimsby, Huddersfield, Ipswich, Merthyr Tydfil, Preston, Rotherham, West Hartlepool, Stockton-on-Tees, and Handsworth. Of these, however, three (Ipswich, Coventry, and West Hartlepool) had had no operations under the act of any kind.

The total receipts and expenditures (other than from loans) of the remaining 78 committees were as follows:

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF 78 DISTRESS COMMITTEES OUTSIDE OF LONDON, SIX MONTHS ENDING MARCH 31, 1906.

Receipts.		Expenditures.	
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount.
Queens' unemployed fund.....	\$201,098.38	Provision of work.....	\$224,282.38
Other voluntary subscriptions.....	91,811.39	Labor exchanges, employment registers, and collection of information.....	30,396.16
Rates.....	88,774.69	Emigration or removal.....	8,973.83
Other receipts.....	11,407.08	Other expenditures.....	8,852.16
Total.....	393,091.54	Total.....	272,504.53

The amounts raised in the various boroughs by voluntary subscriptions varied greatly. The largest amounts were collected in West Ham (£3,329) [\$16,201], Manchester (£3,515) [\$17,106], Norwich (£1,530) [\$7,446], Brighton (£1,300) [\$6,326], and Bristol (£1,240) [\$6,034]. In several cases no receipts of this nature occur.

In five cases the amounts contributed from rates were £1,000 [\$4,867] or over, viz: Leicester (£2,000) [\$9,733], West Ham (£1,500) [\$7,300], Bradford (£1,360) [\$6,618], and Cardiff and Portsmouth (each £1,000) [\$4,867].

Of the expenditure for the provision of temporary work £25,514 [\$124,164] was expended on work provided by the committees, £18,612 [\$90,575] was contributed to local authorities or other bodies toward the cost of work provided by them, and £1,961 [\$9,543] was expended by the distress committee of West Ham on the farm colony provided by them.

This portion of the report is given in full, as it sums up the English experience to 1906. In December, 1905, however, a new cabinet came into power, and Mr. John Burns, the well-known trade-unionist member of Parliament was appointed to the liberal cabinet as president of the Local Government Board which has charge of unemployment questions. He made the above report in March, 1906.

Before the end of the year the Queen's fund had reached a total of over £130,000 (\$632,645), much having already been distributed. During January and February the fund continued to be distributed, over £50,000 (\$243,325) going to London. The remainder was distributed over the country in sums varying from about £2,000 (\$9,733) in greater centers of population to sums as low as £25 (\$122) to £30 (\$146) to towns of the size of York and Reading.

During the winter there were several demonstrations of the unemployed, including one February 12 in Hyde Park.

ds of

men marched from the Embankment to the park. A further demonstration, arranged by the Right to Work Council, was held in Queen's Hall, presided over by J. Keir Hardie, and addressed by Michael Davitt, H. M. Hyndman, Bernard Shaw, G. N. Barnes, and other labor members of Parliament. During February Mr. Burns declared emphatically against labor colonies under boards of guardians, a point on which those interested in the problem have always been divided. He decided, however, that distress committees might pay full rates of wages so long as they did not give a full week's work and so encourage the idea of permanency. He also allocated £200,000 (\$973,300) from the national exchequer for their use.

The Central Unemployed Committee for London during the winter organized eight schemes, which provided work for 3,500 men for periods varying from eight to sixteen weeks. The cost of these works was £50,000 (\$243,325), of which £42,000 (\$204,393) was received from the Queen's fund. The committee paid a trade-union rate of wages for the work. The Salvation Army sent to Canada some thousands of emigrants during the winter. In March one ship took 1,400, of whom 1,000 were breadwinners.

In no year previous to 1906 had such serious attempts been made by central and local administrators to grapple in some practical way with the problem. The act of 1905, despite its weakness and limitations, did a great service in allowing the provision of machinery unconnected with, at any rate uncontrolled by, philanthropic or denominational bodies.

With the opening of the year 1907 distress was widespread, especially in East and South London. On January 1, 1907, there were 17,560 names on the books of the 51 London and provincial public employment bureaus. This was despite the facts that during December occupation had been found by the bureaus for 3,400 persons; that the distress committees had provided periods of work for 8,245 persons, the aggregate number of days worked being 67,790, and the total wages paid £10,104 (\$49,171); and that many of the local authorities had also engaged large numbers of men in shoveling snow and street cleaning. Further, the above figures apply almost entirely to men belonging to no trade union or to unions without out-of-work benefit funds. Out of some 600,000 members of these unions, nearly 30,000 were upon out-of-work pay when the year opened.

The numbers provided with relief work by the distress committees during the first quarter of the year 1907 were: January, 13,158; February, 14,621; March, 15,398.

Several councils also started small but permanent works in the way of land reclamation—such as Manchester's scheme for reclaiming land at Boggart Hole Clough and Chat Moss, and the Dudley council

scheme for converting waste land to garden allotments; but these experiments, although on hopeful lines, hardly seriously affected the problem. During the summer of 1907 the numbers of men unemployed, both of skilled and unskilled workers, steadily increased, this not being due to a heavy fluctuation in any one industry, but to a movement covering a large number of industries, including the building trades.

The effect of this movement is shown in the numbers of applicants on the books of the public employment bureaus, which was at the end of May, 15,775; at the end of June, 16,125; and in July rose to 17,608.

The registrar-general's percentages of unemployed for the principal unions were: April, 3.3; May, 3.4; June, 3.6; July, 3.7; August, 4.0; September, 4.6; October, 4.7.

During the ten months from December 1, 1906, to September 30, 1907, the number of applicants registering for employment at the 50 metropolitan and provincial labor bureaus was about 120,000. Of these the bureaus found occupation for over 30,000, and were the means of directing many more to likely quarters of employment.

The reports of the distress committees for the four winter months, December 1, 1906, to March 31, 1907, show that a total of 51,422 applicants were given employment relief amounting to an aggregate of 522,321 days, or 10.1 days per head per month; the wages earned amounting to £79,614 (\$387,442), or £1 10s. 10d. (\$7.50) per head. At March 31 the names of 8,130 applicants for employment stood on the books of the distress committees.

For the winter of 1905-6 the following tables from the report of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London (dated May 12, 1906) give much instructive detail:

AMOUNTS APPROPRIATED AND EXPENDED ON VARIOUS WORKS THROUGH THE CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY FOR LONDON, TO MAY 12, 1906.

	Wages.	Maintenance of men.	Allowances to families.	Railway fares.	Supervision.	Petty expenses and sundries.
Hollesley Bay.....			\$20,005.36	\$34.06		
Osea Island.....		\$2,281.63	3,688.06	386.24	\$306.08	\$199.49
Garden City.....	\$157.65	1,249.43	3,954.32	392.63	451.41	522.88
Farnbridge.....	70.85	1,089.04	1,296.09	242.55	890.77	775.21
Chingford.....	19,413.60			2,568.74	958.56	139.60
Long Grove.....	18,646.97			3,145.44	835.08	78.74
London County Council parks.....	40,880.16			42.52	4,008.37	1,002.78
Clissold Park.....	7,130.78			2.80	612.85	47.35
Royal parks.....						
Tooting Baths Lake.....	8,506.93			131.13	303.64	
Morley and Bevan homes.....			134.96	17.95		
Women's work.....			5.35	1.50	4.14	
Central office.....						\$875.06
Total.....	\$94,806.94	\$4,620.15	29,173.84	6,966.40	9,311.50	3,641.20

^a For insurance of workmen.

^b See also column "Advances," p. 856.

AMOUNTS APPROPRIATED AND EXPENDED ON VARIOUS WORKS THROUGH THE CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY FOR LONDON, TO MAY 12, 1906—Concluded.

	Plant and tools.	Advances.	Total expended.	Amounts appropriated.	Balance unexpended.
Hollesley Bay.....		£28,162.19	\$48,292.51	\$47,691.70	(b)
Osea Island.....	\$2.43		7,063.98	9,003.03	\$1,939.05
Garden City.....	39.99		6,768.31	14,599.50	7,831.19
Fambridge.....	£2,772.81		7,077.32	38,932.00	31,854.68
Chingford.....	201.98		23,282.57	23,282.57	
Long Grove.....			22,706.83	24,332.50	1,625.67
London County Council parks.....	2,497.47		56,825.08	65,697.75	8,872.67
Clissold Park.....			8,029.73	9,246.35	1,216.62
Royal parks.....		£8,029.73	9,141.70	19,466.00	10,324.30
Tooting Baths Lake.....			152.61	291.99	139.38
Morley and Bevan homes.....			10.99	4,866.50	4,855.51
Women's work.....			875.06	875.06	
Central office.....					
Total.....	5,514.68	36,191.92	190,226.69	£283,864.40	* 94,238.61

* Mainly for maintenance of men and for supervision.

^b Over-advanced. (A further allocation has since been made.)

^c Including contract work.

^d For wages and supervision.

^e Including \$25,579.54 appropriated by various London boroughs.

MEN EMPLOYED THROUGH CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY FOR LONDON AT DIFFERENT DATES IN 1906 (INCLUDING BOROUGH COUNCIL SCHEMES WHERE FIGURES WERE OBTAINABLE).

	Nature of work.	Approximate number of men at work (apart from casual vacancies).				
		Jan. 31.	Feb. 28.	Mar. 31.	Apr. 27.	May 11.
London works:						
Chingford.....	Leveling for playing grounds.	370	372	367	(a)	(a)
Long Grove.....	Double digging for agriculture	300	414	419	60	(a)
London County Council parks.....	Leveling, etc.....	50	1,091	1,484	427	193
Royal parks.....	(i) Leveling and digging gravel.		186	187	144	145
	(ii) Painting railings.....					
Tooting.....	Open-air bathing lake.....			165	220	244
Colonies (country work):						
Hollesley Bay.....	Agriculture and market garden work.	312	293	281	286	288
Osea Island.....	Roadmaking, sea walling, etc.	80	73	69	63	73
Garden City.....	Leveling.....		59	108	125	118
Fambridge.....	Reclamation of land by repair of sea walls.		10	18	110	125
Total.....		1,112	2,498	3,098	£1,369	1,186
Borough council work:						
Battersea.....	Recreation ground.....	(c)	(c)	97	70	27
Bermondsey.....	Laying out burial ground.....	(c)	(c)	40	24	(a)
Camberwell.....	Laying out open space.....	(c)	(c)	49	56	67
Fulham.....	New cemetery.....	38	65	60	57	50
Islington.....	Roadmaking at cemetery.....					(d)
Shoreditch.....	Laying out burial ground.....	(c)	(c)	15	9	4
St. Pancras.....	Open spaces and reducing gradient of road.	76	70	31	32	24
Wandsworth.....	Leveling, ditching, etc.....	21	6	(c)	(a)	(a)
Total.....		£135	£141	262	248	162

^a Closed.

^b Clissold Park only.

^c This total does not equal the sum of the items, but figures are given as shown in official report.

^d Not yet begun.

^e Not including 4 boroughs not reported.

NONCOLONY WORKS UNDERTAKEN OR CONTRIBUTED TO BY THE CENTRAL
(UNEMPLOYED) BODY OF LONDON, 1905-6.

CENTRAL WORKS.

Authority.	Place.	Nature and description of work.	Largest number of men employed.	Rate of wages per hour.	Hours worked per week.	Period of employment.	Estimated total cost to central body.
Epping Forest committee, corporation of the city of London.	Chingford Plain and Loughton.	Obliterating old cultivation marks; preparing cricket and football pitches; plowed land re-dug and leveled.	388	\$0.12	43	Dec. 15-Apr. 20	\$23,286
London County Council (asylum committee).	Long Grove Asylum.	Ditching; grubbing hedges; preparing cricket ground; excavating and forming paths; trimming and shaping banks and general agricultural work.	340	.14	43	Jan. 22-May 9	24,333
London County Council (parks committee).	Battersea Park.	Trenching and digging; removing large mound of debris; turning and incorporating mound of refuse for fertilizing purposes; raising and leveling turf, trimming shrubberies; road construction.	87	.12	43	Jan. 29-Apr. 12	(e)
	Blackheath...	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying; preparing cricket pitches and clearing heath.	66	.12	43	Jan. 29-Apr. 27	(e)
	Brockwell Park.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying; excavating and laying drain.	52	.12	43	Jan. 29-May 5	(e)
	Clapham Common.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying; spreading and leveling soil.	42	.12	43	Feb. 12-Apr. 12	(e)
	Clissold Park.	Cleaning two lakes, repairing banks and islands, making paths, excavating and drain laying, lifting turf and depositing soil from lake, and leveling.	220	.14	43	† Mar. 15	(e)
	Finchbury Park.	Raising level of playground, lifting turf, leveling and relaying, making up and leveling sidewalks.	91	.12	43	Jan. 29-Apr. 20	(e)
	Hackney Downs.	Lifting turf, leveling and relaying, making up sidewalks.	42	.12	43	Jan. 29-Apr. 14	(e)
	Hackney Marshes.	Removing top soil and stacking it for park use, turf cutting, digging holes for tree planting, cleaning river, and making up river banks.	100	.12	43	Jan. 29-May 4	(e)
	Highbury Fields.	Lifting turf, leveling and relaying.	52	.12	43	Feb. 5-May 4	(e)
	Hilly Fields...	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying.	48	.12	43	Feb. 5-Apr. 12	(e)
	Horniman Gardens.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying; making up sidewalks.	66	.12	43	Jan. 29-Apr. 27	(e)
	Ladywell Recreation Ground.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying, making up and rolling sidewalks.	72	.12	43	Feb. 5-Apr. 12	(e)

* Not separately reported. Total for London County...

† Date of beginning. Employment still in progress.

5,698).
906.

NONCOLONY WORKS UNDERTAKEN OR CONTRIBUTED TO BY THE CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY OF LONDON, 1905-6—Continued.

CENTRAL WORKS—Concluded.

Authority.	Place.	Nature and description of work.	Largest number of men employed.	Rate of wages per hour.	Hours worked per week.	Period of employment.	Estimated total cost to central body.
London County Council (parks committee).—Concluded.	Marble Hill, Twickenham.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying; painting seats; getting trench out for water supply to fountain.	54	\$0.12	43	Feb. 5-Apr. 12	(e)
	Parliament Hill.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying; filling in hollows and generally repairing drainage works.	50	.12	43	Feb. 12-Apr. 12	(e)
	Southwark Park.	Digging and leveling football ground.	49	.12	43	Feb. 5-Mar. 16	(e)
	Springfield Park.	Removing top soil and stacking it; trenching and digging around trees.	50	.12	43	Feb. 5-Apr. 27	(e)
	Streatham Common.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying for cricket and tennis pitches.	47	.12	43	Feb. 5-Apr. 12	(e)
	Tooting Common.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying; making up gravel paths.	77	.12	43	Jan. 29-Apr. 12	(e)
	Victoria Park.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying; digging and leveling recreation ground; excavating sand pit.	96	.12	43	Jan. 29-Apr. 27	(e)
	Wandsworth Common.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying.	37	.12	43	Feb. 12-Apr. 12	(e)
H. M. office of works.	Wormwood Scrubs.	Lifting turf, leveling, and relaying tennis courts.	42	.12	43	Feb. 12-Apr. 12	(e)
	Hyde Park...	Excavating gravel and removing sand; removing iron posts, railings.	65	9.97	43½	c Feb. 5	} \$8,70
Wandsworth borough council.	Primrose Hill, Regent's Park.	Trenching on Primrose Hill.	80	9.97	43½	Feb. 5-May 12	
	Tooting Common.	Excavation for bathing lake, 300 feet in length and 100 feet in width; completing same ready for use.	244	.14	43	c Mar. 17	

^a Not separately reported. Total for London County Council parks, £13,500 (\$65,698).

^b Per day.

^c Date of beginning. Employment still in progress at time of report, May 12, 1906.

NONCOLONY WORKS UNDERTAKEN OR CONTRIBUTED TO BY THE CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY OF LONDON, 1905-6—Concluded.

BOROUGH SCHEMES ASSISTED BY CONTRIBUTION FROM CENTRAL BODY.

Authority.	Place.	Nature and description of work.	Largest number of men employed.	Rate of wages per hour.	Hours worked per week.	Period of employment.	Total cost.	Contribution from central body.
Battersea borough council.	Recreation ground, Latchmere road.	Laying out ground as recreation ground.	97	\$0.15	43	Feb. 14 (a).....	\$34,066	\$11,183
Bermondsey borough council.	St. Mary's Church burial ground.	Laying out as recreation ground.	40	\$1.22	43	Mar. 6 (e).....	4,054	1,400
Camberwell borough council.	One Tree Hill, Camberwell.	Laying out as recreation ground.	50	.14	43	Mar. 12 (e).....	4,867	4,867
Fulham borough council.	New cemetery	Laying out same.	60	.14	(d)	Dec. 11 (e).....	34,066	4,506
Islington borough council.	Islington cemetery high road, East Finchley.	Drainage work in connection with borough cemetery.	12	.13	44	June 1 (e).....	1,825	522
St. Pancras borough council.	Highgate road, Camden street, etc.	Laying out of the Highgate road and open spaces and reducing gradient of Camden street.	31	.14	(e)	Feb. 12 (e).....	8,273	2,160
Shoreditch borough council.	Hackney road	Laying out burial ground as an open space.	15	.12	43	(f)	1,825	365
Wandsworth borough council.	a Garratt Park.	Leveling recreation ground.	8	.12	43	Jan. 1-Mar. 3...	3,674	511
	b Kingston road.	Piping and filling up ditch.	17	.14	43	Jan. 1-Feb. 14..		
	c Wimbledon Park	Piping and filling up ditch.	21	.14	43	Jan. 8-Feb. 21..		

* Date of beginning. Employment still in progress at time of report, May 12, 1906.

* Per day.

c Supervision, etc., by borough council free of charge.

d Five days per week.

e Seven and one-half hours per day.

f Not reported.

MEN EMPLOYED ON VARIOUS WORKS LEAVING, FOR EACH REASON, UP TO MAY 12, 1906.

	Chingford.	Royal Parks.	Tooting Common bathing lake.
Prospect of work.....	34	34	5
Misconduct.....	26	1	6
Medically unfit.....	1	8
Emigrated.....	2	1	2
Sickness.....	1	12
Drink.....	3	2
No reason given or own accord.....	81	67	44
Transferred to local and other works.....	24	5
Nervous of water.....	1
Close of work.....	354

MEN EMPLOYED ON COLONY WORKS LEAVING, FOR EACH REASON, UP TO MAY 12, 1906.

	Holles- ley Bay colony.	Garden City colony.	Fam- bridge.	Osea Island.	Morley and Bevan homes
Date of commencement of work	Dec. 12, 1905.	Feb. 21, 1906.	Feb. 22, 1906.	Jan. 16, 1906.	Mar. 15, 1906.
Number of men employed from commencement of work to May 12, 1906	624	222	190	138	8
Number leaving on account of—					
Prospect of work	86	14	14	18	1
Misconduct	14	18	26	26	
Medically unfit	14	2			
Emigrated	26	2		4	
Sickness	11	9	3	5	
Trouble at home	14	3	4	4	
Died	1				
No reason given or own accord	135	55	11	11	
Dissatisfied	6		6	4	1
Army training	2				
Time expired	17				
Transferred to local works	10				
Migrated	1				
Nervous of crossing water			1		
Total leaving	336	104	65	72	2
Number of men at work May 12, 1906	288	118	125	66	6

Details furnished by distress committees showed that under the Unemployed Workmen Act of 1905 there were 38,605 applicants in London up to March 31, 1906, who reported their occupations. The following table shows the number in each occupation:

APPLICANTS TO DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN LONDON, REPORTING AS TO OCCUPATIONS, UP TO MARCH 31, 1906.

Occupation.	Number of appli- cants.	Occupation.	Number of appli- cants.
Building trades	15,436	Dealers	651
Woodworkers	1,657	Transportation	15,442
Metal workers	1,836	Civil and municipal servants	68
Sundry manufacturers	451	Service (various)	863
Printing and paper trades	277	Unclassified	614
Dress	625		
Food and drink	685	Total	38,005

Of 37,569 applicants reporting as to conjugal condition, 29,751 were married, 7,121 single, 583 widowers, and 114 widows.

Of 37,651 applicants who reported their age, 5,326 were from 16 to 25 years of age, 11,149 from 26 to 35, 10,348 from 36 to 45, 6,935 from 46 to 55, 3,295 from 56 to 65, and 598 from 66 to 75.

The above tables show the nature of the relief works established with the cooperation of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London, somewhat of the character of the men employed, and the main results.

Concerning the women's work, and also the colonies established for the unemployed, more detail is interesting.

Upon the difficult question of providing work for unemployed women there has been so much less written and done, compared with

what has been written and done for unemployed men, that the report of the women's work committee is of special interest. This report is taken from the preliminary report of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London to May 12, 1906, and is as follows:

REPORT OF THE WOMEN'S WORK COMMITTEE.

Although both when the Unemployed Workmen Bill was before Parliament, and the regulations issued by the Local Government Board under the act, it was clearly stated that all the provisions of the act would apply to women equally with men, it was some little time before the distress committees or the central body began actively to take up the comparatively novel and particularly difficult task of dealing with unemployed women. On February 10, however, the women's work committee met for the first time, Mr. J. Ramsay MacDonald, M. P., being elected chairman.

Applications and schemes for assistance.

It was ascertained by inquiry among the distress committees that only 338 women had by that time been registered. The committee attributed this to the general assumption that no definite attempt need be made to meet the necessities of women, and to the absence of any previous experience according a prospect that registration would be of any avail. They, therefore, decided to ask the distress committees to make known the facts, by specially emphasizing on all notices issued that women were eligible to be registered as unemployed persons, and they at once began to prepare plans for the provision of assistance.^(a) Proposals for the establishment of a farm colony for women, and of laundries where the washing for the men's farm colonies might be carried on, were deferred, and it was decided to establish a workroom where women could be employed in making outfits and other articles for the use of the colonies or for emigrants sent out by the central body. Arrangements were also made with the Association of Trained Charwomen for the provision of a week's work for a few applicants recommended by the committee, the training of the women in such a way as to improve their industrial prospects being an essential feature of this scheme.

The distress committees were informed of these plans and asked to submit the record papers of cases recommended. In order that the experiments in the provision of assistance might be devised and carried out with constant reference to the character of the applications, the examination of these record papers was delegated to the women's work committee instead of to the classification committee.

Local workrooms.

As, however, by March 31, when the registers were closed, very few additional applications had been received, the scheme for a central workroom was abandoned on April 5, and it was decided as an alternative to invite the distress committees to take the initiative in preparing and submitting schemes for local workrooms for their own cases. These schemes, if approved, would then be undertaken and financed by the central body and managed with the cooperation of the distress committee. In this way it was hoped that local needs would be better met, and experience gained which would be useful in the future.

Several of the distress committees responded sympathetically, but only in the case of Poplar has local work actually been put in hand. The Poplar scheme provides for the employment of 20 women for at least five weeks in a workroom, organized in cooperation with Miss Cheetham of the Women's University Settlement, Canning Town, who is responsible to the central body for its management in accordance with the regulations of the Local Government Board and the requirements of the women's work committee. The workroom was opened on May 14. The women are employed for six hours a day for five days a week, and receive 2s. [49 cents] a day, while those who have families receive an additional allowance, on the same scale as the wives of men on the colonies, in respect of their children. The central body bears the whole expense and

^aA suggestive memorandum on the subject was circulated by the Women's Industrial Council.

provides the material. The product is of course the property of the central body, and consists of garments for sale on the colonies, or for the outfits of emigrants. The vacancies in the workroom not filled by Poplar women have been offered to the adjoining communities of Woolwich, Stepney, Bethnal Green, and Hackney. Only the first two have so far (May 26) sent any cases.

The needs of the emigrants sent out by the central body have also enabled the committee to "obtain" ordinary employment for a few of the best needlewomen among the applicants registered. Eleven women selected by a member of the emigration committee were recommended to apply to Mrs. Vatcher, of St. Philip's vicarage, Stepney, who was responsible for the preparation of outfits for the East End Emigration Fund. The results were most encouraging. Only one proved unsuitable, one did not respond, and two had found work. The other seven worked steadily for nearly a month, and earned on the average about 10s. [\$2.43] a week each.

An analysis of the cases dealt with up to May 3 shows the following results:

Number reported as registered by 24 distress committees.....	338
Number submitted by 10 distress committees as recommended for assistance (to May 3).....	116
Decisions of committee on cases submitted by distress committees:	
Recommended for workroom ^(a)	25
Recommended for training as charwomen ^(b)	15
Migrated to Wisbeach.....	1
Deferred for further consideration.....	4
Deferred for further information.....	17
Rejected as unsuitable or ineligible ^(c)	54

116

In comparing the figures it must be borne in mind that this is the first season in which any organized attempt to deal with unemployed women has been made. This fact affected both the number and the character of the applications and the cases recommended by distress committees. The work of this season has been experimental in a far higher degree even than that of dealing with unemployed men. Many questions—such as the distinction between cases of chronic poor relief and cases of industrial independence, or between exceptional unemployment and chronic under-employment or under-paid employment, and the difficulty of deciding whether or not a woman applicant is normally the breadwinner of a family or is herself dependent on husband or son—arose only in practice and could be decided only by experience. The numbers finally selected have also been limited by the small variety of methods of assistance which it has been possible as yet to provide. The question has also arisen whether the period for which the registers should be open for women is the same as that which is suitable for men, or whether, for example, exceptional distress among women may not be more likely to appear in July, August, or September, than in the winter.^(d)

^a Eleven of these were offered ordinary employment under Mrs. Vatcher in the manufacture of outfits for emigrants. (See above.)

^b Eight of these were offered a week's training at Mrs. Merton's; six did not accept the offer, in four cases owing to the distance to be traveled. Two were trained, and, a satisfactory report having been received, the Association of Trained Charwomen has been asked to register their names with a view to their obtaining regular employment.

^c Husband or son to apply.....	14
Distress committee to assist to obtain work.....	9
Distress committee to refer to guardians.....	5
Distress committee to refer to C. O. S. or other local assistance.....	8
In receipt of regular relief.....	6
Character unsatisfactory.....	4
Supported by son.....	3
Left work.....	2
Refused work.....	2
Too old.....	1

^d On June 1 it was decided by the central body that the register should be opened on and after July 1 next [1906] for the registration of women.

Nothing shows more clearly than this report of the committee how little has been done for unemployed women and how difficult is the problem. A man can, if necessary, be given work away from his home, at least for a time, while a woman, if she has children or other persons dependent upon her, can not be separated from her family. Labor colonies, therefore, have provisions for women only in exceptional ways. As a rule women can not be employed, except occasionally in some clerical way, on public works, and unless special shops or workrooms are opened situations on ordinary work can not be procured for them. The main occupations, therefore, which are open to unemployed men are ordinarily not suitable for women. The above report shows what can be done in this line, but perhaps in regard to women, even more than to men, these conditions and difficulties make it of the utmost importance to have employment bureaus which can find situations for needy women. In this respect the German public employment bureaus have been especially successful.

Labor colonies for the temporarily unemployed who are employable is one of the questions most hotly debated in Europe. It is being demanded by most so-called radicals and progressives that labor colonies be started for both the employable and unemployable. But a considerable number of practical students of the question claim that such colonies, if they do some good, do more harm, and therefore should not be started. It seems wise, therefore, in studying this question, to see what the committees in charge of the English colonies of this nature have to report, and then to discuss their adequacy or inadequacy to meet the needs of the case. The reports are from the preliminary report of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London to May 12, 1906, and are as follows:

REPORT OF THE WORKING COLONIES COMMITTEE OF THE CENTRAL
(UNEMPLOYED) BODY FOR LONDON.

THE COLONY SYSTEM.

The work of this committee, of which Mr. George Lansbury was elected chairman at the first meeting on December 5, consists of the organization and management of works situated so far from London that the men employed do not return to their homes daily, but have to be accommodated on or near the works. These "colonies" may be of two kinds—farm or agricultural training colonies, which, though successive relays of colonists pass through them, are yet permanent institutions; and temporary colonies, or settlements of men housed for a time in a particular place for the purpose of carrying out a particular piece of work. In the permanent colony, however, it may be found desirable to provide accommodation for many more men than it is possible to train, and to use this extra accommodation for the temporary employment in times of exceptional distress of a large number of men upon unskilled preparatory work. Out of this larger number, the most promising will be selected for a more prolonged period of training, while the others will return to London to seek ordinary employment.

The working colonies committee has organized colonies of both these kinds. At Hollesley Bay there is an agricultural training colony with accommodation in times of exceptional distress for 350 men. Temporary colonies have been established at Osea Island, Garden City, and Farnbridge, while a small number of men have been employed under colony conditions at the Morley and Beran convalescent homes in Kent. At Farnbridge it is hoped that the work of land reclamation carried out by the temporary colony may prepare the way for some form of more permanent settlement.

On all these colonies, except in the case of families actually resident at Hollesley Bay for agricultural training, the same conditions of employment are observed. The men are employed continuously for successive periods of a month, returning to London at the end of each month for two days to visit their homes and look for work. They receive board and lodging on the colony and an allowance of 6d. [12 cents] per week, while allowances, based on the size of the family, but in no case exceeding 17s. 6d. [\$4.26], are paid to their families in London.^(a) The central body has endeavored in all cases to have these allowances paid in the homes by friendly visitors, who might use their influence during their regular visits for the assistance of the families and the improvement of the home conditions.

HOLLESLEY BAY.

The colony.

The agricultural training colony is not only the scheme of employment which of all those put in hand by the central body offers most prospect of permanent usefulness, but it is also the one upon which the first parties of men assisted by the central body were employed. The colony was established by the Central Committee of the London Unemployed Fund in February, 1905, the estate and buildings being leased to that committee by Mr. Joseph Fels at a peppercorn rent for three years, with option of purchase, at the original cost price, at any time within that period.^(b) Under the terms of the agreement the estate was to be transferred on the same conditions to any metropolitan authority established to deal with the unemployed, and the offer of the transfer of the colony, which and at the time 170 men working upon it, followed automatically upon the constitution of the central body. The London Unemployed Fund Committee ceased to meet upon the appointment of the central body, and its funds, moreover, were all but exhausted. As a matter of urgency, therefore, the central body immediately undertook the management of the colony, reserving, until its own constitution was completed and the matter could be properly considered upon full information, the question of applying for the sanction of the Local Government Board to the acceptance of the offer.

Operations during the season.

On December 12, therefore, the committee took over the responsibility for the men already on the colony, and arranged for the dispatch of fresh men up to a total of 350. Of the men already there, 40 had been there all the summer and had been "selected," on the recommendation of the superintendent, Mr. Bolton Smart, out of some 200 sent down for three months in the preceding spring, for further training with a view to ultimate settlement in rural industry in some form either at home or in the colonies. The rest had gone down in the autumn. A few cottages were in course of erection, by means partly of unemployed labor and partly of funds supplied by Mr. Fels, for the purpose of transferring from London the homes of some of the selected men for a further period of united family training in rural life. Part of the scheme of work for the larger number of men during the winter was the reclamation of portions of heath land near these cottages for the purpose of providing small holdings for the use of the cottagers. Plans had also been prepared for the transforma-

^a Scale of weekly allowance: Wife 10s. [\$2.43]; first child 2s. [49 cents]; second child 1s. 6d. [37 cents]; other children (under 14 years of age) 1s. [24 cents] each; the total allowance not to exceed 17s. 6d. [\$4.26].

^b See report of the London Unemployed Fund for a full description of the colony and account of its foundation and the operations of the first season.

tion of further portions of the farm land into market garden, for cleaning out dykes, repairing barns, fences, and other woodwork, and making cement bricks for the new cottages. The current work of the farm and the market garden was also carried on.

The colony has not at any time been full. The time taken in selecting applicants, the constant occurrence of vacancies through men leaving for ordinary employment or other reasons, and the weeding out of the incompetent or ill conducted combined to produce this result. In the early part of the season, shortly after the Christmas furlough, dissatisfaction with certain temporary inconveniences incidental to the enlargement of the colony, fomented by a few restless spirits, led to the departure from the colony of 77 men out of a total of 242.^(a) As a rule, however, the conduct of the colonists has been good; their physique has been fair,^(b) and marked improvement has resulted from the fresh air, good food and continuous employment.

The average daily number of men employed has been 237, divided as follows: Inclosing meadows for market garden, 36; reclaiming heath, 25; greenhouses, 6; cleaning dikes and trimming hedgerows and fencing, 19; repairs and additions to buildings, 14; smiths, carpenters, etc., 10; brickmaking, 24; cottage building, 30; ordinary market gardening and farm work, 44; stablemen and carters, 4; shoemakers' and harness makers' shops, 3.^(c) Between December 12, 1905, and May 12, 1906, some 9½ acres of meadow land have been added to the market gardens and 1½ to the orchard. The ground has been cleared, leveled, drained, double dug, and fenced. In the market garden the system practiced, e. g., in the Vale of Evesham, of planting lines of apple trees and bush fruit with rows of strawberries, onions, carrots, etc., between, has been adopted, while part has been planted with nursery forest trees.

In the existing garden 18 acres have been sown or planted with peas, beans, or other produce, and about 1,000 forest trees planted in permanent positions on the estate. Four greenhouses have been erected out of funds specially subscribed to the London Unemployed Fund, and produce has been regularly prepared for market by the colonists and delivered at Ipswich, Woodbridge, and Felixstowe.

Considerable alterations, improvements and repairs have been carried out in various parts of the buildings; nearly a mile of water main to the cottage sites (provided for in the London Unemployed Fund estimates) has been laid, and 75,000 cement bricks have been made, the sand for the purpose having been dug and carted on the estate. Training in farm work, including milking, plowing, etc., has been given to some 70 candidates for emigration.

Training for settlement.

Of the cottages in course of erection by Mr. Fels, two have been completed and four others are nearly ready. One family is already installed, a second is on the point of migration, and the settlers in the other four are now being selected.

Recently a scheme has been adopted by which each man is to be allowed to rent a small garden plot three-fourths of a chain in area at the equivalent of 2s. 6d. [61 cents] per annum, with the option of selling his produce to the colony at market price or of sending it home. This will, it is hoped, increase the interest taken by the colonists in their work and develop enterprise and initiative. It is not to be expected, however, that more than a fraction of the whole number will prove desirous of settling on the land or suitable for it. A considerable number of those sent down by the distress committees were obviously selected only with a view to tiding over a period of exceptional distress. At one time, for instance, there were on the colony 42 men over 45 years of age, of whom 10 were over 50. Those who for this or other reasons are recognized as temporary colonists return to London at the expiration of not later than the period of sixteen weeks allowed by the Local Government Board regulations, while in the

^a Many of the 77 were misled into taking this action and expressed sincere regret. Some of these were subsequently employed at other colonies and proved satisfactory.

^b Every man sent to a colony is previously certified as free from infection or dangerous weakness.

^c Sum of items does not equal total shown; the figures are as given in original official report.

case of those who appear suitable for further training with a view to settlement, application is made to the board for their sanction to an extension of the period.

What form that settlement will ultimately take is still uncertain. For many it will be emigration to Canada. For the rest there will be, as far as accommodation permits, a period of family life on the colony in a cottage with a small holding attached. During this period every effort will be made to train the men and families in the spirit and methods of cooperation, both in agricultural operations and in the collection and marketing of produce. As the limits of the estate will soon be reached for the settlers thus trained, it is contemplated that Hollesley Bay itself should remain the training college through which to pass the men and their families on to cooperative small holdings. The central body has decided, subject to the sanction of the Local Government Board, to purchase an estate near Wickford, in Essex, with the object of developing it in this way.

OSEA ISLAND.

The scheme.

One of the first openings for employment offered to the central body was a scheme of work submitted by Mr. F. N. Charrington, the proprietor of Osea Island, near Maldon, Essex. Similar schemes had been carried out in 1903-4 by the Mansion House committee, and in 1904-5 by the Daily Telegraph fund, and accommodation for 80 men existed on the island. In neither case had recoupment been paid. On this occasion Mr. Charrington agreed to place the buildings and resources of the island at the disposal of the committee and to cater for the men at a weekly charge of 10s. [\$2.43]; to provide materials and plant for the work; and to pay a recoupment equal to 50 per cent of the value of the work done, according to a valuation agreed upon by representatives of the two parties. The central body, in order to make an immediate start with the employment of as many men as possible, agreed to accept these terms, subject to the consent of the Local Government Board. This consent being given, the work began on January 23. A foreman appointed by the central body was placed in charge of the work, while a representative of Mr. Charrington supervised the domestic arrangements.

The work.

The work consisted of sea-wall repairing, road making, and trenching. The first parties of men, though not equal in physique to the ordinary navvies, proved to be willing workers. The exceptionally high tides of March washed away a considerable part of the work done. As a consequence the amount planned out was not completed as soon as had been expected, and on May 12 there was still a fortnight's work left to do. On April 21 the amount accomplished by 60 men, working on the average fourteen weeks, was reported to be as follows:

Sea walling:	Yards.
Original amount to be executed.....	329
Amount of work finished (besides that washed away).....	138
Amount still to be done April 21 (^a).....	231

This includes unloading 1,200 tons of stone and using the same in pitching the wall.

Road making.—Three hundred and thirty-three yards of road has been formed. One hundred and eighty yards of road has to be hard cored (including spreading, rolling, etc.).(^a)

Sewer work.—One hundred and eighty-three feet sewer track, 7 feet 6 inches deep, has been opened and a 12-inch pipe laid the whole length and the cutting filled in. (This work has been very difficult owing to the looseness of the soil, which necessitated the use of close timbering.)

^a This work has since been completed.

GARDEN CITY.

The scheme.

In the spring of 1905 the London Unemployed Fund had carried out a scheme of road making on the estate of the Garden City Company, Letchworth, Herts. Huts had been built by the fund and leased to the company after the completion of the work, under an agreement which provided for their purchase by the company for £600 [\$2,920], if not again required for the unemployed. The Garden City Company had been in communication with the London Unemployed Fund on the subject during the autumn, but it was not until the opening of the Queen's fund had afforded a certain prospect of funds that anything definite could be proposed. The Garden City Company now offered the central body the contract for carrying out some leveling work for railway sidings, which would not otherwise be done for some years, but for which if done now the Great Northern Railway, or failing them the Garden City Company themselves, would be prepared to pay at the rate of 1s. [24 cents] per cubic yard within six months of completion. The amount proposed was 30,000 cubic yards, and it was estimated that it would take 150 men for three months. After a survey and report kindly made by Mr. Sumner, the city engineer, the central body decided to accept this offer. The smallness of the area made it difficult, however, to keep so many men at work, and subsequently the number was reduced to 120, while in order to employ them in the most efficient and economical way a further 10,000 cubic yards—for which the Garden City Company offered to pay on the completion of the work at 1s. [24 cents] per cubic yard, less 10 per cent—was undertaken by the central body. The Garden City Company undertook to supply a set of tip wagons free of charge, to indemnify the central body against damage done by the men by trespass, and to purchase the huts at the end of the period for the sum of £400 [\$1,947]. These terms having been agreed upon, the first parties of men began work on February 21. Mr. Harley Heckford, borough surveyor of Poplar, kindly undertook the preliminary measurements of the work on behalf of the central body. Mr. Stephens, who managed a colony of West Ham unemployed in the same neighborhood last year, was appointed superintendent.

The work.

The work proved simple and straightforward. The ability of the men has been only fair, the average output, after they have had time to benefit by practice and by the healthy colony conditions, being estimated by the superintendent at about three-fifths of that of an ordinary navy. This represents for unemployed labor a fairly high average. The amount excavated up to May 12, when 111 men had been employed an average of eight weeks, was 7,311 cubic yards, while lately the average weekly output for 100 men has been between 1,300 and 1,400 cubic yards. The work will be completed about the middle of August and is estimated to cost £3,600 [\$17,519], and the ultimate recoupment on the above figures may be estimated at about £1,950 [\$9,490].

Local assistance in the colony.

The residents of Garden City have shown the same interest in the welfare of the men which helped so much to make the previous colony a success. Entertainments or lectures have been provided three times a week, and the day rooms kept well supplied with periodicals.

An attempt made to arouse interest in the prospect of obtaining permanent work in the Garden City itself has been less successful this year than last. Two cottages were again offered by Mr. Christie Miller on condition that would-be tenants should have worked for a local employer successfully for a month. Only a few, however, responded to the suggestion, and for one reason or another none proved suitable.

FAMBRIDGE.

The scheme.

Among the schemes brought to the notice of the London Unemployed Fund in the early part of 1905, but deferred by the committee of that fund on account of the lateness of the season and the exhaustion of their resources, was one for the repair of some serious breaches in the north wall of the River

Crouch, near Fambridge, in Essex. Through these breaches some 200 acres of land were flooded every high tide, and local resources had proved inadequate to the repair of the damage. It was hoped that a combined scheme might be arranged, by which a large number of London unemployed could be engaged upon the work, and the feasibility of utilizing unemployed labor for this kind of land reclamation could be tested by experiment.

In the autumn the negotiations were reopened by the London Unemployed Fund, through the medium of the Rev. F. Macleod, rector of Fambridge, and steps were taken to collect information as to the extent of the damage—which had increased during the interval—the names of the parties directly or indirectly interested, and the prospect of securing local cooperation in the cost of the work.

As soon as the central body had met, with the prospect of sufficient funds for the scheme, the negotiations were renewed by the working colonies committee. A conference of all those interested in the matter was arranged for, and after some delay, incurred in the hope of securing the cooperation of the board of trade or the Local Government Board, this conference was duly held at the offices of the central body on January 25. It was ascertained at the conference that there were two distinct sets of breaches, one on the east of the ferry and one on the west, the flooded areas being separated by the embankments protecting the Ferry road. The land flooded through the eastern breaches was the property of Lord Rayleigh, while that flooded through the western was owned by several small proprietors who had been so impoverished by the damage to their land that they could not offer any substantial contribution toward the repair of the walls. Lord Rayleigh, however, announced through his agent that he was prepared, if the central body would carry out the repair of the eastern breaches, to offer them the gift of the 200 acres at present flooded, or as an alternative, a contribution of £1,000 [\$4,867] toward the cost. The committee at once obtained a survey and estimates from Mr. A. E. Carey, M. Inst. C. E., engineer to the Dengie level commission, and upon his report that the work would be practicable with the class of labor available, the central body decided to put it in hand at once, and to apply for the sanction of the Local Government Board to the acceptance of Lord Rayleigh's offer of the land.

The consideration of the question of the western breaches was deferred, pending the results of the work on the eastern side.

The colony.

It so happened that on the south side of the river, opposite the site of the work, there stood a disused factory and a number of iron and brick cottages in which the former employees had lived. It was found that these could be rented at a low cost, and as the extent of flooded land would have rendered it impossible, apart from the time lost and the expense, to create a colony close to the work, it was decided to hire these cottages. The difficulty of getting across the river was overcome by means of a ferry, consisting of a barge capable of holding 120 men, and worked by a winch upon a fixed chain. The river can thus be crossed in ten minutes.

The cottages provide accommodation for 160 men. Each man has a small bedroom, and there is a large hall, part of which serves as a mess room and part as a day room and concert hall. There are also small gardens attached to the cottages and these have been made the means of introducing a new element into the temporary colony. Each man has the use of a small allotment; and prizes will be offered for the best results of their gardening, while the produce will be purchased by the colony. The provision of entertainment has offered some difficulty, owing to the loneliness of the spot. A miniature billiard game has, however, been presented, and occasional concerts have been very kindly given, at the cost of considerable trouble, by residents in the neighborhood.

The first party of men, who went down on February 27, were occupied for the most part in making preparations for the accommodation of the full number, and in so far as any work was done on the north side of the river, they had to be ferried across in boats. The men were consequently not fully employed, and the unsettlement inevitable at the opening of a colony was increased by the inclusion in the first parties of some irreconcilable malcontents. The trouble culminated on March 19, when 24 men out of 27 left the colony. One

of them brought an action for assault against the superintendent which was dismissed by the local magistrates.

On April 5 work on the north side of the river was in full operation, and on April 28 the ferry was in working order and the colony ready for the reception of 160 men.

The work.

The site of the work is about 12 miles from the sea, the river being tidal and running between embankments for some distance above this point. There are two breaches in the main river wall about 600 yards from each other, one being 150 yards in length, the other about 200 yards. Previous attempts had been made in each case to keep out the water by building a semicircular inset wall of clay behind the breach, in the hope that the new walls, thus removed from immediate contact with the scour of the open river, would be able to resist the tide. Both these inset walls had however been subsequently breached in several places, and by the beginning of this year the whole of the 200 acres behind the insets was flooded at high tide to a depth of 4 to 10 feet, while channels 20 feet deep had been scoured in the main breaches themselves. Through these breaches the water draining off so large an area rushed twice a day with the force of a torrent. It was obviously impossible to stop these great breaches without piling, and it was at first proposed to repair the eastern quadrant of the eastern inset and the western quadrant of the western, and to join the two by a new wall across the flat in the rear of the old wall fronting the river. Besides this, the whole of the existing river wall east and west of the breaches required raising by about 2 feet. This seemed to be a scheme which the unemployed could be expected to carry out, in spite of serious difficulties from the rush of water and from the sodden condition of the land on which the new wall was to be built.

The exceptionally high tide of March 10, however, increased the damage to such an extent that this plan had to be abandoned. It was finally decided to have the western or smaller breach stopped by piling, reenforced by an earth embankment, and in the case of the larger breach to repair and considerably strengthen the whole of the inset wall, while a sluice, consisting of three 18-inch cast-iron pipes with tide flaps, has been carried through the base of the river wall and is now in operation. This work, and also the piling, had of course to be done by contractors with proper appliances and with skilled men, while in the meantime the unemployed were engaged upon the work of topping the existing wall. As soon as the rush of water is stopped the whole work will come well within the powers of the unskilled workmen, supervised as they are by a few practiced wallers, under the control of Mr. Scotland, who is accustomed to waterwork, and the general superintendence of Mr. Carey.

From recent reports received from Mr. Carey, it appears that the eastern inset wall, which is about half a mile in length, is now topped to such an extent that it serves as a protection against flooding. He also regards the closing of the main breach on the river wall as within measurable distance of accomplishment.

His last report concludes as follows:

"Speaking generally, I think I may say that the works are progressing rapidly, and that the 'unemployed' labor is proving adaptable to this class of work. On the occasion of my visits, which have been frequent, I have noted a progressive improvement in the way in which the work is taken in hand."

MORLEY AND BEVAN HOMES.

A small number of men have been engaged in painting work at the working-men's convalescent homes at Sandgate and St. Margarets Bay. The central body pays the allowances to the families, the railway fares and the cost of materials. The committee of the homes provides board and lodging. The work is estimated to occupy six men for about nine weeks, at a cost to the central body of about £60 [\$292]. The work and conduct of the men have, so far, been very satisfactory.

Many who are familiar with the work of the colonies urge that they do no good, or that if they do good to a few they harm many more.

and therefore are in the main disastrous. That, in themselves and considered by themselves, they do little for the colonists must probably be admitted. Even for the German labor colonies, considered later in this report, it is not claimed that there is much redemption of character, and in England, where the stay of the colonists is usually for the most part of shorter duration than in Germany, still less is probably accomplished in this direction. That they do harm, too, by removing the unemployed from the ordinary channels of labor into celibate communities, apart from the world, without keeping them there long enough to teach them new habits of work or new industries makes it more difficult for them to find work when they leave the colonies.

Observations made by the writer in November, 1907, especially at Hollesley Bay, somewhat corroborate this view. The Hollesley Bay colony is in some ways most fortunate in its location. The buildings occupied by the colony were formerly used as an agricultural school for gentlemen's sons, and are therefore more attractive than those usually occupied by labor colonists. More room is needed for the present members of the colony, but in the main no one can complain as to the provision for sleeping, eating, or living rooms, while vegetable gardens, flower beds, trees, etc., make the place unusually attractive. Every effort seems to be made for the comfort and enjoyment of the colonists without passing the limits of making the place too attractive. The men, as seen together in the dining hall or scattered for work, seemed fairly intelligent and willing and able to work, and the published reports in the main bear this out.

And yet while all this is favorable the question arises whether the effort produces permanent good. The men are there for a strictly limited time. In almost all cases it is found that they arrive too weak, through lack of sufficient food, to be able for the first few weeks to do much work; after that in most cases they work well. But just as soon as they become able to do good work their time of stay is at an end, and in most cases they return to London to their former condition, little better off in pocket, in training, or in prospects. It is true that places are found for a limited number, that some of the most promising are helped to emigrate to Canada, and that a very few are placed permanently on the land; but for the large majority no permanent good is done.

Nevertheless, from all this it does not follow that in connection with other instrumentalities such colonies have no place. What is done for the few shows what might be done for the many. In connection with other efforts and plans the colony can be made most me-

ful and successful. This is the belief of many of the committee in charge, and especially of Mr. Fels, the giver of the land. Mr. Fels is an American who has been largely interested in the development of the successful vacant-lot gardens in Philadelphia. He knows what men can do with a little land. He therefore has aided this Hollesley Bay colony, not as a thing in itself and by itself of great value, but simply to show what can be done, and as a feeder to a general scheme to getting the unemployed on the land. Hence, Mr. Fels has aided in the erection of a few cottages, where men can be placed on the land with their families and given a chance to show what they can do. And herein lies the real meaning and value of such colonies as Hollesley Bay. Mr. Fels's attitude in the matter was thus expressed to a reporter in July, 1907, when he said:

I put this farm at the disposal of the Central (Unemployed) Body for three reasons. First, my own reason, to try to create land hunger. Secondly, to convince the country at large that the London unemployed could make their own living out of the land if properly organized and humanely handled. The third reason is that I hoped that out of Hollesley Bay would come the establishing of trained men cooperating in small holdings and financed by the community until they were self-supporting and the money advanced returned.

"How far has Hollesley Bay answered your expectations?"

Mr. FELS. "The property is a magnificent one for the purpose of a training college for the common people in the cultivation of the land. As such it has proved itself to be quite successful, so far as it has been allowed to go by the powers that be. The only thing missing has been the proper appreciation of the question by the Local Government Board. That body has signally failed to appreciate the underlying principles for which the colony was provided, in having refused to grant the necessary permission for intensive cultivation, and in having also stopped the experiment short at the crucial point—viz, the shutting out of the training of men on the cooperative holdings."

"What is now necessary, then, to complete the scheme?"

Mr. FELS. "The building of at least 100 cottages and the acquisition of another estate. I have in my mind, of course, the utilization of the unemployed in the building of these cottages, which in itself would have given hope to the whole enterprise. What has already been accomplished there is a convincing proof that a thousand times greater results can be achieved in that single county of Suffolk."

"In view of the action of the Local Government Board, have you any other schemes on hand?"

Mr. Fels answered: "Getting desperate at the slowness of public authorities, I took an abandoned farm $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Althorne, in Essex. About eighteen months' working shows a position something like this: The farm of 400 acres is devoted to dairy farming, the raising of pigs and poultry, and market gardening. It is intended

to be an object lesson to the country as to the way in which derelict farms can be made fruitful. A large nursery has been prepared for growing plants, fruit trees, and bush fruits to supply the small holdings. A French garden has been laid out on exactly the same lines as the thousands of gardens around Paris. This garden is being worked by two competent and experienced Frenchmen, brought over for the purpose. The object of this French garden is to demonstrate how prolific land can be made, even in this cold quarter of Essex, under the French system. The garden is now in extent about 1 acre and employs four men all their time.

"There is also a large range of hothouses.

"The balance of the land has been cut up into small holdings of 5 acres each. Two acres are planted with fruit trees, and on each plot a good London stock brick house has been built, with convenient stable and outbuildings for cow or pony, and pigs and poultry.

"There are 21 of these small holdings completed and tenanted by people drawn from all parts of the country. I believe 3 of them have had previous experience on the land. Of the remainder, 2 are men (with their families) who were trained on the Hollesley Bay colony, and they are quite up to the average of the other 19. The holders of these 21 small holdings represent various trades, including machinists, engineers, bootmakers, harness makers, etc."

"And what is the measure of success?"

Mr. FELS. "You will have to ask me that question two years from now; but as the average men of their class, they will have average success. At any rate, everything points to their being successful."

Replying to a question as to whether any further advantages were apparent in the direction of the larger issue referred to in the beginning of the interview, Mr. Fels said: "Already an agricultural village has sprung up. Not only are the things growing on the farm, but the population is growing also. There are flourishing in this hitherto derelict farm some seventy children, and the parents are already commencing to approach the county council educational authority for the provision of a school, which it is proposed shall be erected on the 7 acres of the farm which have been set apart for public buildings and building purposes. These 21 families have created their own industrial market for the supply of the commodities of life. The formation of the small holdings on the model farm, together with the nursery, glasshouses, and the French garden, etc., have brought together a community of people which has necessitated the calling into being of another community for the purpose of supplying their ordinary needs, thus proving what I said at the beginning—that if you set people to work on the land it will also employ hundreds of other people to supply their needs. A cooperative small holdings society has already sprung into existence, and a considerable business is being done to supply articles which under other circumstances the people would have had to have gone without because of the lack of opportunity and means to purchase them."

The Hollesley Bay colony therefore is not to be judged wholly in and by itself. This is the view, too, of Mr. Percy Alden, M. P., author

of "The Unemployed, a National Question," who writes concerning Hollesley Bay as follows: ^(a)

Three special objects are kept in view by the committee for the conduct of the colony:

(1) The provisions of special work for periods of exceptional distress.

(2) The provision of more continuous work for men who are not only in exceptional need of employment, but who have either already lived upon the land or show a marked aptitude for country life.

(3) The establishment of suitable men and families in agricultural or other rural industries.

In the case of No. 1, as is quite natural, the work of the selected men who are out of employment during a period of exceptional distress will not be so much agricultural as road making, reclaiming heath land, strengthening the sea wall, brickmaking, and the general repair work of the colony. All this can be done without interfering with ordinary industry.

In the case of Nos. 2 and 3, Hollesley Bay will more closely approximate to the type of colony with which we are dealing at present. Taking class No. 2, it is suggested that there should be two stages—

(a) a probationary period of three months, during which the men might live in the colony buildings, their wives and children being supported in London; and (b) a second stage, providing that the period of probation proves the men to have the necessary strength and ability for agricultural work. In this case it is proposed that the wives and children of the men shall be brought down from London, and that cottages be allotted to these families for a period of from six to nine months. Some cottages have already been built and are in occupation.

Following on this second stage in the treatment of class 2 is the definite establishment of selected men and families in agricultural or other rural industries, and it is hoped that not only may ordinary farm or market gardening situations be found for good men, but that finally some of these men may be established on small holdings in the neighborhood of the colony, and this hope would be held out to all who distinguish themselves by industry and capability. Hollesley Bay will be seen thus, supposing that these plans can be carried out to offer the most constructive attempt yet made, either in England or on the Continent, to deal with the question of unemployed labor; and providing that the small-holdings idea can be carried into effect and gradually developed upon cooperative lines the experiment ought to result not only in the absorption of a certain class of genuine unemployed men, but also in the quickening up of rural industries.

Another point here must not be overlooked. It is that the consideration of the labor colony has been only for the temporary unemployed who are employable. For this class the labor colony presents admittedly only a small usefulness, and none at all, unless, as indicated, it leads to something.

^a New Encyclopedia of Social Reform, p. 684.

But for the unemployed who are really unemployable, the situation is wholly different, and for such a labor colony may have large use. These, on the premises of being unemployable, can not get work in ordinary industry on any terms. Yet they can not be left to perish. The question therefore arises whether for members of this class, at least for those without family ties, the labor colony may not be the best provision. It gives them a somewhat adequate and sorely needed shelter at the lowest cost to the community, makes them contribute at least to their own support, saving them therefore from absolute pauperization, redeems into self-support and usefulness perhaps a few, and removes the others from their demoralizing effect upon the community at large. Such is in brief the argument for labor colonies.

Many think that those who criticise the labor colonies as a measure for the relief of the employable unemployed have overlooked or failed to see their usefulness for the unemployable. Before considering other themes such figures are given as are available to bring this portion of the subject down to 1907.

The returns of the distress committees in England and Wales and the Central (Unemployed) Body for London for the year ending March, 1907, says in brief:

The following table shows the number of applications received by the 29 distress committees in London and by such committees outside London as registered applications at any time during the year, and the number of such applications which were investigated and found suitable cases for assistance under the act:

APPLICATIONS RECEIVED AND ENTERTAINED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN LONDON AND OUTSIDE OF LONDON, YEAR ENDING MARCH 31, 1907.

	Committees taking proceedings under the act.	Estimated population (middle of 1906).	Applications received up to March 31, 1907.	Applications entertained.		Per cent of applicants and dependents considered of estimated population.
				Applicants.	Dependents.	
Distress committees in London.....	29	4,721,217	28,181	13,070	37,656	1.1
Provincial distress committees.....	76	10,528,850	58,820	47,346	115,145	1.5
Total.....	105	15,250,067	87,001	60,416	152,801	1.4

* The total (estimated) population of all areas for which distress committees were appointed was, in 1906, 16,341,533.

The total number of applicants registered represented 1 in 175, or 5.7 per 1,000, of the aggregate population of the above districts.

Of the total number of applicants (87,001) 4,188 were women. The census returns show that the aggregate male population (including young persons) en-

gaged in occupations of all kinds in the districts of the 105 committees who took proceedings in 1906-7, numbered 4,362,545. Calculated on this basis, and disregarding any increase between 1901 and 1906, the total number of men who applied to distress committees in the year 1906-7 represented 1.9 per cent of the working male population as compared with a proportion of 2.4 per cent in 1905-6.

The total number of applicants (87,001) to distress committees during the year was more than 20 per cent lower than the number recorded in the preceding winter, 110,835 applications having been received in the six months ended March 31, 1906. The proportion per 1,000 of the population had been 6.9 in the earlier period as compared with a rate of 5.7 in 1906-7.

Further, it appears that many of the applications received during the year were repetitions of applications made in the winter of 1905-6. Information on this point obtained in the returns showed that in as many as 25,104 cases, or more than a fourth of the whole number of applications received, the applicants had also applied in the period preceding the 31st of March, 1906.

The decrease in the number of applicants was in great measure due to the improved conditions of industry and employment, especially noticeable in Lancashire and the Midlands.

Of the 87,001 applications, 14,832 were rejected by the committee on various grounds.

More than five-sixths of the applicants were between the ages of 20 and 50 years, the group of persons aged 30 to 40 actually being slightly the largest.

The occupations of the applicants whose cases were entertained are, so far as they were ascertained, shown in the following table:

PERSONS WHOSE APPLICATIONS WERE ENTERTAINED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN LONDON AND IN LONDON AND THE PROVINCES, BY OCCUPATIONS, YEAR ENDING MARCH 31, 1907.

Occupations.	London.		London and provinces.	
	Number.	Per cent of total of all occupations.	Number.	Per cent of total of all occupations.
General or casual labor.....	6,681	51.1	31,534	52.2
Building trades.....	2,575	19.7	10,709	17.7
Engineering, shipbuilding, and metal trades.....	629	4.8	4,107	6.8
Boot and shoe making.....	106	1.3	1,429	2.4
Furnishing and woodworking.....	322	2.5	988	1.6
Food, drink, and tobacco trades.....	310	2.4	941	1.6
Domestic service.....	323	2.5	1,659	2.7
Textile trades.....	33	.3	573	1.0
Tailoring and clothing.....	148	1.1	369	.6
Printing, bookbinding, and other paper trades.....	115	.9	308	.5
Other occupations.....	1,768	13.5	7,790	12.9

The largest section of applicants belonged to the casual labor class, who as in the previous year formed more than half the total number of applicants.

Of the 60,416 persons whose applications were entertained, 36,280 are stated to have been found, or provided with, work.

Twenty-seven distress committees outside London, in all, reported that no work had been provided either directly by themselves or by the local authority through their agency; but in several of these cases work was found for some of the applicants with private employers.

The following table shows the number of persons who were provided with work by the distress committees or in London by the Central (Unemployed) Body, by local authorities through the medium of the distress committees, and with private employers. But as regards the last-mentioned class, it should be understood that in some instances work was obtained through the agency of the labor bureau or labor exchange and is not included in the figures here given. This was no doubt largely the case in London.

PERSONS PROVIDED WITH WORK IN LONDON AND OUTSIDE OF LONDON, YEAR
ENDING MARCH 31, 1907.

	Through the Cen- tral (Un- employed) Body, and by direct employ- ment.	Through local au- thorities.	Otherwise.	Net total. (*)	Per cent of appli- cants found qualified.
London.....	3,951	1,215	232	5,389	41.2
Provincial distress committees.....	11,692	14,742	5,224	30,891	65.2
Total.....	15,643	15,957	5,456	36,280	60.1

* Including once only persons employed by more than one of the above methods.

In London men were, as in the previous year, selected by the distress committees from their registers to take up work provided for them from time to time by the Central (Unemployed) Body, on the farm and labor colony and other works, on which the men were employed directly by the central body, and on works carried out by borough councils, under the approval of, and with the aid of contributions from, the central body. In addition a certain number of men were employed by borough councils and other local authorities on various works carried out by them independently of the central body.

In the provinces, 32 distress committees provided work by direct employment for persons on their registers, but a large number of men found employment on works undertaken by the local authorities. In more than half these cases, however, the distress committee contributed toward the cost of the work, either to the extent of making good the estimated additional expenditure incurred owing to the unusual character of the labor employed, or by payment of an agreed proportion.

The work was usually of a rough description, such as making and repairing roads, sewerage work, work on pleasure grounds and open spaces, snow clearing and street cleansing, laying gas mains and tramway tracks, etc. In some cases it was found possible to provide more skilled work, such as painting.

The average time worked by each man varied considerably. As on previous occasions, periodic employment of three days or more was given in some instances. In many cases an average of not more than seven or eight days' work or even less could be provided, but in a fair proportion of districts the men obtained several weeks' employment.

The rate of pay was very commonly 5d. [10 cents] per hour, the rates ranging generally between 4d. and 6½d. [8 and 13 cents], while higher rates were paid in a few instances for more skilled work.

The quality of the work performed was reported fairly generally as satisfactory, regard being had to the fact that the men were in many cases unsuited to the work, and that more supervision was necessary than under ordinary conditions.

Besides the work of the class above referred to, a few distress committees outside London availed themselves of their powers to rent land on which men were employed in works of cultivation. In Southampton the distress committee arranged for the use of 47 acres of land from the corporation, on which men were employed for periods ranging from one to sixteen weeks; the Kingston-on-Hull committee similarly obtained 3 acres of land for cultivation, the Leicester committee 18 acres, and the Oldham committee 4 acres.

The farm colony provided by the distress committee of West Ham continued to be the only instance of an undertaking of this nature carried on by a provincial committee. The total expenditure on the colony for the year was £10,135 [\$49,322]. The aggregate number of men employed during the year was 448.

The work provided on the farm colony at Hollesley Bay by the Central (Unemployed) Body for London was maintained during the year, the total expenditure on the year's operations being £24,115 [\$117,357]. The estate on which the colony is situated was purchased during the year for the sum of £34,213 [\$166,498]. One thousand and sixty-three men were admitted in the course of the year.

Of the other works of a somewhat similar character provided by the central body, those at the Garden City (Letchworth) and at Osea Island were closed

respectively in December and May, 1906; the works at Farnbridge continued throughout the year.

The following table shows all the receipts and expenditures of the Central (Unemployed) Body of London for the year ending March 31, 1907:

SUMMARY OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY FOR LONDON, YEAR ENDING MARCH 31, 1907.

Receipts.		Expenditures. (d)		
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount paid—	
			Out of Parliamentary grant.	From other sources.
Rates.....	\$325,471.52	Cost of work: (e)		
Parliamentary grants (a).....	^b 153,976.06	By the establishment and maintenance of farm or other colonies.....	395,461.26	\$194,582.13
Queen's unemployed fund.....	90,594.76	Otherwise.....	61,935.95	35,793.10
Voluntary contributions.....	472.05	Contributions by the central body toward the cost of work (f).....	5,056.29	42,650.00
Transfer from Central Unemployed Committee.....	54,572.93	Cost of labor exchanges, employment registers, and the collection of information.....		28,361.96
Recoupment from London County Council (c).....	18,453.77	In aid of emigration or removal of persons to other areas.....		113,963.09
Proceeds of work done at Hollesley Bay.....	20,629.09	Other expenditures of—		
Sales of women's work.....	3,280.02	Central body.....		34,386.68
Miscellaneous, including bank interest.....	4,715.63	Distress committees defrayed by the central body.....		38,372.35
Total.....	672,165.85	Total.....	162,453.50	488,109.95
		Grand total.....		£ 650,563.45

^a Distributed by the Local Government Board.

^b A further sum of £17,225 (\$83,826) was paid by the Local Government Board before the end of the fiscal year, but was not brought into account till after March 31, 1907.

^c For work done in the parks and elsewhere.

^d Expenditures not defrayed, or intended to be defrayed, out of loans.

^e Provided directly by the central board.

^f Provided by the local authorities or other bodies.

^g Not including expenditure in respect of the purchase of Hollesley Bay estate. A loan of \$173,714.58 was sanctioned for this purpose in December, 1906.

The following table shows the total receipts and expenditures of the Central (Unemployed) Body for London and the distress committees in London and the Provinces:

SUMMARY OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES OF THE CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY FOR LONDON AND THE DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN LONDON AND THE PROVINCES, YEAR ENDING MARCH 31, 1907.

Receipts.		Expenditures.	
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount.
Rates.....	\$438,413.25	Cost of work provided:	
Parliamentary grant (a).....	427,254.37	On farm labor colonies.....	\$339,365.37
Queen's unemployed fund.....	120,051.89	Otherwise.....	438,232.65
Voluntary contributions or collections.....	56,125.34	Cost of labor exchanges, employment registers, and the collection of information.....	67,435.09
Other receipts, including repayments for work done.....	140,658.67	In aid of emigration or removal of persons to other areas.....	153,202.28
Total.....	1,191,533.32	Other expenditure.....	^b 110,015.63
		Total.....	1,108,321.04

^a Distributed by the Local Government Board.

^b Not including £34,214 (\$166,502) expenditure on the purchase of Hollesley Bay estate, and £2,039 (\$9,923) expenditure out of loan by the Bradford (York) Distress committee.

The following table shows the number of persons employed, rates of pay, average time worked, and expenditures for four colonies in 1906-7:

NUMBER OF PERSONS EMPLOYED, RATES OF PAY, AVERAGE TIME WORKED, EXPENDITURES, ETC., FOR FOUR SPECIFIED COLONIES IN THE YEAR 1906-7.

Items.	Hollesley Bay.	Farn-bridge.	Osea Island.	Garven City.
Number of persons—				
Employed at beginning of year.....	281	18	99	168
Admitted during year.....	1,062	915	90	292
Employed Mar. 31, 1907.....	294	165	(*)	(*)
Average—				
Number daily employed in—				
July, 1906.....	150	150	(*)	165
January, 1907.....	308	129	(*)	(*)
Period of employment for each person (weeks).....	11.3	8.4	4.5	9.0
Rates of pay, allowances, etc., to unemployed persons on the works, per week.....	\$5.84	\$5.84	\$5.84	\$5.00
Expenditure during the year for—				
Wages of men.....	\$37,423.04	\$51,247.08	\$3,540.78	\$21,537.16
Materials.....	\$24,644.52	\$13,110.82	32.43	\$263.91
All other items.....	\$5,287.31	\$9,938.00	\$258.38	\$3,810.46
Total.....	\$117,354.87	\$104,396.00	\$3,831.59	\$25,616.54

* Colony closed.

The following table shows the work provided by the Central (Unemployed) Body for London on other than farm and labor colony works:

WORK PROVIDED BY THE CENTRAL (UNEMPLOYED) BODY FOR LONDON ON OTHER THAN FARM AND LABOR COLONY WORKS, 1906-7.

Work provided by—	Number employed.		Average period of employment, weeks.	Rates of pay.	Total amount of wages earned during year.
	Total during year.(*)	Average on one day.			
The central body directly (b).....	4,323	815	3.3	12 to 14 cents per hour.	\$77,878.60
Arrangement with—					
His Majesty's office of works (c).....	496	128	3.2	97 cents per day (d).....	5,023.36
Borough councils—(e)					
Wandsworth Bathing Lake.....	359	347	9.6 6.09	12 to 15 cents per hour.	37,447.72
Other schemes.....					

* The numbers shown in this column are the gross totals of the number of persons employed on the several works.

b Laying out playing fields, trenching, digging, trimming flower beds, cleaning lakes, etc.

c Excavating gravel, removing railings, trenching, widening roads, and turfing on various open spaces.

d For five days a week.

e Laying out recreation grounds, drainage work, excavating, and constructing bathing lake.

For Scotland the following particulars are taken from the report by the Local Government Board for Scotland as to the proceedings of distress committees in Scotland for the year ending May 15, 1907:

APPLICATIONS RECEIVED AND ENTERTAINED BY DISTRESS COMMITTEES IN SCOTLAND UP TO MAY 15, 1907.

Date.	Persons from whom applications were received.			Persons whose applications were entertained as qualified for assistance under the act and the regulations, and of their dependents.					
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Wives.	Children.	Other dependents.
For the period ended May 15, 1906.....	8,695	172	8,867	6,650	121	6,771	4,720	11,208	559
For the year ended May 15, 1907.....	8,676	284	8,960	6,670	227	6,897	3,931	9,833	687

Of the male applicants 57.23 per cent were married men. Of the applicants the majority were between the ages of 40 and 60.

Work was provided for only 45.31 per cent of those who were considered worthy of assistance in terms of the act, compared with 57.9 per cent for the period ending May 15, 1906, while only 21.63 per cent of the number provided with work were similarly assisted during the period ending May 15, 1906. Of the 12 distress committees that provided work, either directly or indirectly, 6 paid the standard rate of wages and 6 paid less than the standard rate.

Only 6 distress committees provided work directly, and some of these to a very limited extent; in most cases the distress committees looked to local authorities, chiefly the town council, to provide relief works rather than initiate such works themselves.

The relief work consisted for the most part of stone-breaking, construction of new streets and sewers, and other miscellaneous jobs involving rough, unskilled work.

It was a common practice to allow the men to work in relays of a week or fortnight at a time where the number of applicants was in excess of the number required to undertake the work that the distress committee were in a position to offer. Married men with dependents were given a preference over single men and widowers with no dependents.

The period of employment varied from six days to eight weeks, the average being thirty-one days in respect of work provided directly by the distress committee, and about twenty-three days for work provided indirectly. The rates of pay varied according to the nature of the work and the skill of the persons employed. Laborers appear to have been paid a wage varying from 3d. to 6d. (6 to 12 cents) per hour.

Mr. Alden, reviewing England's general experience, says that in relief works the main conditions of success are as follows:

1. *The work should be really useful in character.*

2. It should be of such a nature that any willing and industrious man who is accustomed to manual labor can be employed on it.

3. Such work should not be regarded merely as a test of character, but every attempt should be made, by means of inquiry and classification, by proper supervision and superintendence, to insure that a fair return is obtained for the wage paid.^(a)

He quotes an English committee as recommending that—

(1) Men should only be admitted to them after inquiry or on satisfactory recommendation.

(2) The wages and hours should be as nearly as possible according to contract rates.

(3) Care should be taken to supply sufficient overlookers and to group the men according to character and ability.

(4) If a meal is wanted, or clothing, it is better that this should be supplied separately from a relief fund. The employment should be given, as far as possible, in accordance with ordinary business contracts, and not as "charity work," which tends to be as ill done as it is ill paid and to degrade men instead of improving them.

(5) Public and other relief works should be of a local character, planned according to the estimates drawn by the local authorities, and conducted under local superintendence. This will be some guaranty against waste and irresponsibility. Such works only should be undertaken as are likely to create the least disturbance in the labor market.^(b)

It is frequently urged in England that many much-needed national and local improvements could be produced by employing the unemployed. This is the view of all members of the Labor Party, of most British trades-unionists, and of many students of the question.

To further this end a bill was introduced into Parliament in 1907 by Mr. J. R. Macdonald, M. P., and backed by the leading labor Members of Parliament, "to provide work through public authorities for unemployed persons."

What the unemployed bill demands is as follows:

1. County and borough councils and urban districts of over 20,000 are to be local unemployed authorities with power to act together. They are to register their unemployed, as also are the councils of every borough, urban district, and parish, and overseers when there is no parish council. These registers are to be paid for by the rates.

Provision of work to be compulsory.—Section 3 of the bill provides that where a workman has registered himself as unemployed it shall be the duty of the local unemployment authority to provide work for him in connection with one or other of the schemes hereinafter provided, or otherwise, or failing the provision of work, to provide maintenance should necessity exist for that person and for those depending on that person for the necessaries of life: *Provided*, That a refusal on the part of the unemployed workman to accept reasonable work upon one of these schemes, or employment upon conditions not lower than those that are standard to the work in the locality, shall release the local unemployment authority of its duties under this section.

^a *The Unemployed*, p. 92.

^b *The Unemployed*, p. 103.

Central unemployment committee.—Section 4 provides for the establishment of a central unemployment committee consisting of not less than two persons nominated by a national body or bodies representative of trade unions, and of persons representative of the Board of Agriculture, the Board of Trade, the Board of Education, and the Local Government Board, with a secretary appointed by the Local Government Board, for the purpose of:

(a) Framing schemes for the provision of work for unemployed persons; (b) advising the Local Government Board and any of the authorities created by this act on any matter referred to the committee by that board; (c) coordinating the work of the unemployment committees, and otherwise acting under the provisions of this act.

Appointment of commissioners.—(1) With a view to carrying out the provisions of this act the Local Government Board shall appoint unemployment commissioners to make inquiries necessary for the working of this act, to inspect and examine work being done under this act, and otherwise to report to and advise the Central Unemployment Committee. These commissioners to be paid by Parliament.

Constitution of the unemployment committees.—Every unemployment authority is to appoint an unemployment committee, of whom a majority shall be members of the appointing council. Other persons may be appointed who have experience in industry or agriculture. One-fifth shall be selected from trade unions and councils.

The unemployment committees shall draw up a scheme for providing work for the registered unemployed persons of their area, and such scheme shall, so far as possible, provide for the classification of applicants for work, so that they may be set to work which is suitable to the individual applicant, and so that in all cases of physical and industrial unfitness special regard shall be given to the ultimate improvement of the applicants.

When the local unemployment authority are of opinion that unemployment in any case is owing to deliberate and habitual disinclination to work, they may report the case to a court of summary jurisdiction, and the court may issue an order which shall permit the local unemployment authority to enforce control over the person named in the order for a period not exceeding six months, which period must be passed in the performance of reasonable work under the supervision or control of the local unemployment authority.

The local unemployment authority may assist an unemployed person by aiding the emigration or removal to another area of that person and any of his dependents. The local unemployment authority shall not supply workmen to firms or employers or their agents, servants, or representatives during times of trade disputes in which these firms or employers are involved.

The Local Government Board is to consider all schemes and decide who shall pay for them. When the unemployed exceed 4 per cent of the employees reported upon, or when exceptional distress is shown, the Local Government Board shall draw up such schemes as shall admit of the employment of unemployed persons in works of national utility.

GERMANY.

In Germany public relief works are conducted every winter by almost all the cities. Not a few of Germany's many recent public im-

provements have been, in part at least, produced in this way. The best source of information on this point is a report published in 1905 by the German Statistical Office as a result of inquiries sent out by it to 57 cities, January 15, 1903.^(a)

More recent information exists for certain cities, as shown in the table below, but for a comparatively few cities. As tabulated in the Statistical Yearbook of German Cities for 1907, the facts as to relief works in those cities for the winter of 1904-5 were as follows:

STATISTICS OF RELIEF WORKS IN VARIOUS GERMAN CITIES, 1904-5.

City.	Period of employment.	Number of persons employed.				Hours worked per day besides rest periods.	Wages per day.		
		Minimum.		Maximum.			Low-est.	High-est.	Aver- age.
		Num- ber.	Month.	Num- ber.	Month.				
Aachen.....	Dec. 1, 1904, to Mar. 31, 1905....	150	Dec....	175	Mar....	6 to 10	\$0.43	\$0.71	\$0.60
Cologne.....	Dec. 2, 1904, to Mar. 23, 1905....	3	Dec....	93	Jan....	8 to 9	.24	.83	.83
Freiburg.....	Jan. 21, 1905, to Mar. 27, 1905....	13	(^b)	30	(^b)	9	.48	.60
Hanover.....	Nov. 1, 1904, to Aug. 31, 1905....	109	(^b)	150	(^b)	8 to 10	.63	.71	.67
Leipzig (^c)....	Oct. 17, 1904, to Aug. 15, 1905....	11	Oct....	52	May....	8 to 10	.69	.99	.86
Leipzig (^d)....	Jan. 16, 1905, to June 22, 1905....	30	Jan....	175	Apr....	8	.67	.72	.69
Mannheim....	Jan. 26, 1905, to Mar. 30, 1905....	4	Jan....	64	Feb....	8	.60	.83	.71
Mühlhausen..	Oct. 1, 1904, to Mar. 31, 1905....	16	Jan....	20	Mar....	9	.48	.63
Strassburg....	Jan. 9, 1905, to Feb. 9, 1905....	(^b)	(^b)	519	Jan....	(^b)	.58	.57
Stuttgart.....	Jan. 2, 1905, to Mar. 1, 1905....	23	Jan(^e)	66	Jan(^f)	(^g)	.57	.71	.64
Wiesbaden....	Nov. 1904, to Feb., 1905....	40	(^b)	50	(^b)	8 to 10	.52	.60	.57
Würzburg....	Oct. 15, 1904, to Apr. 15, 1905....	16	(^b)	38	(^b)	9	.55	.60	.57

City.	Nature of work.	Piece or day work.	Work confined to—		Wages paid unemployed.	Wages of superintendence.	Cost of tools and materials.	Total expenditure.	Estimated excess over ordinary cost of work.
			Citi- zens.	Mar- ried per- sons or per- sons with de- pend- ents.					
Aachen....	Wood chopping and road making.	Day.	Yes.	Yes.	\$5,032.50	\$178.50	\$119.00	\$8,330.00	\$2,856.00
Cologne....	Wood chopping.....	Piece	Yes.	No ¹	2,132.99	241.11	2,374.10	1,037.68
Freiburg....	Stone breaking and road making.	Piece	No ²	Yes.	(^b)	(^b)	(^b)	(^b)	(^b)
Hanover....	Removal of earth.....	Day.	No.	No.	(^b)	(^b)	(^b)	17,850.00	(^b)
Leipzig (^e)....	Removal of earth.....	Day.	Yes.	(^l)	6,977.96	307.85	238.00	7,523.81	None.
Leipzig (^f)....	Earthwork and street making.	Day.	Yes.	(^l)	4,444.37	4,444.37	(^b)
Mannheim..	Earthwork and street making. ^(m)	Day.	Yes.	Yes.	1,628.79	280.65	55.04	1,964.48	279.65
Mühlhausen.	Sand work.....	(^b)	Yes.	(^b)	2,274.33	128.52	119.00	2,521.85	904.40
Strassburg..	Earthwork and stone breaking.	Both	No ³	(^o)	10,710.00	952.00	476.00	12,138.00	1,213.80
Stuttgart..	Earthwork and stone breaking.	Piece	Yes.	Yes.	1,190.00	142.80	95.20	1,428.00	238.00
Wiesbaden..	Road making and stone breaking.	(^b)	Yes.	Yes.	714.00	714.00	(^b)
Würzburg..	Stone breaking and street making.	Both	Yes.	Yes.	1,380.40	1,380.40	(^b)

^a Die Regelung der Notstandsarbeiten in deutschen Städten.

^b Not reported.

^c Single men.

^d Married men.

^e Water sedimentation plant.

^f Sewer excavation work.

^g First of month.

^h Last of month.

¹ From daylight to dark, with 2 rest periods amounting to 1½ hours.

² But first considered.

³ One month's residence.

^l Married only.

^m By contractors and by city.

ⁿ One year's residence.

^o In order of need.

Taking this table, the German report of 1905, and a few minor sources of information, the following statements may be made:

Special relief works for the unemployed are undertaken now almost every winter by all the more important German cities. Work is not given, or at least not intended to be given, to those whose idleness is caused by strikes or lockouts or who for any cause have refused to work elsewhere. It is not intended to institute such works to relieve distress caused by the overcrowding of certain industries or occupations, nor to help persons who are idle every season because of their belonging to seasonal occupations, such as the building trades. Relief works are intended rather, even though they have now become the general rule, for unemployment of unusual character, unusual either in the number out of work, the length of time of their being unemployed, or the general character of the unemployment. The tendency, however, is to make the institution of such work a regular feature of the winter season. Nine out of the 57 cities investigated by the report of 1905 reported general regulations directing that relief work shall be instituted whenever certain conditions exist and specifying the methods to be followed in the administration of the work. As will be seen by the table, in most of the cities the work is given only to residents, and in many of them only to those who are married or who have persons dependent on them. The work is almost always limited to the winter months, beginning on or about December 1 and continuing from eight to twenty-six weeks, the longer periods being only in a very few cases.

In almost all cases the work is administered by city authorities. Only two cities reported the giving out of the work to contractors. In many of the cities the work is carried on by the municipal charity departments, and in virtually all other cases by those in close touch with the charity department. In some cities persons who have received aid from the charity department are not entitled to relief work.

The nature of the work given will be seen by the table to be largely "earth work" of one kind or another, work in almost all cases which is unskilled and which can be done, though often with difficulty, in the winter. Considerable effort is said to be made to avoid assigning work to any which might be prejudicial to health or diminish technical skill.

The average wages paid vary from 2.40 marks (57 cents) to 3.60 marks (86 cents) per day, the endeavor being to pay wages sufficient to prevent the worker from needing charity and yet not high enough to prevent his accepting ordinary work as soon as it can be found. Piece rates seem to prevail only in breaking stone. Some of the cities in addition to the wages provide tools, a hot midday meal or hot coffee, and insurance in the imperial industrial insurance fund. The *working time* averages eight and one-half hours.

The cost of the work in almost all the cities is said to be higher than for similar work done under ordinary conditions, but this is partly due to the fact that the work is done largely in winter under unfavorable conditions, and partly to the fact that the men are usually inexperienced. The table gives the reports upon this point made by several of the cities.

Such is a brief statement of the German experience upon relief works. The report of 1905 recommends the planning of municipal improvements so that they will be undertaken at periods of unusual industrial depression and make exceptional relief works unnecessary, and there is evidence that this policy is being adopted, though the recent large development of municipal improvements in German cities seems to make it possible to do some relief work nearly every winter.

July 31, 1904, the Prussian Government addressed to all the royal presidents of districts and to all the royal presidents of Provinces a circular concerning the organization of the provision of employment, signed by the Minister of Commerce and the Home Minister.

We further request you to have the goodness to direct your attention to those measures which are calculated to prevent the occurrence of want of work on a wide scale or to mitigate its effect when it is unavoidable. Not only the State, but also the Provinces, districts, and communes, in their capacity as employers, are bound to do their utmost to counteract the evil in question by paying general and methodical attention to the suitable distribution and regulation of the works to be carried out for their account. In almost every industrial establishment of importance there are tasks which do not absolutely need to be performed at a fixed time; just so in every State and communal administration there are works for the allotment of which the time may, within certain limits, be freely chosen according to circumstances. If all public administrations, in making their arrangements, would take timely care to choose for such works times in which want of employment is to be expected, if especially works in which unemployed people of all kinds, including in particular unskilled laborers, can be made use of, were reserved for such times of threatening want of employment as have almost regularly recurred of late in winter in the larger towns and industrial centers, the real occurrence of widespread want of employment could certainly be prevented in many cases and serious distress warded off. A mitigation of the distress will often prove possible if, when the need of hands begins to diminish at times when other work is wont to be hard to find, the public industrial establishments do not at once dismiss their hands, but render it possible to keep them all on by shortening the daily hours of work or by putting in rest shifts, as is usual in the mining industry.

Increased provision and opportunities of work will not be admissible, indeed, without simultaneous measures being taken to prevent the measures from increasing the already excessive flocking of the unemployed to the great towns, and thereby endangering their suc-

cess. For this purpose care will have to be taken that only such unemployed persons are admitted to the "relief works" as have their domicile for purposes of relief, or have, at least, been regularly at work for a definite period in the commune in which such works are undertaken.

As the experience of the last few years has repeatedly shown that even large communes have been wanting in the desirable foresight, and have not set relief works on foot till the want of work had assumed very serious dimensions and distress had already set in, you will have the goodness to draw the attention of the administrations of the districts and communes under your authority to the above-mentioned measures which are incumbent on you and them as employers of labor.

So far as you yourself or the official bodies and functionaries subordinate to you have to determine, or are called upon to cooperate in determining the allotment of services or works, you will also take care that due attention be paid to the above-mentioned considerations.

Finally, you will have the goodness to take care that you are informed, as soon as possible, of all occurrences and circumstances which afford ground for inferences as to the probable development of the labor market in your district, especially of approaching considerable diminutions and increases of industrial activity, in order that you may be able, when occasion offers, to direct the attention of the superintendents of public works and administrative undertakings and of the existing labor bureaus to the state of things, and, when necessary, to use your official influence in favor of the timely introduction of extraordinary measures.

FRANCE.

France also does much in this line of relief works. The Bulletin de l'Office du Travail (December, 1907) gives a list of works carried on in 1906 in 66 departments. There were only 21 departments in France in which such works were not carried on in that year. There were 60 departments reporting expenditures in 1906. The following table shows the expenditures for each department, the number of persons employed, and the number of days employed:

EXPENDITURES OF FRENCH PUBLIC RELIEF WORKS, PERSONS EMPLOYED, AND DAYS EMPLOYED, BY DEPARTMENTS, 1906.

Department.	Number of communes.	Expenditures.	Number employed.	Days employed.
Ain.....	2	\$1,929.34	(a)	(a)
Aisne.....	1	677.94	60	2,306
Allier.....	22	18,146.40	794	(a)
Alpes (Hautes).....	2	1,592.18	705	3,526
Ardèche.....	1	9,649.63	2,660	18,054
Ardennes.....	4	702.38	95	(a)
Aube.....	1	685.31	280	(a)
Aude.....	96	28,370.61	4,793	193,798
Aveyron.....	2	2,459.59	457	5,304
Bouches-du-Rhone.....	4	147.84	88	497
Calvados (b).....	8	2,170.18	162	13,091

^a Not reported.

^b La Societe de Solidarite Sociale, at Caen, organized as in previous years a workshop for men and home for women. It paid 3,569 francs (\$688.82) to men and 1,504 francs (\$290.27) to women.

EXPENDITURES OF FRENCH PUBLIC RELIEF WORKS, PERSONS EMPLOYED, AND DAYS EMPLOYED, BY DEPARTMENTS, 1906—Concluded.

Department.	Number of communes.	Expenditures.	Number employed.	Days employed.
Charente.....	5	\$12,216.37	257	50,655
Charente-Inférieure.....	2	289.50	47	794
Cher.....	1	276.96	79	570
Côte-d'Or.....	1	5,889.30	(a)	(a)
Côtes-du-Nord.....	3	5,024.71	422	15,727
Drôme.....	9	693.84	210	1,383
Eure (b).....				
Eure-et-Loire.....	51	11,847.43	714	(a)
Finistère.....	13	14,489.86	242	(a)
Gard.....	11	12,812.31	1,797	15,275
Garonne (Haute).....	1	(a)	1,900	(a)
Gers.....	1	965.00	(a)	(a)
Gironde.....	11	2,536.79	151	7,477
Hérault.....	88	60,735.99	(a)	(a)
Ille-et-Vilaine.....	4	8,041.56	1,170	(a)
Indre.....	2	2,308.04	527	5,874
Indre-et-Loire.....	1	10,630.31	321	13,479
Isère.....	2	805.58	330	1,683
Jura.....	1	1,302.75	60	1,890
Landes.....	78	17,702.93	2,836	42,946
Loire.....	2	21,148.54	7,508	40,876
Loire-Inférieure.....	1	622.28	85	1,612
Loiret.....	10	3,284.57	223	(a)
Lot-et-Garonne.....	1	579.00	1,200	(a)
Maine-et-Loire.....	42	9,678.63	(a)	(a)
Manche.....	10	7,309.04	(a)	20,501
Marne.....	3	7,200.44	394	(a)
Mayenne.....	4	5,995.72	567	17,670
Meurthe-et-Moselle.....	3	7,650.23	382	15,262
Meuse.....	1	764.85	(a)	(a)
Morbihan.....	6	4,584.62	662	(a)
Nièvre.....	39	3,970.28	1,090	9,195
Nord.....	12	1,203.55	155	2,798
Oise.....	4	5,555.94	123	(a)
Orne.....	3	3,654.74	(a)	(a)
Puy-de-Dôme.....	1	1,621.29	160	2,800
Pyrénées (Basses).....	1	3,020.84	(a)	(a)
Pyrénées (Hautes).....	3	1,496.48	190	(a)
Pyrénées Orientales.....	10	4,966.22	1,054	7,825
Saône (Haute).....	13	2,256.75	125	3,337
Sarthe.....	4	5,337.76	387	24,798
Seine-Inférieure.....	9	2,132.65	(a)	(a)
Seine-et-Oise.....	29	4,272.18	325	5,508
Deux Sèvres.....	174	14,757.57	(a)	(a)
Tarn.....	17	3,262.91	672	10,761
Tarn-et-Garonne.....	4	(a)	35	388
Var.....	1	675.50	25	688
Vaucluse.....	2	719.12	468	2,203
Vendée.....	8	6,076.49	335	17,200
Vienne.....	4	2,995.50	736	6,685
Vienne (Haute).....	2	3,582.39	(a)	(a)
Yonne.....	44	9,176.29	1,117	17,173

^a Not reported.

^b The public workshops employ 30 to 40 of the unemployed all the year.

RELIEF SHELTERS.

It is not the intention to consider here all the various workingmen's homes, hotels, barracks, lodging houses, or shelters which are open to vagrants and the homeless of the poorer classes in the different cities and countries. Some of these institutions are of great value, many of very small value, and not a few extremely hurtful and debasing.

Consideration is given only to those relief shelters which are especially for unemployed workingmen, and more particularly to those shelters which have as an important part of their work the aiding of workmen to find employment.

Foremost in this respect stand the relief shelters organized in Germany, and which have spread thence to Austria, Switzerland, and to a small extent elsewhere. These are, however, of various kinds, and to be understood must be somewhat sharply discriminated between.

GERMANY.

The first to be taken into consideration are the so-called hospices, which are not strictly relief shelters, but rather workmen's hotels or boarding houses. They are intended for those workmen who are able to pay a fair price for board and lodging, and are not primarily for transients. These hospices are in most cases maintained by benevolent societies or agencies, usually religious—Protestant or Catholic. There are Protestant hospices in most of the larger German cities, but in this particular class of relief shelters the Roman Catholics have, in numbers at least, probably done the most. According to the report of the Roman Catholic trade associations or unions (Cologne, 1907), there were in Germany 1,161 such Catholic associations, and 357 of these had their own hospices, while almost all of them had at least rooms suitable for such purposes. In 1906 they entertained 85,000 workmen guests. The Protestant hospices are not essentially different.

Next to these come the Herbergen, and especially the so-called Herbergen zur Heimat, which latter are distinctly Protestant institutions somewhat similar to the hospices, but intended for those not able to pay so much—usually workmen of the lower ranks—and entertaining many not able to pay at all, mainly transients. They are much more simply appointed than the hospices and do not resemble ordinary hotels.

In Germany the Herbergen require those unable to pay to do some work the next morning. The system by which this is done will be taken into account in treating of the still more temporary shelters called *Verpflegungsstationen*. The Herbergen are very numerous—some 460 in Germany—and play no small part in the life of the lower grades of workmen. They are of several kinds. Perhaps the best known are the Herbergen zur Heimat. These are all religious and connected with the so-called Inner Mission. The Herbergen zur Heimat is intended to be, as far as possible, a home for the time being to all workmen who come under its shelter. It must be kept clean and orderly; furnish cheap but wholesome food; provide religious influences by means of daily services, and banish all harmful practices from its premises, e. g., gambling. In order to have this programme carried out every home is under the supervision of a

responsible committee, whose members must be reputable persons, and, if possible, include the local clergy.

The home is usually supplied with a good map of the circuit and country, showing the country roads in every direction, so that the superintendent may advise those who depart as to the quickest way of reaching a certain point.

A man may stay in a home for a whole week, provided he pays the moderate charges. Ordinary prices are: Bed, 25 to 40 pfennigs (6 to 10 cents); full meal, 55 pfennigs (13 cents); coffee, 5 pfennigs (1 cent); bread, 5 pfennigs (1 cent); potatoes and sauce, 20 pfennigs (5 cents); soup, 10 and 20 pfennigs (2 and 5 cents); hominy, 10 pfennigs (2 cents); cigar, 5 pfennigs (1 cent). A young pastor or candidate looks after the inmates spiritually both week days and Sundays.

The increase of the homes has been phenomenal. Professor Clemens Theodor Perthes, of the University of Bonn, established the first one in 1854; in 1863 there were 19; in 1873, 101; 1886, 252; 1890, 370; 1900, 457; 1904, 462; 1906, 461. In recent years their number, however, has not grown, the reason being said to be lack of funds. Many of the existing homes have contracted debts under which they labor with great difficulty.

The various homes have formed an organization, *Deutscher Herberge Verein*, with *Der Wanderer* as its organ. The whole German Empire is subdivided into district unions or subdivisions for the sake of better control and greater efficiency, with central offices at Bethel (Bielefeld), Doctor von Bodelschwingh being the leading spirit in the movement for them.

Not all the Herbergen of Germany are religious. In almost all the larger Germanic cities, notably at Berlin and Hamburg, and also at Vienna, the trade unionists maintain large and attractive Herbergen, or so-called labor homes (*Arbeiter Heim*), which as a part of their work give entertainment at low cost to traveling workmen. These homes are not usually called Herbergen, but they largely answer the same need. Most of the socialist workmen will not go to the evangelical Herbergen zur Heimat. The "*Arbeiter Heim*" at Berlin and the "*Favorite*" at Vienna are very large and in some ways magnificently appointed labor centers, each with a large audience room for mass meetings, concerts, etc., as well as smoking rooms, reading rooms, committee rooms, rooms for officers of trade unions, restaurant, etc. In smaller cities there are not such large labor homes, but in most cities there is something of this nature. In some cities, like Munich, where there is no labor home provision is made by the trade unions for their traveling members in connection with some ordinary room-

ing house or restaurant. There are still other kinds of Herbergen, but only those directly for the unemployed are considered.

Thirdly are taken into consideration the *Verpflegungsstationen*, relief stations provided, or at least sustained, by the public authorities, which give food and shelter for twenty-four hours, or forty-eight including Sundays. They are intended chiefly to assist destitute and unemployed men with temporary shelter, for which they must work in the morning. The stations are placed within walking distance of each other, and are in communication by telephone or in other ways, so that they can hear of chances for work and men may be told in which way to look for work. Very strict discipline is maintained in all the stations.

When a man arrives at a station, he must show a passport and a "labor book" (*Arbeitsbuch*), in order to legitimize himself both as to his character in regard to the authorities and to his industrious habits. These books are stamped and retained by the superintendent. A simple meal, consisting of soup or potatoes and herring and costing about 20 pfennigs (5 cents), is served at night, and the men are supposed to be in bed by 10. In the morning they must be ready for the simple breakfast by 7, since work begins at 8. The latter consists usually of stone breaking, wood chopping, or other duties requiring physical exertion, but not exhaustion, and lasts for four hours. The man is then given a plate of food, his book is signed and stamped, and he is sent on his way. If the next station should be too far to be reached during the afternoon, he receives, if penniless, a ticket to a by-station (*Nebenstation*), where he receives food and shelter. By-stations may be had in any number, since they are not special buildings, but approved lodging houses or inns. A clergyman or other person of good reputation sees to it that they are properly conducted. The cost of feeding and housing a man per day at these stations, including all expenses of management, is about 65 to 75 pfennigs (15 to 18 cents), and is usually charged to the rates.

The motto of these stations is that a man must work for what he gets; work in the morning, walk in the afternoon. If he refuses to do that he is turned over to the police as a vagrant, or left to shift for himself. The latter course brings him into touch with the police, since in most towns and villages maintaining stations private almsgiving is forbidden and punished by law. The man must, consequently, either work or go hungry. This system, comprising at present about 1,000 stations, has put a stop to mendicity and vagrancy in all provinces of Germany where the stations are sufficiently near together. The only complaint which people interested in this problem make, is that their number is too small; under the leadership of Pastor von Bodelschwing they are seeking for legislation to the

effect that relief stations should be planted everywhere in the German Empire, so as to help every poor and destitute laborer, and still allow him to move on in search of work.

An idea of the strictness of the regulations in force at these stations may be obtained from the rules governing the Westphalian relief stations, which are as follows:

I.—Every itinerant not possessing more than 1 mark [23.8 cents] in cash, and who is unable to obtain work in the locality, will be considered as "without means." Any person who has in his possession a sum of money exceeding 1 mark [23.8 cents], and who conceals or denies this fact, may not only be required to pay for the relief which he receives, but may also be prosecuted for fraudulent pretenses.

II.—Any person who, by reason of old age, sickness, or infirmity, is unfit for work will be referred to the local authorities with a view to his receiving poor-law relief.

III.—Every itinerant without means who wishes to receive relief in a relief station is required to produce his traveling pass. The itinerant is required, provided he is still in possession of any money, to procure such pass. A pass may be obtained by the payment of 50 pfennigs [11.9 cents] or by the performance of at least four hours' work in the relief station. Relief is not given in the station issuing the pass. (This provision applies only to itinerants in possession of money.) A pass may be issued only to persons of 16 years of age or upward, such persons being in a position—by producing a leaving certificate [issued by the police] or other similar evidence—to establish their identity, and by showing the official receipt for contributions under the insurance laws, certificate of employment, etc., to prove that they have recently been engaged in labor.

Applicants for relief at a relief station who are not in possession of a pass will be immediately referred to the police as being "homeless persons."^a In every such case before the applicant can ob-

^aThe English Report on the Unemployed, by D. F. Schloss, says of this: "According to the law, it is the duty of the police in Germany to provide every destitute wayfarer with temporary relief; but that the German workman traveling in search of work always does receive such relief can not be stated. (See *Zeitschrift des Königlich Preussischen Statistischen Bureaus*, 1899, I. Vierteljahrsheft, p. 81.) As a rule, any relief given is granted without exacting from the applicant the performance of work. In some instances (as ascertained by inquiries made in Germany by the writer of this memorandum) the police simply hand the 'homeless' applicant a few pence in cash and direct him to go on to the next town. Recently (since October, 1902) in Westphalia the practice of making the casual do two days' stone-breaking has been introduced. (*Der Wanderer*, January, 1903, pp. 21, 22.) In cases in which the police decline to put the itinerant to work and certify his performance of his task, the authorities of the relief station are requested to carry out these provisions themselves and to grant or refuse a pass as they think fit. In every such case the itinerant whose papers are not in order must, in order to obtain a pass, and in addition to money or work to be paid or performed in exchange for relief at the station issuing the pass, perform at the relief station one day's extra work and also either pay 6d. [12 cents] or perform four hours' further work. (*Der Wanderer*, February, 1904, pp. 60, 61.) It should be noted that an itinerant unable to obtain his pass because he is not provided with the evidence of identity and recent employment required by the rules set forth in the text will have to spend any money which he possesses before he can be set at work by the police (as destitute) as a preliminary to obtaining a pass under the rules."

tain a pass and receive the regular relief provided at a relief station he must produce a certificate from the local police authorities stating that the applicant has performed with due industry a task of work set him by such authorities and of at least one entire day's duration, and that no other objection exists to his having a pass issued to him. (Persons relieved as "homeless" are received in the relief station on the first or second day, according as the police require them to work for one or for two days, after completion of their work, and on the following morning are put to work for such a period as is prescribed by the rules of the station in return for the relief received by them and are then handed their pass.)

The pass and all other documents must be given up to the proper authorities of the relief station, by whom the same will be returned only after the required amount of work has been performed.

When a pass is issued a note of this fact will be stamped on the other documents belonging to the holder. The stamp will show the place at which and the date on which such pass was issued. A man's receipt for contributions under the insurance laws is not allowed to be stamped.

IV.—At each relief station the itinerant's pass will be stamped with the date of his departure, which shall be due evidence that the holder has completed the last section of his journey according to regulations, that he has not refused any work offered to him, and that he has duly performed the work that he was required to perform at the relief station in compliance with the regulations in force at the station.

The hour of departure and the name of the next station to which the holder proposes to travel must on every occasion be entered on his pass.

V.—The holder of a pass is not allowed to make, or permit to be made, any entry in the same. Any such falsification, as also the use of the pass by any person other than the actual person to whom such pass was issued, will make the offender liable to punishment under the criminal law. (Penal code, sec. 363.)

VI.—The managers of travelers' homes and relief stations are authorized to confiscate any pass of which an improper use shall have been made.

The cardinal principle to be observed is "work in the morning, travel in the afternoon." Relief at a relief station will be given only in those cases in which the man's pass contains the stamp of the station of departure dated on the same day upon which he applies for admission at the station of destination specified in his pass, and only at the station so specified. Moreover, the holder of the pass must arrive within such a time after his departure as is consistent with the distance which separates the station of departure from the station of destination and with the hour of his departure mentioned in the pass.

VII.—In cases of emergency, especially in winter, and if the nearest station (where the night is to be spent) is so far removed from the station of departure that the distance between the two stations can not be covered in five hours or less, an itinerant may be allowed, by way of exception, to depart before noon, in which case a meal will be provided for him before his departure. Whenever long distances

have to be traversed light refreshments or an order for a meal at some intermediate place (substation) will also be supplied to the itinerant.

VIII.—All attempts to obtain employment must be made through the intervention of the employment bureau in connection with the relief station. To go round seeking for work is not permitted.

Anyone refusing to accept a suitable situation will not be allowed to take part in the work provided at or to receive the relief afforded by a relief station.

If it is found impossible to send a man to a situation, then he is required to perform the work allotted to him at the relief station. The nature and duration of this work are determined by the manager of the station. By accepting relief the recipient is deemed to have undertaken the obligation of performing the work allotted to him and of complying with the regulations in force in relation to the station. Any man accepting relief and afterwards refusing or neglecting to work and leaving the station without permission will be prosecuted for fraudulent pretenses.

IX.—Itinerants who, by reason of their having failed to comply with these regulations, have had to be refused relief and who are destitute will be referred to the local authorities. Any man who arrives after the proper time is not to be admitted at the relief station, but will be handed over to the police authorities, from whom alone will he receive any further relief to which he may be entitled. On the morning of the next day he will be required, in exchange for the relief provided for him by the police, to perform a task of work; and at noon he must have his pass stamped at the relief station with the words "relieved by police," and thereupon he will again become subject to the regulations for traveling workmen. Any man whose pass does not show the proper continuous sequence of stamps, and who is unable to give a satisfactory explanation of such want of continuous sequence, will be treated as if he did not possess a pass. Any man who may be found in any locality or on any road other than those mentioned on the map displayed at the relief station is liable to find himself punished as a vagrant wandering without reasonable cause or excuse.

X.—On Sundays and other days recognized by the federation of relief stations as holidays rest will be allowed and relief (including a midday meal) will be provided in the morning for all such persons as shall have entered the institution the day before within the established hours for admission and with their passes in order. It is expected that every man shall attend religious service, each according to the religious denomination to which he belongs. In the afternoon the men will again set forth on their travels.

- The regulations are so strict that complaint is often made, and with many of the workmen Pastor von Bodelschwingh, the inspirer of the system, is by no means a popular character. As has been said,
- the Verpflegungsstationen are usually maintained by the public authorities, while the Herbergen are private, but, as is characteristic of Germany, the two systems work together, and Pastor von Bodelschwingh is working for the development of both. It was to accomplish this mainly that he got himself elected to the present Reichstag, and though in somewhat advanced years, is working hard for legis-

lation to support these relief stations. They exist much more in northern than in southern Germany. German officials believe that the large estates which are characteristic of Prussia, as compared with the smaller holdings of southern Germany, make the northern German workmen more dependent upon industrial employment and more in need of a connected system of relief stations.

Another reason, perhaps, is that the fuller development of the system of employment bureaus in Bavaria makes relief stations less necessary. In any case the stations are more developed in the north. Doctor von Bodelschwingh has not obtained by any means all the legislation for them he would like, but on June 29, 1907, a bill was passed by the Prussian Diet looking to the establishment of a system of relief stations throughout Prussia. It is only permissive, and yet its text shows the scope of the plan.

The text of the law follows:

ARTICLE 1. In Provinces where workmen's relief stations are already established, either county or city councils may, with the cooperation of the provincial diet, become responsible for their management and support. To do this, however, there must be a majority of at least two-thirds of the votes actually cast.

ART. 2. The work of the relief stations is to secure work for employable needy men seeking work away from their own homes, and to temporarily give them shelter and food in exchange for work they perform.

ART. 3. The provincial diet must determine the regulations for the furnishing, support, and management of these relief stations.

ART. 4. The districts in which no such stations are provided, yet which avail themselves of the privileges of the relief stations in the districts maintaining them, may be compelled by the decree of the provincial diet to contribute to the expense of such relief station, the amount of the subscription to be determined by the provincial diet.

ART. 5. The Province must contribute two-thirds of the running expenses of the relief station.

To such expenses also belong the costs incurred for lodging, feeding, and caring for inmates during their stay at the relief stations within said Provinces. The amounts to be paid by such districts are to be determined by the decree of the provincial diet.

Of the expense connected with these relief stations and their connected employment bureaus the State, in cooperation with the Provinces, pays a certain proportion.

ART. 6. Against the adjudication (decree) of the provincial diet in the case of articles 4 and 5, the district concerned has a limited time of two weeks in which to enter protest.

The provincial diet has the ruling over this protest and final decision. Against this decision (resolution) the complaint may be lodged within from one to two weeks in the judicial court in which the dispute arose in the first instance. A final settlement is determined by the district committee.

ART. 7. With the consent of the provincial diet, the districts may also accept the aid and cooperation of third parties in the furnishing and management of the traveling-workmen relief stations.

The cooperation and consent may only then be refused or revoked in case the third party introduced desires to frustrate the real execution of the purposes and work of the station.

In case of dispute the provincial judge shall decide.

ART. 8. Communes or towns in which such relief stations are already established must cooperate with the committee of the district, at the request of the latter, in allowing the district the use of their stations, the district to give a certain indemnity for this to the commune or town. In case of dispute the amount thereof is to be determined by the council of the district.

It is evident from the above that the intention is to make possible throughout Prussia the development of an organized system of relief stations, either to be provided by the public authorities or, if by private parties, to be sustained partly at public expense, and to be controlled wholly by the public authorities, so as to secure united systematic operation. The effect of such a system of relief stations through every part of the Kingdom, each within walking distance of the next, and all connected by telephones and reporting to each other all opportunities for employment, can readily be seen. The Herbergen zur Heimat are not, it is said, to be confounded with the relief stations (*Verpflegungsstationen*), but in the cities the latter are usually connected with the Herbergen, and the two therefore are closely associated. Doctor von Bodelschwingh works for the extension of both, and *Der Wanderer*, published at Doctor von Bodelschwingh's colony at Bethel, gives the statistics for both. These show the growth, extent, and usefulness of the system.

STATISTICS OF GERMAN HERBERGEN (WORKINGMEN'S SHELTERS), 1890 TO 1906.

Year.	Herbergen.	Beds.	Applicants given employment.		Nights lodgings furnished to transient guests—			Nights lodgings furnished to boarders.	Total nights lodgings furnished with and without pay.
			Number.	Per cent.	Paying.	Aided.	Total.		
1890.....	302	(a)	(a)	(a)	1,790,475	443,248	2,233,723	512,057	2,745,680
1891.....	379	13,870	43,572	2.09	2,057,023	731,795	2,788,818	490,229	3,279,047
1893.....	426	(a)	(a)	(a)	2,222,756	858,061	3,081,817	464,658	3,546,475
1895.....	439	(a)	54,398	2.32	2,470,453	709,969	3,180,422	500,896	3,681,318
1896.....	453	18,070	98,078	4.32	2,411,975	573,506	2,985,481	619,212	3,604,693
1897.....	456	(a)	112,020	5.19	2,446,051	515,348	2,961,399	678,646	3,640,045
1898.....	457	(a)	123,894	5.71	2,475,000	511,037	2,986,037	702,511	3,688,548
1899.....	457	(a)	132,801	6.58	2,424,142	475,068	2,899,210	687,762	3,586,972
1900.....	457	19,150	125,789	5.84	2,538,942	526,017	3,064,959	736,271	3,791,230
1901.....	462	(a)	108,505	4.03	2,866,980	723,274	3,590,254	671,730	4,261,984
1902.....	462	(a)	109,306	3.72	3,023,076	795,504	3,818,580	630,175	4,448,755
1903.....	459	(a)	117,154	4.47	2,935,776	650,820	3,586,596	669,962	4,256,558
1904.....	461	19,444	122,042	5.13	2,858,353	558,770	3,417,123	672,374	4,089,497
1905.....	462	(a)	137,130	6.03	2,828,377	519,367	3,347,744	741,340	4,089,084
1906.....	461	(a)	150,110	7.78	2,752,577	435,083	3,187,660	709,977	3,897,637

* Not reported.

STATISTICS OF GERMAN HERBERGEN, BY DISTRICT UNIONS, 1906.

District unions. (a)	Total Herbergen in 1906.	Herbergen with relief shelters (without pay).							Applicants given employment.			
		Num. ber.	Per- sons using shel- ters.	Aggregate nights used.			Cost of relief given.			Gain (+) or loss (-).		
				1905.	1906.	Gain (+) or loss (-).	1905.	1906.				
East Prussia.....	3	1	349	326	349	+	23	\$67	\$70	+	\$3	1,199
West Prussia.....	7	2	554	659	541	-	115	102	103	+	1	2,862
Posen.....	5	2	812	1,095	812	-	283	124	92	-	32	1,463
Silesia.....	50	22	22,700	24,591	22,492	-	2,099	3,007	1,914	-	1,093	5,654
Brandenburg.....	47	8	12,135	14,653	12,338	-	2,315	1,440	1,581	+	141	17,265
Pomerania.....	20	11	6,717	8,300	6,679	-	1,621	940	761	-	179	2,831
Mecklenburg.....	24	6	8,865	11,020	8,847	-	2,173	1,786	1,606	-	180	1,566
Nordelbien.....	34	11	10,223	13,765	10,637	-	3,128	2,083	1,808	-	280	17,228
Lower Saxony.....	41	19	48,810	59,298	48,462	-	10,836	8,357	6,760	-	1,591	13,775
Saxony Anhalt.....	44	25	73,322	92,228	72,694	-	19,534	12,602	9,825	-	2,777	7,870
Kingdom of Saxony.....	50	25	54,423	63,330	50,310	-	13,020	6,162	4,998	-	1,164	10,319
Thuringia.....	13	10	31,624	37,321	30,751	-	6,770	5,082	4,678	-	977	2,225
Hesse-Nassau.....	21	15	44,020	53,623	43,779	-	9,244	9,040	7,843	-	1,197	9,783
Westphalia.....	27	25	62,932	67,318	62,933	-	4,385	12,895	12,028	-	867	28,069
Rhenish Prussia.....	31	11	18,968	25,026	20,846	-	4,680	3,548	2,771	-	777	18,337
Southwest Germany.....	23	13	25,016	28,309	25,199	-	3,110	3,128	2,694	-	434	14,563
Bavaria.....	15	7	20,397	18,908	17,914	-	994	1,933	2,193	+	260	4,101
Total.....	461	213	441,957	519,367	435,083	-	84,284	72,266	61,123	-	11,143	159,110

District unions. (a)	Num. ber.	Herbergen with lodgings for pay.							Total nights lodgings with and without pay in 1906.		
		Paying guests in 1906.						Aggregate nights lodged in 1906.		Gain (+) or loss (-) in nights lodged in 1906.	
		Transient.		Board and lodging.		Total.					
		Persons.	Aggregate nights lodged.	Persons.	Aggregate nights lodged.	Persons.	Aggregate nights lodged.				
East Prussia.....	1	3,879	13,428	197	5,267	4,076	18,695	20,287	-	1,592	19,044
West Prussia.....	5	19,080	33,368	1,136	26,222	17,216	59,590	65,927	-	6,337	60,131
Posen.....	5	15,261	23,165	340	6,469	15,601	29,634	28,063	+	1,571	30,446
Silesia.....	38	91,514	138,428	5,090	112,611	96,604	251,039	255,456	-	4,417	273,531
Brandenburg.....	28	129,012	205,503	3,516	79,616	132,328	345,119	312,987	+	32,132	357,457
Pomerania.....	15	31,857	57,901	2,278	35,989	33,865	93,390	102,319	-	8,929	100,069
Mecklenburg.....	18	25,111	35,917	1,578	29,302	26,689	65,219	73,000	-	7,781	74,066
Nordelbien.....	29	107,975	234,433	1,870	33,761	199,845	268,194	270,596	-	2,405	278,831
Lower Saxony.....	27	153,595	266,363	1,960	37,903	155,555	304,266	329,125	-	24,859	332,728
Saxony Anhalt.....	29	119,061	167,999	2,632	59,874	131,093	227,873	237,133	-	9,260	300,867
Kingdom of Saxony.....	42	209,665	322,519	3,020	74,713	212,685	397,232	417,425	-	20,193	447,542
Thuringia.....	7	45,798	53,760	523	11,518	40,321	65,287	72,636	-	7,339	96,038
Hesse-Nassau.....	6	104,223	171,398	384	10,431	104,607	181,829	187,356	-	5,527	225,608
Westphalia.....	19	131,211	193,947	3,139	64,487	134,350	258,434	253,424	+	5,010	321,367
Rhenish Prussia.....	14	218,968	326,313	2,386	60,337	221,354	360,650	382,634	-	1,384	400,996
Southwest Ger- many.....	18	130,856	304,164	4,096	92,215	134,932	396,379	378,901	+	17,478	421,578
Bavaria.....	11	68,912	150,462	1,177	29,262	70,089	179,724	183,064	-	3,340	197,638
Total.....		312,1,002,708	2,752,577	35,122	769,977	1,637,830	3,522,554	3,569,726	-	47,172	3,937,637

* For explanation of district unions see p. 888.

Of the total applicants for employment in the Herbergen 5.84 per cent obtained employment in 1900, 4.03 per cent in 1901, 3.72 per cent in 1902, 4.47 per cent in 1903, 5.13 per cent in 1904, 6.03 per cent in 1905, and 7.78 per cent in 1906.

OTHER COUNTRIES.

Outside of Germany, as already stated, charitable and more rarely municipal shelters and lodging houses of every description, such as those of the Salvation Army, exist in every great city and do, perhaps under present conditions, a very helpful work, but make little or no contribution to the problem of giving any adequate employment to the unemployed. Austria and Switzerland (especially the latter) have in the main followed the example of Germany.

In France, Paris has several so-called "asiles," including three operated by the municipality, for men and also for women. At one of these temporary work is given to the unemployed, with wages which average about 2.27 francs (44 cents) per day.

ALLOTMENTS.

One form of relief for the temporarily unemployed which is developing in Europe to some extent is the provision either of an allotment of land or, in Germany especially, of cottages with little vegetable or fruit gardens, the produce of which may enable the workman to tide over a temporary unemployment.

The allotment idea is especially prominent in England, and in some places, notably Nottingham, has reached large results. English allotments rest on considerable legislative history. In 1819 church wardens and overseers were allowed to set aside 20 acres for the use of the poor. In 1831 this was made 50 acres of garden land and, where possible, 50 acres of waste land. In 1832 the rent for such land was to be that current in the district; allotments were to be not less than one-fourth nor more than 1 acre, and the revenue was to be used to provide fuel for the poor. In 1835 the above powers were transferred to boards of guardians, and the income of the allotments was to be used for the relief of poor rates. In 1845 more land was made thus available. In 1873, little having been done, allotments were to be granted by a board of trustees. In 1882 the trustees were given compulsory power to let any charity land in the parish. In 1887 the sanitary authorities were given power to provide allotments. There were in that year 357,795 allotments. In 1890 county councils were given power to act in the matter. The allotments had grown to 455,005. Four years later county councils were given compulsory powers to obtain land for this purpose.

In spite of all this legislation, comparatively little has resulted; yet some most beneficent results can be mentioned. In Nottingham, centuries ago, numerous patches of land were allotted to citizens in the so-called "Burgess Parts." About 1800 this was discontinued, but lots were rented at low rates to workingmen, and they have made

large use of them. At present a large number of Nottingham workmen have small allotments outside the city and use them well, obtaining from them large results. As high as £50 (\$243) has been paid by an incoming workingman to his predecessor for the improvements placed upon these allotments. Flower exhibits are made, and the Nottingham workmen take great interest in them. It has been shown in the small gardens connected with the cottage homes at Bournville that one-sixth of an acre allotments are best, and can be made to earn as much as £31 (\$150.66) per acre per year, or 1s. 11½d. (48 cents) per cottage per week.

THE UNEMPLOYABLE.

The second great class of the unemployed, the unemployable, is next considered.

By the unemployable are meant those who, though more or less willing to work, are, by reason of deficiency, mental or physical, through their own fault or other circumstances, unable to do, at least permanently, work of appreciable economic value. This definition does not, as will be seen, exclude those who may be able to do occasional jobs or work of some economic value. But if they are really unemployable, it will mean that this work is only of very occasional and of somewhat indifferent value. The representatives of this class, when given work, show in a day or two, or at most in a few days and not seldom in a few hours, that for some reason or other they are not able to do the work or are unable to do it continuously. They are constantly having opportunities and losing them, or taking jobs and losing the jobs, in almost all cases with periods of absolute unemployment; they should therefore be included among the unemployable.

In all civilized countries attempts are either being made or are being discussed as to what provision should be made for this needy and unfortunate class.

Among these means first and foremost stands the German "labor colony."

LABOR COLONIES.

GERMANY.

The name "labor colony" for the institutions about to be described is a misnomer. In reality these colonies are almost the exact opposite of labor colonies. They are colonies rather of those temporarily or permanently unable to labor. Yet they are called "labor colonies," and it seems almost impossible to change the name.

To fail to understand this point is to thoroughly misconceive the *labor colonies* from the start. Bona fide working

not to be found in these colonies, and the colonies are not to be considered as any solution of the problem of unemployment of the employable. They are simply shelters or places for the unemployable. In this sense they have had no little success and fill a large and important place. It is significant that the valuable and copious report to Parliament (1906) of the English vagrancy committee, based upon abundant evidence for and against labor colonies, ends with recommendations—not indeed for all classes of the unemployed, but for vagrants—for a scheme of which, it says, “the main feature is the establishment of labor colonies.”^(*)

- * Practically these colonies may be said to have commenced in Germany, where they are of comparatively modern development. They owe their start and also their development largely to Pastor von Bodelschwingh, in connection with his colony of “Bethel” at Bielefeld, in Westphalia.

THE WILHELMSDORF COLONY.

The first colony was established in 1882 at Wilhelmsdorf, a few miles from the colony of Bethel. Germany at this time was infested with tramps, of whom there were said to be 100,000. This was probably an exaggeration, but they cost Germany, publicly and privately, a vast sum of money. They burdened the institutions and instrumentalities of relief; they darkened the doors of the charitable. Complaints and questions as to what could be done were heard on every hand. Not a few of them came to the colony at Bethel, and at once became a problem.

Finally the tramps were received into the colony, a piece of land considered too poor for cultivation was obtained, and the labor colony of Wilhelmsdorf was created.

It proved to be the beginning of a large movement. The first effort naturally was to obtain buildings for the colony and to improve the land. After a brief shelter had been provided the tramps were set to work improving the land, under competent guidance, and it was found that the land could be made quite capable of cultivation. The tramps were not driven to work nor compelled to stay, but while they stayed they had to comply with strict rules, among which the necessity to labor was first and foremost. A competent house father was placed in charge of the colony, and under his direction the colony gradually developed into a distinct success. Religion and attendance upon the simple services of the colony were not made compulsory, but the religious features are prominent at Wilhelmsdorf and all the German colonies.

^{*} Report of Vagrancy Committee. Summary of Recommendations, p. 120.

To-day the colony at Wilhelmsdorf occupies about 500 acres, a large portion of which has been converted into valuable agricultural land. The land formed part of the so-called Teutoburger Wald (or forest), which was considered of no value. From 2 to 4 feet of the surface seems to have consisted of friable limestone, making vegetable growth almost impossible; but it was found that by breaking up this rocky deposit it could be converted into valuable and productive soil, and this has been done by the colonists. The initial expenses of operation were large, even though the original cost of the soil was small. When the colony was started, March 22, 1882, there was only one road through the forest. To-day over 4 miles of public and over 2 miles of private roads have been constructed. Thirteen different buildings have been erected, covering 10 acres of ground.

Near the gateway of the colony, which is never closed day or night, is the principal building, in which the largest number of colonists are domiciled; a little beyond this is the residence of the "Hausvater" (house father); then the kitchen, the dining room, and the offices of the colony. Around these are extensive sheds and stables for the horses, cattle, and pigs, and henneries for fowls and pigeons. The number of the colonists varies from 80 to over 200, according to the season of the year. The colonists, perfectly free to come and go, to a large extent work elsewhere in the summer months and come to the colony in the winter months when other work fails them. This means that the work of the colony is done under great difficulties. For example, in a recent year at harvest time there were only five men in the colony who could do the reaping. Thus one of the main economic difficulties of the colony is that its numbers are smallest when there is most to be done, and largest in the seasons when comparatively little agricultural work can be done. Therefore the colony does not pay financially, nor is it expected to pay; it is simply a shelter for men who can find no work. They live here under conditions favorable to good morals, industry, and temperance, are able partly to support themselves, and a few of them are rescued and developed into men for whom permanent situations and work can be found.

Every reasonable effort is made to make the colony comfortable and homelike, although not so attractive as to draw the inmates from work which they are capable of doing outside. The food is simple and yet healthful and abundant. Efforts are made to supply the colonists with good reading and every influence for the development of better character.

The early breakfast, served from 5.20 to 5.50 in the winter and at 4.20 in the summer, consists usually of coffee, black bread, and beet jelly; at 9 o'clock in winter and at 8.30 in summer a second breakfast is served of black bread with lard, butter, or cheese. " Dinner

consists of vegetables with potatoes and meat of some kind, usually pork fat, three times a week. The vegetables are often served up in the form of a stew or soup with pigs' fat. In the afternoon coffee and bread are carried to the fields at 3.30. A supper at 5.50 in the winter and 8 in the summer consists usually of soup with rice or pease, served with potatoes and milk and occasionally with herring or other dishes.

The newly arrived colonist is usually set to work at ditching or some simple field work. If he is in need of clothes he is supplied with these on credit. After the first fortnight he is credited with small wages in addition to board and lodging. For nine months in the year, when it is possible to work out of doors, the average payment besides board and lodging is about 6 cents per day. From November 15 to February 15, the rate is only about 5 cents per day; a bonus is also often given on leaving as a recognition of good conduct; all rates and arrangements, however, are at the discretion of the Hausvater. Not a few of the colonists receive no wages beyond board and clothing. No money is actually paid except for special reasons until the colonist leaves the colony, and not infrequently it happens that he is in debt to the colony when he leaves, his clothes and tobacco having more than swallowed up his earnings.

It is difficult to ascertain the results of the colony. Results in morals can not be expressed by statistics; as shown in the tables of general statistics for the German colonies, a large number of the colonists are "reservists" who come repeatedly to the colony winter by winter. This indicates that for the large majority no permanent position has resulted, but a number of instances of improvement of character are recorded in the history of the colony and not a few permanent situations for members have been found. Wilhelmsdorf, like most of the German colonies, has been fortunate in the character and efficiency of its Hausvaters. Many of the Hausvaters of the German colonies have been trained for service at "Bethel," or in the evangelical Rauhehaus at Hamburg. Indeed, this religious atmosphere of the colonies, so far as effect upon character goes, is their main characteristic. The colonies, however, are by no means denominational and welcome is given to Catholics or Freethinkers as freely as to the Protestant.

The details of the Wilhelmsdorf colony have been dwelt upon because it is the oldest and best known, although not the largest. Several of the younger colonies have adopted more advanced methods and have been able to branch out in new directions.

The success at Wilhelmsdorf was at once so marked that the next year six new colonies were established, with four more in 1884.

One or two more typical ones are here considered in detail:

THE LUHLERHEIM COLONY.

This colony is given especial notice because it is considered in many ways to be among the most attractive and successful of the German labor colonies.

The colony is situated some 10 miles from Wesel, almost on the border between Germany and Holland, and near the western boundary of Westphalia, one of the most important industrial manufacturing and mining districts of Germany. A little north of the colony lies the Roman Catholic colony Maria-Veen. Many men come to the colony who have sought employment in Westphalia and have found themselves incapable of doing the work, or who for one reason or another are temporarily thrown out of work. The colonists at Luhlerheim have therefore been rather more changeable than in most of the colonies.

Luhlerheim is attractively laid out and its buildings are among the best and most modern of the German colonies. The country at Luhlerheim is flat and makes no pretense to beauty, although the farms around are more or less successful and well-kept woods make the surroundings pleasing. A broad pathway through the woods has been built by the colonists direct to the railway station, about 4 miles distant. The number of colonists, as in all the colonies, varies with the seasons. April 1, 1907, there were 197; at various times during the year 531 had been inmates of the colony. From the opening of the colony February 15, 1886, to March 31, 1907, there had been 7,304 persons admitted. The following table of the number present, by months, shows the fluctuation by seasons:

ARRIVALS AND AVERAGE NUMBER OF INMATES OF LUHLERHEIM LABOR COLONY FOR EACH MONTH, APRIL, 1906, TO MARCH, 1907.

	New arrivals.	Average number of inmates.		New arrivals.	Average number of inmates.
April, 1906.....	21	138	November, 1906.....	32	175
May, 1906.....	38	119	December, 1906.....	36	190
June, 1906.....	37	128	January, 1907.....	32	208
July, 1906.....	44	143	February, 1907.....	27	200
August, 1906.....	28	141	March, 1907.....	9	193
September, 1906.....	32	131			
October, 1906.....	39	145	Total.....	375	159

The report for 1907 gives the following statistics as to the nature of the colonists:

The total number of days spent in the colony by the 531 men who were there during a portion of the year was 58,617, so that the aver-

age number of days spent in the colony was 111 days, or slightly over three months and a half.

Of the 375 arrivals during the year 361 recorded themselves as Protestant and 14 as Catholic; 9 of them were between the ages of 15 and 20; 53 were from 21 to 30; 220 from 31 to 50 (showing that the large majority of them were in the prime of life, although probably most of them were nearer 50 than 31); 67 were from 51 to 60 years old; 25 from 61 to 70, and 1 was over 70. Of the total 287 were single, 20 were married, 10 separated, 45 widowed, and 13 divorced; 14 were illegitimate. Concerning their residence, 192 came from Rhenish Prussia, 53 from Westphalia, 85 from other Prussian provinces, 43 from other portions of Germany, and 2 from foreign lands.

Of the total number 242 had suffered conviction of some kind or other: 122 for begging (vagrancy), 46 for various light offenses, 51 for short-time offenses, 23 for graver charges. There were 347 who had cards in the old-age and insurance funds; only 28 were without such cards.

Of the whole number 110 were admitted to the colony for the first time, 68 for the second time, 51 for the third, 37 for the fourth, 29 for the fifth, 9 for the sixth, 18 for the seventh, and no less than 53 for the eighth time. This indicates that the large majority of the colonists have been there before, having gone out from the colony when they could get work and returning to it when work failed them.

Of the 334 who left or who were dismissed from the colony 22 went to positions where they could earn, 4 returned to their families, 213 (the large majority) left to travel in search of other work, 71 were discharged for misbehavior and 3 for incompetency, 19 were dismissed, 2 died. None during the year were sought by the police.

During the year 271 were refused admission, of whom 261 were refused on account of lack of room in the colony, 6 on account of inability to work, and 4 for being on the black list. There were 136 applicants who failed to enter.

THE BERLIN COLONY.

Not all the colonies are alike. The majority are established in country districts. The largest in the towns is that at Hamburg, established in 1891 and having places for 170 inmates. The next largest of the town colonies is at Berlin, founded in 1883, and having accommodations for 142 inmates. Many applicants have to be turned away for want of room. As representing a city colony, some details of the Berlin colony are given, and especially details as to the work done. The first industry undertaken was the silkworm culture, but this, together with other attempts at flower cultivation, was not successful. It was found that the men who came to the colony did not

stay long enough to learn a new trade properly. The next step was to employ the colonists in making straw wrappers for packing bottles. This work has not been profitable, as it competed with a machine for making straw ropes. This was added to the colony in 1903. The work continued. The making of door mats and similar articles also failed because of the competition of machine-made goods. The next trade taken up was brush and broom making. This experiment was continued for a considerable time, but had to meet great competition on the part of the manufacturers and the profits have gradually declined. Somewhat more successful has been the making of boxes and kitchen furniture. Joinery work has now become the principal occupation of the colony, although other work is done. Clerks and artisans, however, have from time to time been employed at their regular occupations. Some casual outside work has been done at certain seasons, such as snow sweeping, unloading barges, carting sand, etc. A certain number of the colonists have been engaged at agricultural work and forestry.

In respect to wages paid, the Berlin colony differs in some respects from the others. In most of the other colonies there is no charge for board and lodging, but a member is credited with wages until after he has been in the colony a certain number of weeks, and then receives wages rising from about 3 cents to about 10 cents per day, rarely above the latter amount. The practice of the Berlin colony has been to give a man about \$1.50 per week at the beginning and to increase this up to about \$2.50 or even \$3 a week, but to charge him about \$1.30 per week for board and lodging. From his wages there has also been deducted an amount for insurance under the old age and sickness insurance laws. The wages that he has earned are, however, paid to him in the German colonies only when he leaves the colony, and if he leaves it for reasons creditable to himself. If he is expelled for drunkenness or misbehavior or if he quits before the expiration of the period for which he has agreed to remain, no payments are made to him. Though this is the general rule, small earnings are sometimes given to him for special purposes. As a rule, after a stay of six months the colonists have received usually only from about \$10 to \$15, but occasionally as high as \$37. It is stated that generally poor use has been made of these savings. From 1883-1907, altogether 12,500 unemployed men have been sheltered in the colony.

THE HOME COLONIES.

To obviate the evils of so many going and coming, some of the colonies called the "Heim-kolonien" make a specialty of long-term inmates. The first of these, Friedrichwillmsdorf, about 3 miles from Bremerhaven, opened in 1886, with 12 colonists. Schäferhof has already been consider

GENERAL STATISTICS OF GERMAN LABOR COLONIES.

To-day there are 33 German labor colonies of all kinds and one at Libury Hall, in England, for Germans in England. The following tables from the Wanderer for November, 1907, give the list of these colonies and their most recent general statistics:

DATE OF OPENING OF GERMAN LABOR COLONIES, TOTAL ARRIVALS SINCE OPENING, NUMBER OF ARRIVALS, BY CONJUGAL CONDITION, IN AUGUST, 1907, AND AVERAGE NUMBER PRESENT IN THE COLONIES IN AUGUST, 1907.

Name of colony.	Date of opening.	Total arrivals since opening.	Colonists of each conjugal condition arriving in August, 1907.					Total arrivals in August 1907.	Average number present in August 1907.
			Sin-gle.	Mar-ried.	Sepa-rated	Wid-owed.	Di-vorced.		
Wilhelmsdorf, Bethel, Westphalia.....	Mar. 22, 1882	12,402	42	4	4	7	1	58	185
Berlin.....	May 1, 1883	12,514	22	2	7	2	2	35	108
Kästorf, Hanover.....	June 24, 1883	9,501	17	8	4	5	1	35	137
Rickling, Sleswick-Holstein.....	Oct. 10, 1883	8,517	11	1	2	1	15	67
Friedrichswille, Brandenburg.....	Nov. 13, 1883	10,687	31	3	4	5	43	101
Dornahof, Württemberg.....	Nov. 15, 1883	6,528	9	9	28
Seyda, Province of Saxony.....	Dec. 14, 1883	7,762	7	3	10	39
Danelsberg, Oldenburg.....	Feb. 8, 1884	4,097	20	2	3	25	38
Munsha, Silesia.....	July 14, 1884	5,298	11	2	1	1	15	84
Meierel, Pomerania.....	July 25, 1884	6,539	7	2	2	11	61
Carlsdorf, East Prussia.....	Oct. 15, 1884	10,209	6	1	3	10	21
Ankenbuck, Baden.....	Feb. 26, 1885	4,435	4	1	5	22
New Ulrichstein, Hesse.....	July 1, 1885	6,142	24	1	1	26	49
Lühlerheim, Rhenish Prussia.....	Feb. 15, 1886	7,691	25	1	2	4	1	33	141
Schneckengrün, Kingdom of Saxony.....	Feb. 22, 1886	5,543	11	1	1	2	15	48
Friedrichwilhelmsdorf.....	Sept. 22, 1886	1,521	5	1	2	8	26
Elkenroth, Rhenish Prussia.....	Oct. 20, 1886	3,954	11	2	2	2	17	44
Simonshof, Bavaria.....	May 1, 1888	5,615	3	2	1	6	40
Maria-Veen, Westphalia.....	Oct. 1, 1888	9,017	39	5	2	46	96
Alt-Latzig, Posen.....	Oct. 26, 1888	3,127	10	1	4	15	59
Magdeburg, Province of Saxony.....	Nov. 23, 1888	7,201	25	2	7	7	3	45	99
Geilsdorf, Thuringia.....	July 28, 1889	2,537	2	2	4	24
Erlach, Württemberg.....	Apr. 1, 1891	4,389	12	12	36
Hamburg.....	Dec. 1, 1891	6,077	16	1	3	1	21	83
Hohenhof, Sleswick.....	Jan. 2, 1892	2,192	9	1	1	11	77
Hilmarshof, West Prussia.....	Jan. 17, 1892	4,034	17	3	4	24	41
Herzogsägmühle, Bavaria.....	Aug. 1, 1894	3,204	6	1	7	21
Lieske, Kingdom of Saxony.....	Oct. 17, 1897	2,221	5	1	1	1	1	9	34
Schäferhof.....	Dec. 2, 1898	1,671	6	1	1	8	98
Schermau, Palatinate.....	Aug. 23, 1899	1,392	9	3	2	14	38
Friestadt.....	Nov. 24, 1899	2,955	11	4	3	18	88
Weeze, Rhenish Prussia.....	Apr. 11, 1902	1,588	35	1	5	1	42	91
Hoffnungstal, near Bernau.....	Nov. 12, 1905	1,378	49	4	6	8	10	77	312
Libury Hall, England.....	Sept. 29, 1900	3,184	42	4	3	49	88
Total.....		185,162	560	48	53	84	33	778	2,524

NUMBER OF COLONISTS ARRIVING IN THE GERMAN LABOR COLONIES IN AUGUST, 1907, BY AGE.

Name of colony.	Colonists of each age arriving in August, 1907.						Total arrivals in August, 1907.
	15 to 16 years.	17 to 20 years.	21 to 30 years.	31 to 50 years.	51 to 60 years.	61 to 70 years.	
Wilhelmsdorf, Bethel, Westphalia.....	2	7	32	15	2	58
Berlin.....	1	4	6	13	11	35
Kästorf, Hanover.....	2	2	18	7	5	1	35
Rickling, Sleswick-Holstein.....	1	7	6	1	15
Friedrichswille, Brandenburg.....	8	22	13	1	43
Dornahof, Württemberg.....	2	6	2	10
Seyda, Province of Saxony.....	1	8	2	10
Danelsberg, Oldenburg.....	1	2	17	3	2	25
Munsha, Silesia.....	10	4	1	15
Meierel, Pomerania.....	1	6	4	11
Carlsdorf, East Prussia.....	6	3	1	10

NUMBER OF COLONISTS ARRIVING IN THE GERMAN LABOR COLONIES IN AUGUST, 1907, BY AGE—Concluded.

Name of colony.	Colonists of each age arriving in August, 1907.							Total arrivals in August, 1907.
	15 to 16 years.	17 to 20 years.	21 to 30 years.	31 to 50 years.	51 to 60 years.	61 to 70 years.	Over 70 years.	
Ankenbuck, Baden.....			2		3			5
New Ulrichstein, Hesse.....		2	3	15	4		1	26
Löhlerheim, Rhenish Prussia.....			5	12	13	3		33
Schneckengrün, Kingdom of Saxony.....			2	10	3			15
Friedrichwilhelmsdorf.....			1	4	2	1		8
Eikenroth, Rhenish Prussia.....			4	9	3		1	17
Simonshof, Bavaria.....		1	1	3				6
Maria-Veen, Westphalia.....			6	25		1		46
Alt-Latzig, Posen.....			1	7	6			15
Magdeburg, Province of Saxony.....			11	22	12	1		45
Geilsdorf, Thuringia.....				1	2			4
Erlach, Württemberg.....		1		5	3	2		12
Hamburg.....			4	13	3	1		21
Hohenhof, Sleswick.....			2	5	4			11
Hilmarshof, West Prussia.....		1	1	13	6	3		24
Herzogsägmühle, Bavaria.....			3	3	1			7
Lieske, Kingdom of Saxony.....			2	4	1	2		9
Schäferhof.....			2	3	2	1		8
Schernau, Palatinate.....			3	6	3	2		14
Freistadt.....			2	9	5	2		18
Weeze, Rhenish Prussia.....			4	24	14			42
Hoffnungstal, near Bernau.....		1	14	47	12	3		77
Libury Hall, England.....		7	25	10	6	1		49
Total.....	1	22	135	390	190	37	3	778

NUMBER OF DEPARTURES FROM THE GERMAN LABOR COLONIES SINCE OPENING AND NUMBER OF COLONISTS LEAVING IN AUGUST, 1907, BY CAUSES.

Name of colony.	Total departures since opening.	Colonists leaving in August, 1907, for each cause.							
		Illness.	Incapacity.	Required by police.	Time expired.	Voluntary.	Through the colony.	By request.	Returned to family.
Wilhelmsdorf, Bethel, Westphalia.....	12,217	4				1	9	25	1
Berlin.....	12,406		1			13	1	3	1
Küstorf, Hanover.....	9,364					11	5	1	
Rickling, Sleswick-Holstein.....	8,450				9	3			
Friedrichswille, Brandenburg.....	10,586	1				18	1	3	
Dornahof, Württemberg.....	6,500	1				5		2	
Seyda, Province of Saxony.....	7,723	1				2		1	1
Dauelsberg, Oldenburg.....	4,059					9	2	3	
Munscha, Silesia.....	5,214	2				8		2	
Meierel, Pomerania.....	6,478	2	1			6			
Carlshof, East Prussia.....	10,188					3			
Ankenbuck, Baden.....	4,413			1		4		2	1
New Ulrichstein, Hesse.....	6,093	1				15		3	
Löhlerheim, Rhenish Prussia.....	7,550					17			
Schneckengrün, Kingdom of Saxony.....	5,495		1			15			1
Friedrichwilhelmsdorf.....	1,495					4			
Eikenroth, Rhenish Prussia.....	3,910					21			
Simonshof, Bavaria.....	5,575					8	1	2	
Maria-Veen, Westphalia.....	8,921	1				16	8	6	
Alt-Latzig, Posen.....	3,098					18		1	
Magdeburg, Province of Saxony.....	7,102	2				13	5	1	
Geilsdorf, Thuringia.....	2,513								
Erlach, Württemberg.....	4,353	1	1			11			
Hamburg.....	5,994					10			1
Hohenhof, Sleswick.....	2,115				1	2	1		
Hilmarshof, West Prussia.....	4,023					7	1	1	
Herzogsägmühle, Bavaria.....	3,183					9			
Lieske, Kingdom of Saxony.....	2,187					12			
Schäferhof.....	1,573	1							
Schernau, Palatinate.....	1,354					5			
Freistadt.....	2,867					10			
Weeze, Rhenish Prussia.....	1,497	2				40	1	4	
Hoffnungstal, near Bernau.....	1,066	1				30	9	15	
Libury Hall, England.....	3,096	3				14	10	2	4
Total.....		23	4	1					38

NUMBER OF DEPARTURES FROM THE GERMAN LABOR COLONIES SINCE OPENING AND NUMBER OF COLONISTS LEAVING IN AUGUST, 1907, BY CAUSES—Concluded.

Name of colony.	Colonists leaving in August, 1907, for each cause.						Total leaving in August, 1907.	Accommodations furnished by colony.
	Found work.	Unwilling to work.	Drunkenness.	Indecent behavior.	Other bad behavior.	Ran away.		
Wilhelmsdorf, Bethel, Westphalia.....					2	7	49	211
Berlin.....	3				1	1	24	142
Küstorf, Hanover.....	4		1		3	1	26	250
Rickling, Sleswick-Holstein.....	10					1	23	120
Friedrichswille, Brandenburg.....		2				5	80	200
Dornhof, Württemberg.....						1	9	100
Seyda, Province of Saxony.....	1						6	100
Dauelsberg, Oldenburg.....		2				3	19	50
Munzcha, Silesia.....		3				1	16	100
Meierei, Pomerania.....	9						15	150
Carlshof, East Prussia.....							3	250
Ankenbuck, Baden.....	3				1	1	12	76
New Ulrichstein, Hesse.....		3			3		25	120
Löhlerheim, Rhenish Prussia.....	5						22	160
Schneckengrün, Kingdom of Saxony.....							17	120
Friedrichwilhelmsdorf.....							4	37
Elkenroth, Rhenish Prussia.....	3						25	80
Simonshof, Bavaria.....	2				1		14	100
Maria-Veen, Westphalia.....						1	82	230
Alt-Latzig, Posen.....			2			2	23	60
Magdeburg, Province of Saxony.....	5		1			2	29	120
Gellsdorf, Thuringia.....	1						1	45
Erlach, Württemberg.....		1			1		15	110
Hamburg.....	9					1	21	170
Hohenhof, Sleswick.....							4	81
Hilmarshof, West Prussia.....	3	1			1		14	100
Herzogsägmühle, Bavaria.....							9	100
Lieske, Kingdom of Saxony.....	1	1				1	15	100
Schäferhof.....					1	7	9	100
Schernau, Palatinate.....							5	80
Freistadt.....	2			1	1	2	16	250
Weese, Rhenish Prussia.....			2				49	125
Hoffnungstal, near Bernau.....	6	1	5		2	1	70	330
Libury Hall, England.....					1	3	37	90
Total.....	67	14	11	1	18	41	691	* 4,572

* This total does not agree with the sum of the items; the figures given are as shown in the original.

PERSONS RECEIVED INTO LABOR COLONIES OF GERMANY FROM 1901 TO 1904, BY OCCUPATIONS.

Occupations.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.
Farmers, gardeners, foresters.....	790	1,059	1,292	1,160
Fishers.....	13	12	16	14
Miners.....	72	98	69	85
Potters and stoneworkers.....	217	269	182	181
Chemist, dyers.....	82	64	75	95
Building trades.....	768	834	918	799
Wood carvers, varnishers, gilders.....	399	413	359	388
Firemen, lamplighters, etc.....	29	26	27	36
Machinists, tool makers.....	241	253	251	254
Clock and watch makers, instrument makers (musical and scientific).....	39	22	41	44
Metal workers.....	654	795	705	620
Textile industries.....	280	211	219	247
Clothiers and cleaners.....	471	504	504	504
Grocers, dairymen, waiters.....	449	519	517	520
Hotel clerks, runners, porters.....	83	90	132	181
Cabmen, conductors, motormen.....	58	69	56	65
Sailors.....	91	89	98	74
Commercial travelers, clerks, salesmen.....	448	545	609	593
Leather and paper industries.....	178	229	193	204
Printers and lithographers, etc.....	88	96	95	69
Literature and newspapers.....	14	9	20	12
Craftsmen.....	42	31	35	28
Artists and scientists.....	29	21	32	32
Musicians, acrobats, actors.....	11	23	15	24
Officials, civil engineers, etc.....	159	161	118	125
Orderlies, barbers, hairdressers.....	92	94	110	103
Valets and servants.....	66	97	108	56
Unskilled labor.....	2,740	3,138	2,911	2,826
All other occupations.....	218	341	564	472
Total.....	8,803	10,046	10,288	9,819

Unskilled labor has much the largest representation. Skilled artisans are not very numerous. The men are not compelled to stay, and come and go, many of them, to return. The following table makes this clear:

PERSONS ADMITTED TO LABOR COLONIES OF GERMANY, BY NUMBER OF TIMES PREVIOUSLY ADMITTED TO A COLONY, 1896 TO 1904.

Previous admissions to a colony.	Number of persons admitted to colonies who had been previously admitted each specified number of times.								
	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.
Never previously admitted..	2,353	2,156	2,829	2,688	2,890	3,774	4,293	4,351	4,074
Previously admitted:									
On 1 occasion.....	1,118	1,561	1,670	1,577	1,569	1,698	2,039	2,211	2,062
On 2 occasions.....	552	754	994	1,006	998	1,033	1,136	1,236	1,213
On 3 occasions.....	359	443	617	628	661	689	747	792	742
On 4 occasions.....	192	270	381	412	438	460	454	473	498
On 5 occasions.....	138	154	228	282	304	330	364	312	345
On 6 occasions.....	69	120	173	209	189	250	280	255	217
On more than 6 occasions	136	203	441	442	485	574	733	658	608
Not reported.....	2,729	1,530	20	19
Total.....	7,646	7,191	7,333	7,244	7,494	8,823	10,046	10,307	9,819

It will be seen that the number of cases in which the men admitted have already made a stay in the same or in another labor colony, on one or even two previous occasions, is very large, and that a great number had taken refuge in a colony even oftener than that.

The numbers do not vary materially from year to year. Some go away because they have found work, as is seen by the following table giving figures from 1885 to 1893:

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF COLONISTS IN GERMAN LABOR COLONIES OBTAINING WORK AND LEAVING VOLUNTARILY, 1885 TO 1893.

Year.	Number of colonies.	Colonists obtaining work.		Colonists leaving voluntarily.	
		Number.	Per cent of total.	Number.	Per cent of total.
1885-86.....	15	1,391	27.4	2,755	54.1
1886-87.....	16	1,470	24.7	3,427	57.8
1887-1889.....	20	2,465	20.8	7,153	60.4
1889-1891.....	21	2,623	19.7	8,564	64.5
1891-1893.....	26	2,651	16.5	10,715	67.1

Here is a somewhat steadily diminishing proportion of those who leave to take positions of work. It seems to indicate a lowering average of ability. This is thought to be the case with the colonists and is usually explained in Germany by the statement that the best colonists were attracted first, and many of them getting positions, only those came again and again who were for one reason or another the least efficient.

It is evident from these details that the men sent to the German colonies are the ne'er-do-wells or wrecks of society. A very large proportion of them is said to have suffered imprisonment at one time or another. (1) Estimated at from 66 to 76 per cent.

With respect to the moral improvement in the colonies it is difficult to supply precise information, but on the whole it is not reported favorable.

The general opinion of those who have studied the German labor colonies is not favorable to them, measuring them by the standard of the redemption of character. This is the opinion of the report of the departmental committee on vagrancy in England and Wales, based on careful studies of the colonies. It says: "It appears that three-fourths of the colonists have been previously imprisoned, and there is no evidence that any substantial improvement results from the time spent in the colonies."^(a) The report quotes Mr. W. H. Dawson, a student of German social problems, as saying: "Speaking generally, I do not think you can regard them as being reformatory institutions. The inmates do not stay long enough, and the discipline is not severe enough." But this view, though in itself probably correct, is probably only a partial view. The effect on the reformation of the individual character is not the only thing to be remembered. The interests of society must be also taken into consideration. It must be remembered that these ne'er-do-wells exist in all civilized countries, and that in all countries in one form or another they cost the country vast sums. The question then arises not only what results have such colonies on the tramp, but how do such colonies affect this vast question, and it can not be denied that although not accomplishing the seemingly impossible—the redemption of a vagrant character—they do remove from society large numbers of the vagrant class and provide for them a favorable shelter at the least possible cost. The statistics show that the colonists in the main leave the colonies only when they can get work, and that they return to them when they can not. That large numbers at least do this shows perhaps little permanent regeneration, but it also shows that these men do not prey upon society or generally violate laws. If colonists of vagrants, three-fourths of whom had been previously imprisoned, are rescued to the extent of neither committing crime nor begging, and rescued, too, in the cheapest way to society, certainly not a little has been accomplished. The original statement of Pastor Bodelschwingh, on which this colony movement is founded, has been made good. He said: "Let me have the tramps and I will save some of them, and they will cost you less." The results seem to verify that statement. The evil the tramp does if not sheltered in colonies must especially be realized. Mr. Edmund Kelly in *The Unemployables*, page 8, says:

But whether a victim or not, he is certainly a danger to the community; the few pence he begs, borrows, or steals is spent in the

^a Report, vol. 1, p. 65.

public house side by side with the element of our society most subject to the contagion of vagabondage; there he relates his adventures, brags of his independence, tempts his listeners to drink and seduces the young into sharing his fortunes; he spreads disease, physical and moral, leaves a legacy of lice to every lodging where he rests; and diligently undoes what little our compulsory education contributes to good citizenship.

SWITZERLAND.

That the German labor colonies can be improved upon, at least in one line, is found in a consideration of the Swiss labor colonies.

The characteristic of the Swiss labor colonies most deserving of notice is that there are various kinds of colonies for various classes of the unemployed. Some of these colonies are "free," maintained by the philanthropically inclined, while others belong to the State (Cantons), and are really penal colonies. Both classes of colonies work together, are in some cases geographically side by side, and in all cases supplement each other. The penal colonies are considered in the next section, but their existence must not be forgotten in studying the free colonies.

There are now three free colonies in Switzerland, with the beginnings of a fourth, and probabilities of still more being soon started. The oldest is the colony of Tannenhof, in the county of Bern; the largest is that of Herdern, in the Canton of Thurgau, near Frauenfeld; the third is the colony of Dietisberg, near Basel, with the beginnings of one for French Switzerland, near Geneva. Each of these colonies is supported by philanthropic societies, individual friends for the most part in the counties nearest to the colonies, principally Bern, Zurich, and Basel for the three respective colonies.

TANNENHOF LABOR COLONY.

Tannenhof, the oldest of the colonies, was established in 1889, with the especial object of providing a temporary home or halfway house for discharged convicts or persons discharged from the penal colonies, and particularly from the neighboring penal colony of Witzwyl. It has not, however, been confined to these, but receives any sent to it, mainly aged or otherwise incapacitated members of the unemployed class. It has not reached large proportions, having at the most from 40 to 50 men and most of the time a smaller number. It has suffered from lack of proper support. Its buildings are very simple and unattractive, though the management does what it can to make its inmates at home.

All are given work of some kind, even the oldest doing something around the buildings, picking vegetables, driving carts, or drawing, cutting, and binding kindlings from the adjacent woods.

fore shelters a very needy and somewhat helpless class of men, but can not be said to accomplish a large work; nor, with such material, aged men for the most part, can it show much in the way of returning men into the ranks of the efficient. It is not self-sustaining. Its expenses, however, are small. The estimated cost of maintaining an individual in the colony is only from 0.90 to 1 franc (17 to 19 cents) per day. The land was originally bought at a low price, and the expenses of management are low. At the close of 1889 the total value of the property was estimated at 3,255.03 francs (\$628.22) less than its indebtedness; on January 1, 1905, the property was valued at 14,442.62 francs (\$2,787.43) more than its indebtedness. The indebtedness had increased, but the value of the property had been still more increased. Recently the colony has been more closely connected with Witzwyl, the neighboring penal colony, the director of that colony having become chairman of the committee in charge of Tannenhof.

HERDERN LABOR COLONY.

The colony of Herdern is larger and more attractive, though perhaps in other ways not really more successful. Founded in 1895, it occupies the interesting buildings of an old castle, once used also as the monastery of St. Urban, on the slopes of vine-clad hills near Lake Constance. It had in the winter of 1907-8 87 colonists, and compared with Tannenhof is a much more active place. It carries on a large and successful trade in cheese and butter and raises considerable amounts of farm produce of various kinds, besides having various hand industries, though in the main only for its own supplies and repairs. Like Tannenhof, Herdern is a free colony, though its inmates must agree to stay at least four weeks after the first fortnight. The colonist is credited with a small wage of about 6 to 12 cents per day, paid on his leaving the colony, less the amount for any new clothes supplied him. He is also given board, lodging, washing, and tobacco. The farm consists of some 300 acres, mainly devoted to dairy work, but with a large vineyard. The colonists coming, as they mainly do, from the cities, however, are artisans more than agriculturists. The living is simple—coffee and bread or porridge at 7, tea at 9, soup and vegetables (meat twice a week) at 12, and soup with bread in the evening. The results in character are hard to estimate. The English report of the departmental committee on vagrancy, quoted above, reports the president of the society which supports Herdern as saying of the colonists: "We can not make any attempt to reform them; we create some more employment for men who say they can not get any, but that is all; we do not profess to do them any good, but we try to preach to them a little,

and exercise a good influence over them."^(a) This is perhaps an unduly modest statement.

In 1902 of the 222 who left the colony in the course of the year, 31 went to situations secured for them by the colony, 55 secured positions for themselves, 93 left professedly to seek work, 10 left without notice, 16 were dismissed for incapacity, and 17 for bad conduct (less than 8 per cent). The average number of inmates in 1902 was 62. The expense (including salaries, allowances to colonists, etc.), after subtracting the amount of sales from the total expenditures, amounted to 2.29 francs (44 cents) per day for each of the 62 inmates. A report by Doctor Hoffmann to the Swiss Federal department of industry in May, 1906, gives the following table, showing the receipts and expenditures of the Herdern free colony from 1895-96 to 1905:

VALUE OF PROPERTY, EXPENDITURES, AND RECEIPTS OF THE HERDERN FREE LABOR COLONY, SWITZERLAND, 1896 TO 1905.

Year.	Value of property.	Expenditures.	Receipts.				Deficits.	
			Sales of produce.		Donations.		Amount.	Per cent of expenditures.
			Amount.	Per cent of expenditures.	Amount.	Per cent of expenditures.		
1895-96.....	\$13,791.69	\$6,904.03	\$2,296.45	33.3	\$874.29	12.6	\$3,733.29	54.1
1896-97.....	12,831.53	8,832.63	2,347.45	26.6	1,151.44	13.0	5,333.74	60.4
1897-98.....	17,814.75	11,424.30	7,957.89	69.6	1,209.15	10.6	2,257.26	19.8
1898 (Dec. 31).....	18,041.47	7,840.74	2,240.88	28.6	2,055.84	26.2	3,544.02	45.2
1899.....	18,108.98	11,898.95	6,161.48	51.8	2,231.56	18.7	3,505.90	29.5
1900.....	22,059.45	13,144.35	4,400.02	33.5	3,279.40	24.9	5,464.93	41.6
1901.....	22,842.53	12,950.24	3,822.89	29.5	3,311.24	25.6	5,816.11	44.9
1902.....	20,349.86	14,932.64	4,914.13	32.9	3,876.67	26.0	6,141.84	41.1
1903.....	22,567.28	11,243.04	5,602.21	48.9	4,261.25	37.9	1,479.58	13.2
1904.....	21,202.83	12,764.39	5,582.16	43.7	3,927.94	30.8	3,254.29	25.5
1905.....	24,067.07	11,499.40	5,697.56	49.6	4,198.32	36.5	1,603.32	13.9
Average.....		11,221.34	4,629.38	41.3	2,761.57	24.6	3,830.39	34.1

DIETISBERG LABOR COLONY.

The colony of Dietisberg, the youngest of the three free colonies, was begun by two private persons in 1904 for 25 colonists. It is hardly old enough yet to show results, but is not particularly different from the colonies already considered. The expense per head per day at Dietisberg is estimated at about 1 franc (19 cents).

The Swiss penal colonies are probably more interesting and successful than the free colonies, but the general opinion in Switzerland seems to be favorable to the free colonies as doing well, so far as their means allow, and as doing important work, and needing only funds or State help to do more. The colony at Herdern has received Federal grants of 20,000 francs (\$3,860) in 1897-98, and 10,000 francs (\$1,930)

^a Report, p. 68.

in 1901. For lack of room all the colonies have to refuse many applicants. Nor must their work be undervalued. Tannenhof, down to 1905 (that is, in sixteen years) had received 1,903 inmates, with a total of 158,728 days' residence; Herdern to the end of 1904 (nine years), 1,663 colonists, with 182,221 days' residence, and Dietisberg in the two years of its existence, 141 colonists, with 14,840 days' residence.

The tenth annual report of the Tannenhof colony says:

If we have simply succeeded in giving a home to a relatively small number of men who, after long privations, for at least a few weeks or months have affectionately been offered nurture for soul and body, and so have been strengthened physically and morally to return to ordinary work, it appears to us worth the sacrifices and efforts we have made and worth their continuance in the future.

It is probable, however, that more could be done.

Sir C. Green, in his report on the Swiss labor colonies, makes this interesting remark:

Moreover, the fact that these colonies admit the criminal element, even with the laudable intention of reforming them and refitting them morally and materially, seems to constitute the most serious obstacle to the adoption of the system as a relief for bona fide workmen, whose only fault, or their worst, consists in their inability to find the means to earn their daily bread.

FRANCE.

Labor colonies have not been developed to any extent in France, nor has success attended the efforts which have been made in this direction. The one colony of La Chalmelle, in the Forêt de Traconne, about 50 miles east from Paris, which did attain some strength, was discontinued in 1907. Of what it accomplished Mr. Percy Alden writes as follows:^(a)

The colony was founded in January, 1892, at the instance of M. Georges Berry, and consists of about 370 acres of rather poor quality land. Since 1900 it has been possible to accommodate about 55 men at a time, admission being granted to those who are recommended by the directors of the night refuges in Paris. Roughly speaking, the colony, which is a municipal institution run by the council of Paris, costs the city council on the average about £1,800 [\$8,760] a year, about £1,000 [\$4,867] being received as a result of the sale of produce and in other ways. A special effort is made by the directors of the refuges, through the agency of the colony, to return persons connected with agriculture once more to the soil. Some 74 per cent of those who enter the colony are connected with agriculture, chiefly country laborers, who flock to Paris at the end of the harvest and vintage and in the course of the winter find themselves stranded. The majority are between 20 and 40, so that, both in respect of occupation and of age, La Chalmelle is a much more hopeful experiment.

^a New Encyclopedia of Social Reform, 1908, p. 682.

The length of stay in the colony is not long. Out of 820 men 436 left in less than two months and an additional 249 in less than four months, while of those who left 59.9 per cent obtained situations. During the year about 250 workmen come and go, and half of these seem to derive very material benefit from their stay at La Chalmelle. Even with the rest much more good might be done if criminals, drunken vagabonds, and the habitués of the night refuges could be excluded or sent to another institution.

GREAT BRITAIN.

The colony of Hollesley Bay has already been considered as a part of the work of the relief works of the Central (Unemployed) Body of London. There remains only to consider the Salvation Army colony at Hadleigh and one or two smaller colonies in England, with one in Scotland.

HADLEIGH LABOR COLONY.

Hadleigh, in Essex, the colony of the Salvation Army, has some 3,000 acres and is the largest labor colony in England. About 400 acres are leased to a farmer. The land is of clay, rather stiff and poor, but is said to be improving in value. About 100 acres are planted with fruit trees and the land is also used for pastures, market gardens, chicken farms, and brick works. Most of the men sent to the colony from London are degenerates of the city and as a rule not adapted to farm life. Among them, however, are a few capable and willing workers, and the best of these at Hadleigh seem to have been easily restored to a permanent occupation. Or, if occupation has not been found, they have emigrated. The majority, however, require a longer period of treatment than the colony for financial reasons has been able to give them. The result is that much of the labor is thrown away. The number of men on the farm a portion of the time has been from 500 to 600, with an average of perhaps 250.

Among the employees of the colony are 15 ex-colonists retained for special ability. The work is chiefly agricultural and brick making. The buildings are simple one-story buildings, largely of wood, but are considered adequate. The diet is generous—too generous the English vagrancy report considers. The cost per head is about £48 (\$233.59) a year or 64 cents per day. The capital invested in the colony is stated by Mr. Lamb of the Salvation Army to be £140,000 (\$681,310) (land, buildings, and stock) for 500 inmates or some £300 (\$1,460) per head, though he states that a new colony could be provided at £250 (\$1,217) per head. He reported to the English vagrancy committee, for 1904:

Value of the agricultural produce.....	\$45,521
Industrial (mainly bricks).....	18,746
Estimated value of labor in dining room, laundry, bakery, etc.....	20,770
Total.....	85,037

The produce from the market garden in 1904 included strawberries, 13,500 pounds; gooseberries, 46,480 pounds; apples, 76,640 pounds; plums, 33,600 pounds; celery, 4,500 heads; lettuce, 111,740 heads; rhubarb, 28,000 bundles; onions, 130 tons. The hours of work in the summer are from 6 a. m. to 6 p. m., and in the winter from 7 a. m. to 6 p. m., when possible. Wages can be earned up to 2 shillings (49 cents) per week. Of the results in character it is hard to form an estimate. The Salvation Army admits that it can not follow up those who leave the colony. For the two years ended September, 1904, of the 523 received by the colony 142 were paupers sent by boards of guardians, who paid a fixed sum for their maintenance; 137 were from the Salvation Army in London; 236 were private cases, who came on their own account or were sent by friends. Of the 484 who left the colony during these years 89 went to situations found by themselves; 54 to situations found by the colony; 84 were dismissed for bad behavior; 16 left through ill-health; 239 left of their own accord; 2 for other reasons. The number leaving in one month was 209, and only 158 remained longer than six months.

OTHER ENGLISH LABOR COLONIES.

Other English labor colonies may be more briefly mentioned. At Newdigate Farm House, Holmwood, near Dorking, Surrey, the Church Army has established a small colony on about 50 acres, mainly as a test place for those whom it is considering sending as emigrants. During 1905, after testing and training, 60 men and youths were emigrated. The Church Army is, however, largely extending the colony, and a valuable estate has been offered for this purpose.

At Laindon, Essex, the Poplar guardians established in 1904 a small colony of 100 acres as a branch workhouse for able-bodied unskilled paupers. In February, 1906, the colony had about 150 men. The work consists in excavating a reservoir, and is regarded mainly as a labor test. The land was owned by Mr. Joseph Fels, but loaned to Poplar for three years.

The Christian Social Service Union, which maintains the colony at Lingfield, has also started a much smaller one on Browhead Farm at Starbthwaite, Westmoreland, for some 25 broken-down men.

Libury Hall, at Great Munden, Herts, is a German colony for Germans in England finding themselves out of work. The scheme is to some extent one of repatriation, and many men have been sent back to their fatherland through its instrumentality. It employs some 110 men in farm work, gardening, and a few small workshops.

Mr. E. D. Court, a Local Government Board inspector, has given an account of this work, from which the following is extracted:

The mission of the colony being not to give alms nor money, but to help by affording opportunity to work, the freehold of 300 acres of suitable land in Hertfordshire was purchased. About 35 acres of

this is occupied by buildings, poultry runs, and duck ponds, willow bed, gravel pit, fruit and vegetable garden, and wood; 30 acres by meadow, and the remainder is sown or planted with wheat, rye, barley, oats, potatoes, beans, swedes, turnips, artichokes, clover, rape, mustard, vetches, and sainfoin. A basket-weaving shop on a large scale was erected, with a carpenter's shop and smithy, and large well-ventilated stables, cow sheds, and piggeries, also small shops for tailor and shoemaker, a bakehouse, laundry (now being greatly enlarged), dairy, kitchen, etc. In all these departments, as well as in cleaning the house, work is found, but the great majority of men are employed out of doors, the stronger men in digging gravel, breaking flints, making roads, and so on; the weaker in the garden or looking after the poultry. There are 16 cart horses and about the same number of milch cows, and useful experience has been gained by intending emigrants looking after them. Beds were at first provided for 90 men, 64 of them in 1 large dormitory, divided into 16 cubicles. Later, to meet the winter pressure, room for 20 more beds was found by cutting off a part of the basket-weaving department, and it is proposed shortly to build for 150 more men. About 869, or more than two-thirds of those received, have been distinctly benefited. As to financial position, the colony is not self-supporting so far, and probably never will be. The buildings have involved large expenditure and the expenses are heavy. For ten weeks' work a man receives not only board and lodging, but, if necessary, clothing, and a sovereign (\$4.87) is spent on his return journey to Germany, while he is given tokens to the value of 1½ pence (3 cents) a night during his stay at the colony, unless he misbehaves. On the other hand, the average stay is a little under eight weeks, and for the first three weeks, owing to poor condition and so on, not very much work is done. Also there is difficulty in finding a market for some articles.

Mid Locharwoods is a Scotch colony of 440 acres, 8 miles south of Dumfries, started partly as a result of General Booth's "Darkest England." In 1897 the Scottish Labor Colony Association was formed to carry out the objects of the original labor centers board.

Mid Locharwoods was purchased, 150 acres being good arable land, and the rest reclaimed or unreclaimed moss land. The peat is used as fuel, and the land reclaimed by liming and claying is capable of growing good crops of turnips, cabbages, carrots, and potatoes. The colonists are chiefly from a shelter in Glasgow. The colony receives nothing from the poor-law authorities in Scotland, who have no power to make grants for the able-bodied. It is thus wholly dependent on voluntary aid. In 1904 it received 67 men, and it is stated that 40 men left with every prospect of doing well.

EPILEPTIC AND INEBRIATE COLONIES FOR SPECIAL CLASSES OF THE UNEMPLOYED.

Special classes of the unemployed need special treatment. This is particularly true of the physically defective, inebriates, and epileptics. These classes, however, can not be treated here at any

length, as they involve problems which are other than the problems of unemployment. Only two such colonies, which are most intimately connected with the unemployed, are considered.

BETHEL COLONY AT BIELEFELD, GERMANY.

The "Colony of Mercy" at Bielefeld, Westphalia, Germany, is the best known epileptic colony in the world. "Bethel," as the colony is usually called, began as an epileptic colony. In 1867, through the efforts of a few Westphalian pastors and laymen, a farmhouse near Bielefeld was bought and a few epileptics came. Two years later a home for deaconesses was planted close by to train workers. Three years later Pastor von Bodelschwingh and his wife were placed in charge. There are now over 150 buildings, and Bethel receives every class of unfortunates. The main branches of the colony, however, are five in number: (1) The home for epileptics, or Bethel proper; (2) Sarepta, the home for training nurses, in which about 1,100 nurses have been trained; (3) Nazareth, the brotherhood for training deacons, where about 370 deacons have been trained; (4) Wilhelmsdorf, the colony for vagrants and the unemployed which has already been considered, and (5) the Workmen's Home Association, an organization for providing homes for the working classes of Germany.

Among Bethel's 150 buildings there is place for any who are ill. It has a large colony for idiots, nearly one-third of the inmates of Bethel being of this class. It has two orphanages, called "The Good Shepherd" and Kinderheim, the children's home. For inebriates there is the Friedrichshütte (Frederick's cot), named for the late German Emperor, and opened just after his demise. One remarkable spot on the colony grounds is the Eickhof, where wealthy voluntary patients, who have made shipwreck of life, through drink or fast living, may come, and, among equals of their own class and surrounded by physical comforts, be compelled nevertheless to labor with their own hands. There is also a house which welcomes those who can find no opening elsewhere because they have been convicted of dishonesty of some kind. Such are some of the wide charities of this unique colony.

The whole atmosphere of the place is religious. Work which each colonist can do is provided. Almost all that Bethel uses is made by the colonists—houses, furniture, clothing, food, etc. There are book-binding, book printing, and bookselling establishments, and books made at Bethel are sold throughout Germany; there are saddlers, basket makers, and men in other trades; there is a farmhouse, and a brickyard where bricks are made to the number of 4,000,000 per year.

The Workmen's Home Association makes loans to workingmen a security of land and house, and so enables them to own their homes

and a little land. Skilled epileptics are the architects and builders of these houses. The work of the association is spreading to different parts of the Empire.

Bethel largely supports itself by the work done by its members. Little or no pay is given, even to those who do the skilled work of overseeing or directing. They are assured a home and livelihood, and in case of sickness or need they are provided for. From the training homes come men and women who, with no thought of pay, guide the multitudinous activities of the colony, or are sent to carry on similar efforts in Africa and elsewhere. Yet money is earned in many ways. Cast-off clothing or articles of any nature, collected from all over Germany, are renewed and made fit to be used by persons in the colony or are sold at low price to the peasants in the vicinity. A woman in Germany collected a garret full of old corks and sent them to Bielefeld, and from this small beginning the traffic in "cast-off" articles has grown until it now occupies several houses at the colony, employs 40 people, and brings in about \$10,000 per year. In more ordinary lines of trade, Bethel puts up and sells over the world pure bromide, for which epileptics have continual need and which it is difficult to get pure. In ten years over 10,000 epileptics have been thus supplied in Germany alone.

Bethel is not self-supporting. The royal house of Prussia takes great interest in it and gives many favors and donations; but the colony relies more particularly upon the interest and gifts of the Westphalian farmers who live in the district. At present about \$7,500 per year comes from the school children of Germany. Some \$50,000 per year is collected for the colony by 60 regular collectors. The neighboring Provinces appropriate to its use about \$15,000 per year. Altogether Bethel receives and spends, apart from the labor colony, about \$300,000 per year. It has property valued at 6,562,057 marks (\$1,561,770) net.

THE LINGFIELD COLONY, ENGLAND.

This colony, like that of Bethel, is established on a religious basis, it being a colony of the Christian Social Service Union, established at Lingfield, Surrey, in 1895, as a home for epileptic children, and a farm colony of about 250 acres for the incapable. The following account of it is abridged from reports secured during a visit to the colony in October, 1907. Concerning the men sent there considered apart from the epileptic children, the report says:

During the five years commencing April, 1902, 324 men have been dealt with. Of these, 105 were private cases and 219 were sent by boards of guardians. Of the private cases, 37 were inebriates and 68 were sent to the colony for various other reasons: Out of work, 28; chronic laziness, 6; men of dishonesty, 9; nervous dis-

orders, 7; weak will, 1; epilepsy, 1; consumption, 1; indecency, 1; religious persecution (a Christian Jew), 1. Taking the total number of all cases (324), 116 were under 20 years of age, 174 were between 20 and 45, and 34 were over 45. There were 155 successes and 131 failures, and 38 cases are still on the colony. Of those under 20 there were 62 successes and 30 failures, and 24 are still at Lingfield. Between 20 and 45 the numbers were: Successes, 77; failures, 84; 13 are still at Lingfield. Over 45: Successes, 16; failures, 17; one is still at Lingfield; or a percentage of 67.3, 47.8, and 48.4 [successes in each age group], respectively. Of the successes, 96 went to Canada; 45 to situations in this country; 9 were given appointments on the colony staff; 2 became brothers; 2 entered the army; and 1 (a colored man) was returned to his friends in America. The failures are accounted for as follows: Physically unfit, 6; mentally unfit, 30; drink, 16; nerves, 4; left to seek work, 4; dead, 3; suicide abroad, 1; dismissed, 28; absconded, 39. Of the 16 failures through drink 11 were private cases. Eight of the drink failures were over 45 and 8 were between 20 and 45. In the first instance, 5s. [\$1.22] per week was asked with each man for a period of three months. This has been gradually increased, until now we ask 10s. 6d. [\$2.56] per week with each man for the whole of his term of residence at Lingfield. Of the 10s. 6d. [\$2.56] per week charged for each man, 4s. 9d. [\$1.16] goes in food and the remainder in wear and tear, cost of supervision, and ordinary institutional charges. With a larger number of men this figure might be reduced. Sixty is too small a number to constitute an economical unit.

Colonists are taught general farm work, including milking and driving, and market gardening, according to their aptitude and capacity. The method of training is to place every five or six men under the charge of a brother, who is responsible for their well-being, both indoors and out.

The Rev. J. L. Brooks, for many years director of the colony, and who is also a practical farmer, says that in nine years the colony never had one healthy, sober, young, and industrious man sent to it. Nevertheless Mr. Brooks claims to have been successful in rehabilitating about 36 per cent of the cases put under his hands. Considering that it has resulted in helpless lives made useful, wasted lives reclaimed, drunkards restored, and mischief prevented, the cost is probably not heavy and is less than under the poor law. The expense is 9s. (\$2.19) per week per man (31 cents per day), exclusive of clothing, the chief items being 4s. 10d. (\$1.18) for food, 2s. 2d. (53 cents) for lodging and laundry, 1s. 6d. (36 cents) for superintendence, and 6d. (12 cents) waste and medical care.

The children's home on the colony accommodates 30 epileptic children, who otherwise would be shut up in the imbecile wards of the workhouses and asylums. Here they have a bright and happy life. In the condition of children there is seen great amelioration; in many, prospect of much greater improvement; in some there is definite cure.

The buildings and rooms are made unusually attractive, and careful, trained attendance and teaching does all that can be done.

THE INCORRIGIBLE OR VICIOUS.

Consideration is now given to that class among the unemployed who will not work, even though given the chance—the vagrant proper. This class is probably not so large as is popularly believed, particularly in America; but if those are included in it—as they should be—who, though they accept work when hard put to it or in occasional spasms of industry, prefer idleness, the class so considered is not small. The experience of the German labor colonies is that there are many such. In 1898, out of 7,333 men admitted to the German colonies, only 2,829 had not been in a colony before; 61 per cent of the whole number had been in a colony before. In 1904, out of 9,819 admitted, only 4,074 had not been in a colony before; 59 per cent had been in a colony before. Such facts, of course, can be interpreted in more ways than one. It does not follow that about 60 per cent of the unemployed will not work. How many left the colonies to find work and could not get it or who got a position and, through no fault of theirs, could not hold it is not known. The causes of their return to the colonies are not shown. It may be in part the fault of the colonies in not perfectly training the men for work, or, perhaps, in proving to be too attractive to weak men. A hundred causes and combinations of causes may be assigned. Nevertheless, the fact is suggestive of incorrigible avoidance or, at least, of a very weak seeking after work. There are many of the unemployed of whom this is true. It is the one cry of those who have not studied the subject that men are unemployed through their own fault or because they will not work, and this is the belief of some who have had experience in the matter. But it is the usual statement of Salvation Army workers and of most labor colony managers and the like that the more one studies the unemployed the more one believes that if rightly handled and wisely aided and taught, the large majority, even of the inefficient unemployed, can be made to prefer work to idleness.

But few or many, the question arises, What shall be done with the residuum who will not work for reasons of viciousness or incorrigible idleness? The question of handling the actually criminal unemployed does not come within the limits of this inquiry.

For the vicious and the incorrigible unemployed two main measures are proposed, (1) reform schools, shops, or farms, and (2) penal colonies.

ESPECIAL REFORM SCHOOLS AND INSTITUTIONS.

The experience of the best reform institutions on both sides of the Atlantic indicates that especial reform schools and institutions are the best places for the vicious and incorrigible, although they should, if possible, be especially adapted to the needs of the particular classes of the vicious and incorrigible. It is stated that the vicious and the

incorrigible vagrant should not be put in any form of juvenile reformatory or school, neither should he be permitted to associate with the vicious and incorrigible who have done worse things than be idle; that thorough differentiation and grading in reform schools and institutions are at least as necessary as in public schools, and that to some sort of reform school or institution the vagrant should, if possible, be sent, in view of the fact that large numbers of those who are vicious and incorrigible can be reformed and because large numbers are reformed. If institutions like the Elmira Reformatory in New York and measures like the Borstal system in England can reform very large percentages of those more vicious than the vicious and incorrigible idler, at least equal results may be looked for with the idlers. The new penology places no limits upon the reformatory possibilities of men. It is pointed out that many of those who not only seem to be, but are vicious and incorrigible, need only a persistent, wise, and friendly (though not weak) teaching to be made very different; that they should doubtless be committed to these institutions by due process of law, but that the basis of the sentence should be "the indeterminate sentence," and the length of their stay and their treatment in the institution should depend wholly upon their conduct; that they should be taught trades and not allowed to go out until situations are found for them; finally, that they should be made to work and should not be too indulgently treated.

PENAL COLONIES.

Penal colonies may be considered as an especial class of reform institutions more particularly belonging to the present subject. They are generally for those who prove themselves to be vicious and incorrigible idlers. Yet even such must not be wholly despaired of, and penal colonies, it is stated, should be conducted on the general principles for reform institutions indicated above, with modifications, however, because of the fact that persistent vice and incorrigible idleness are usually accompanied by, or productive of, such dulling or degeneration of mental and sometimes physical powers as makes many persons of this class either half-witted or in some way abnormal and degenerate. When this becomes more marked than their viciousness and willful idleness, they must be passed into another class.

The main European examples of penal colonies are in Belgium, Holland, and Switzerland.

BELGIUM.

Under the Belgian poor-law system Belgium has five penal colonies, of which three are for men and two for women. Besides the penal colonies there are workhouses and schools of charity, the work-

houses being subsidiary to the penal colonies. Private charity provides for at least one-half of the indigents, but the disbursement is controlled by the State. The schools of charity are compulsory training schools for youths up to 18 who have become vagrants or who have committed misdemeanors. The expense for these institutions is divided equally among the State, Province, and commune.

The colonies for men are maintained by the Government at Merxplas, Wortel, and Hoogstraeten, situated a few miles from Turnhout, east from Antwerp, and are called Colonies Agricoles de Bienfaisance. They are practically penal institutions, though occasionally men go to them voluntarily; but this is rare.

When Belgium became an independent Kingdom, in 1830, she possessed six so-called "dépôts de mendicité" (colonies for beggars) situated in different Provinces, and, besides these, two so-called colonies of mercy, one at Merxplas and one at Wortel, established by the Dutch Society of Beneficence when the land on which they were located belonged to Holland. Merxplas was a penal colony for vagrants adapted for agricultural labor, and Wortel a free colony somewhat similar to the present Dutch free colonies already considered.

The colonies at Merxplas and Wortel, however, were suppressed in 1841, on the conclusion of the contract between the Society of Beneficence and the Dutch Government.

Later three of the colonies for beggars were suppressed. The one at Bruges was made a colony for women over 18 years of age, and that at Reckheim was made a reform school for boys between 15 and 18 years of age. Only the depot of Hoogstraeten was retained in its original character, but it was enlarged. The suppressed colonies of Merxplas and Wortel (the territory on which they stood having been acquired by Belgium in 1870) were added to it, and all three, being on adjoining lands, were converted into penal colonies called, since 1894, "Colonies de Bienfaisance de l'Etat."

The three colonies are conducted under one general directorship and yet are distinct. Hoogstraeten and Wortel are called maisons de refuge, and Merxplas, much the largest of the three, a dépôt de mendicité. Hoogstraeten, where the general director of the three colonies resides, is intended especially for the old or the infirm, unable to work or able only to do very little. A few, however, of the able-bodied are kept here also, to carry on the needed labor.

Wortel is intended for those able to work and driven to begging or vagrancy only through lack of work, or for those who come of their own accord, armed, however, with a communal (or municipal)

authorization. In neither of these colonies may a man be detained against his will more than one year.

Merxplas is intended for those who are able to work but will not do so, who through choice, drunkenness, or vagrancy have become professional beggars or vagrants, or who have been "souteneurs" (sustainers or runners for public women), or for beggars and vagrants condemned by the public tribunals for at least one year, and who, at the expiration of this term, must be kept on at the disposition of the Government not less than one or more than seven years longer. The inmates of Merxplas are divided into six classes:

1. The dangerous, the incorrigible, the immoral, the "souteneurs."
2. Those under police surveillance, those who have escaped and been returned to the colonies under discipline, and those condemned for more than a three-year term.
3. Those condemned for two or three years.
4. Those between the ages of 18 and 21.
5. The invalids and the infirm.
6. Individuals committed for the first time and who have not been in a house of refuge before.

The three colonies taken together seem like a great military park, cared for with strict military discipline. The roads are like the carriage drives of a great estate, the hedges carefully trimmed, the trees numbered and watched; the grounds are worked by squads of colonists, under armed surveillance; a detachment of 150 soldiers guards the whole place. This is perhaps necessary, as in December, 1906, there were 6,309 colonists, 1,197 in Hoogstraeten and Wortel, and 5,112 in Merxplas. Hoogstraeten occupies the buildings of an old circular castle, and is still surrounded by a canal or large moat. Merxplas is a large industrial prison. One can wander from room to room for days and find each day new industries. Almost every trade is represented, and that by large workshops. All is in military order. And all has been developed by the colonists. They have erected the buildings; architects among them have created the designs, and draftsmen among them have drawn the plans. They have built the gas house and made the machines; they have made the furniture very largely, even the carving in the chapel. Printing is done here; every kind of weaving, furniture making, making of pearl buttons, etc. The machinery is mainly of antiquated designs. The object is not to teach trades and create workmen, but to occupy men and remove them from a world where they are not wanted, maintaining them at the lowest cost, and yet humanely, although under strict supervision. Reading matter, opportunity for smoking, and religious and medical attendance are provided. The cost of maintenance is con-

sidered to be about 13 cents per head per day for the able-bodied and 14 cents per day for the invalid and infirm. A daily grant of 66 centimes (13 cents) per head is made by the State, the Province, and the commune (municipalities and towns). Small wages are paid, averaging from 12 to 30 centimes (2 to 6 cents) per day, during good behavior. Good work is also rewarded with colony money, enabling one to buy tobacco or other things at the canteen at cost price. Good behavior can also reduce the minimum term from two years to thirteen months. Some of the work of the colonists is sold to dealers, or jobs are taken, as in the manufacture of buttons of all kinds. The large numbers with military discipline make possible very economic and effective organization, but also render nearly impossible much personal influence on the men. It is probable that with such numbers this is the only possible system. The mere herding of so many men of this character together, even though classified into sections and the worst removed from contact with the rest, must have a deteriorating effect on many. The English Vagrancy Report quotes the director as saying that as soon as one period of detention is over the colonist is generally returned to the colony for another term, and that it is only exceptionally that a rescue can be effected among the social wreckage which forms the basis of the population of the colony. This is borne out by the following tables prepared by the administration of the colonies, showing the recent statistics:

ARRIVALS AT THE PENAL COLONIES OF BELGIUM, 1902 TO 1906.

Year.	Dépôt de Mendicité, Merxplas.						Maisons de Refuge, Hoogstraeten and Wortel.						Total arrivals.
	First time.	Second time.	Third time.	Fourth time.	Fifth time or over.	Total.	First time.	Second time.	Third time.	Fourth time.	Fifth time or over.	Total.	
1902..	674	546	493	446	2,355	4,514	1,483	772	478	329	1,327	4,389	8,903
1903..	668	585	472	470	2,454	4,649	1,281	555	380	257	955	3,428	8,077
1904..	588	552	582	455	2,468	4,615	1,296	596	389	249	1,016	3,546	8,161
1905..	517	595	516	406	2,590	4,624	1,070	524	320	249	894	3,057	7,681
1906..	547	522	488	420	2,449	4,426	903	402	232	174	794	2,505	6,931

DEPARTURES FROM THE PENAL COLONY OF BELGIUM, 1902 TO 1906.

Year.	Dépôt de Mendicité.					Maison de Refuge.					Total departures.	Population Dec. 31.		
	Re-leas-ed.	Trans-fer-red.	Es-caped.	Died.	To-tal.	Re-leas-ed.	Trans-fer-red.	Es-caped.	Died.	To-tal.		Dépôt de Mendicité.	Maison de Refuge.	Total.
1902..	2,847	591	879	125	4,352	4,034	177	85	87	4,383	8,735	4,851	2,003	6,854
1903..	2,922	452	1,004	108	4,486	3,372	138	72	99	3,681	8,167	5,014	1,750	6,764
1904..	2,827	514	1,006	112	4,519	3,413	142	40	99	3,694	8,213	5,110	1,602	6,712
1905..	2,666	439	1,243	94	4,442	3,116	135	58	74	3,383	7,825	5,292	1,276	6,568
1906..	2,935	594	1,031	136	4,606	2,318	125	59	82	2,584	7,190	5,112	1,197	6,309

and one in the Canton of Appenzell. But by far the best and most successful, and perhaps the most successful penal colony in the world, is Witzwyl, in the Canton of Bern. It was established in 1895 on 2,000 acres, near the northeast end of the Lake of Neuchatel. All the land in the vicinity was considered useless, water-logged soil, and was subject to repeated inundations. Extensive works of redemption, however, have, after many efforts, redeemed the land, and two-thirds of it is now under cultivation. The colony is under the control of the police committee of the Canton of Bern. It receives persons sentenced by the criminal courts for terms of imprisonment up to three years, and also those convicted of habitual vagrancy or refusal to work. It has accommodations for about 200 men, though it rarely has more than 150. It had, in 1906, an average number of 144, varying from 166, February 22, to 126, September 1. The total number who passed through the colony that year was 236. The management consisted of a staff of 45 persons. This small number of colonists can obviously be handled very differently from the 5,000 at Merxplas, and perhaps the key to Witzwyl's success is in the personal contact of the staff with the men. The surveillants, who are unarmed, work with the men. Mr. Edmond Kelly has given a somewhat enthusiastic, but, it is believed, a correct account of Witzwyl.^(a)

The first thing that strikes the visitor at Witzwyl is the absence of all those features which render Merxplas attractive. The roads are not kept like the carriage drive of a private park, the borders are not machine mown and rolled, nor are the hedges trimmed like those of a suburban villa. The inmates do not work in squads, and the surveillants are not armed, nor is there the atmosphere of military discipline and order which characterizes the Belgian institution. The roads, though inelegant, are good farm roads, the buildings are sound farm buildings; the surveillants are hardly distinguishable from the inmates, and work with them. To this last feature the director attaches great and merited importance. As he says in his report of 1904, by working with the men "it is easier to gain their confidence than by polished discourse in an office kept warm in the winter and fresh in the summer, where the inmate will never be able to rid himself of the impression that his superior has no idea of the difficulties he has to overcome nor of the hardship of the work he is called upon to undergo." Moreover the surveillants, by working with the inmates, not only earn their wages, but serve by their example to give the atmosphere of work indispensable for the success of such an institution.

The nourishment is not only sufficient, but is strengthening. The director states that good nourishment is the best means for curing drunkards and those who have fallen into a condition of physical degeneration.

^a The Unemployables, p. 24.

There are very few escapes; from two to five per annum. There are two surveillants for ten to twelve inmates at Witzwyl. Every inmate has a cell of his own, which is locked upon him at night. These cells are lit by electricity, and the inmates are encouraged to decorate them so as to give them as homelike an appearance as possible. The walls of some of them are covered with pictures cut from newspapers, bits of carved wood, family photographs, evergreens, rushes, and all the other inexpensive methods of decoration which an ingenious person can find in such an environment. Conversation is not forbidden during work time, but the presence of a surveillant keeps it free from the evils which penitentiary conversation is likely to involve. There are punishment cells, which are similar to the other cells, except that a plank is substituted for a bed. Months often pass without using these cells, and then again it is sometimes necessary to use them two or three times in a single month. Inmates who do not yield to the good influence of the place are brought by the director before a magistrate and sent to a penitentiary. Those inmates who are deserving get 5 francs [97 cents] a month for their work.

These are the financial results of the year 1905:

	Francs.	
The proceeds of the workshop amounted to.....	12, 202. 00	[\$2, 354.99]
Proceeds of agriculture.....	140, 549. 41	[27, 126.04]

After having paid all their expenses there remained a deficit of 19,957.95 francs [\$3,851.88]. But the inmates during the year built the following:

	Francs.	
A shed at Lindenhof.....	11, 800. 00	[\$2, 277.40]
A stable for cows.....	40, 200. 00	[7, 758.00]
Installation of electricity at Eschenhof.....	7, 000. 00	[1, 351.00]
Installation of water pipe.....	4, 500. 00	[868.50]
Increase in machinery, tools, etc.....	43, 573. 45	[8, 400.67]
Total.....	107, 073. 45	[20, 695.17]

Deducting from this sum the deficit of 19,957.93 francs [\$3,851.88] which was furnished by the State, the balance shows a profit of 87,115.50 francs [\$16,813.29] represented by new buildings, machine tools, and improvements.

This excellent financial result is due to the fact that the director is a skilled farmer. Witzwyl, before it was purchased by the Canton of Bern, was exploited by a company at a loss so great that the company failed and it was put up at public auction. Mr. Kellerhals, by the application of this domain of sound agricultural methods, has made it pay. It can not be too often repeated that the colony is agricultural rather than industrial. It will be seen that the proceeds for agriculture for 1905 amounted to 140,549.41 francs [\$27,126.04], whereas those from the workshops amounted only to 12,202 francs [\$2,354.99]. The expenses of surveillance disappear in view of the fact that the surveillants earn their salary by working with the inmates.

But this is not all. This colony not only manages to pay its expenses, but also, by a very simple method, it reforms all those capab

of reformation. The inmates are offered at the expiration of their term the choice of working for a period at the free colony of Tannenhof, or of working in some of the numerous small colonies which the director is engaged in instituting around Witzwyl. This is perhaps the feature of Witzwyl which is most worthy of our consideration. It represents the natural growth of such an institution as Witzwyl and Tannenhof under the direction of a man who is as much concerned with reforming his inmates as with making the institution pay. Tannenhof includes not only vagrants, but also indigent persons of the Canton who are unfitted by age, illness, or accident from earning their bread in the open market. The tariff of wages given at Tannenhof is therefore low, and able-bodied inmates of Witzwyl are unwilling to work at Tannenhof on account of the low rate of wages prevailing there. This naturally suggested to the director the idea of organizing around Witzwyl small colonies to which able-bodied inmates of Witzwyl could be sent after the expiration of their term, and where they could be at once employed at a fair salary removed from the temptation to drink. There has sprung around Witzwyl, therefore, such colonies as Nusshof, Neuerhof, Eschenhof, and Birkenhof, where the inmates of Witzwyl at the expiration of their term can not only save money, but be gradually prepared for restoration to the open-labor market. * * * At these subcolonies the inmates eat with their employers. They are allowed to smoke, they have good nourishment, they are not confined in their cells, and they generally come to such a good understanding with the managers that after departure they often return on a friendly visit. The director has even, in a very small way, begun reconstituting scattered families by furnishing them with a cottage for which they pay 80 francs [\$15.44] rent a year, by employing them on the colony and by furnishing to their wives and children lodging for a cow and ground enough to cultivate vegetables. This part of the experiment is comparatively new, but the director states that already some families are in a position which has made it possible for them not only to support themselves, but also to begin to put away money.

This account is correct; nevertheless, it must not be forgotten that Witzwyl is a prison. In some of its appointments it is more prison-like than the great dormitories at Merxplas. Most of the colonists at Witzwyl eat, sleep, and spend their free time in their cells, which they contrive often to make homelike. Work hours begin at 5.30 a. m. in the summer and at 6 in the winter. Dinner is at 11.30, and each man takes his ration from the kitchen to his cell, where he remains till 12.30 p. m. Only men working at a distance have their dinner taken to them. Much instruction is given in evening classes, and religious exercises are prominent. A chaplain makes weekly visits. The terms of detention may be shortened one-third by good behavior. A small bonus is given for good work, and fare as far as the frontier is paid on dismissal.

Agricultural work is the main occupation, the guiding principle being "to improve the land by men and the men by land." The director believes that most men can be taught to work and saved by work, and that agricultural work is best. The first year only is made mainly punitive. Statistics as to the number of men permanently reformed are not available, but it is probably much higher than at the free colonies. Many believe that the vicious are usually more capable of reform than the morally weak. On discharge from the colony the men are provided for, if it is possible, either as a paid laborer of the colony, by a discharged prisoner's aid society, or by admission into a voluntary farm.

Witzwyl has the somewhat remarkable record of being self-supporting, chiefly through the sale of the dairy product. It receives Government aid, which is mainly used for extensions and improvements, but the reclamation of the land has probably more than doubled its original value, and the property with improvements is worth more than the original sum paid for it, plus the grants which have been given. The following statistics are from the report of the colony for the year 1906:

Colonists, January 1, 1906.....	155
Colonists, December 31, 1906.....	156
Entered during the year.....	236
Passed out during the year—	
By completion of term.....	191
By pardon.....	38
By transference.....	4
By escape.....	1
By death.....	1
Total.....	235
Committed for the first time.....	188
Recommitted.....	48
Protestants.....	187
Roman Catholics.....	48
Jew.....	1
Single.....	156
Married.....	50
Widowed.....	9
Separated.....	21
Good education.....	187
Poor education.....	48
Without education.....	1
Agricultural laborers.....	114
Artisans and skilled laborers.....	96
In commerce.....	14
Without occupation.....	12

AGGREGATE DAYS INMATES OF WITZWYL PENAL COLONY, SWITZERLAND, WERE NOT EMPLOYED AND AGGREGATE DAYS EMPLOYED AT EACH KIND OF EMPLOYMENT, BY MONTHS, 1906.

Month.	Days not employed.					Days employed.				
	New arrivals.	Imprisoned.	Sick.	Holidays.	Total.	Minor duties.	House-work.	Tailoring.	Shoe-making and saddlery.	Wood-work.
January.....	15	1	122	749	887	156	208	130	77	127
February.....	20	2	105	607	734	119	192	120	72	129
March.....	17	117	571	705	132	214	128	81	155
April.....	24	22	68	793	907	92	178	85	72	122
May.....	19	25	59	667	770	104	170	73	71	130
June.....	14	9	54	514	591	107	168	36	36	90
July.....	19	12	63	630	724	118	188	50	48	63
August.....	16	13	58	484	571	102	173	36	34	42
September.....	23	6	51	613	693	102	156	38	38	55
October.....	23	49	497	569	104	168	45	31	8
November.....	22	2	64	552	640	131	168	92	64	53
December.....	24	10	67	896	967	141	180	109	75	127
Total.....	236	102	877	7,543	8,758	1,408	2,163	942	699	1,101

Month.	Days employed.							Grand total.	
	Iron-work.	Basket work.	Turf digging.	Building.	Day labor.	Improvements.	Agriculture.		Total.
January.....	160	430	137	2,751	4,116	5,003
February.....	97	792	15	202	2,104	3,842	4,576
March.....	119	9	169	36	500	2,509	4,052	4,757
April.....	108	35	35	3	2,658	3,353	4,260
May.....	83	414	548	12	184	1,869	3,658	4,428
June.....	78	256	154	1	21	2,579	3,526	4,117
July.....	90	44	553	1	70	2,265	3,490	4,214
August.....	62	1	199	138	2,664	3,451	4,022
September.....	60	15	156	299	5	2,361	3,285	3,978
October.....	18	120	3,091	3,585	4,154
November.....	70	8	318	2,877	3,781	4,421
December.....	99	29	2	168	2,876	3,806	4,773
Total.....	984	53	725	3,642	502	1,122	30,604	43,945	52,703

The colonies around Witzwyl are mainly small, but the following quotation from Mr. Kelly regarding them is interesting:

RULES AND REGULATIONS OF NUSSHOF COLONY.

1. The Witzwyl colony has a home at Nusshof for discharged inmates, the object of which is to provide those among the latter who wish to make better use of their liberty with a home, to be considered as an intermediary stage between the forced labor colony and the outer world.

As long as there is room unemployed workmen are free to enter the home and to work there on the same lines as the other colonists.

2. Employment is given and a contract entered into between the foreman and the colonists.

3. Colonists must furnish proof that their late conduct has been satisfactory. Cripples or workmen suffering from infectious diseases are not admitted.

4. Colonists must obey the rules of the establishment.

Drunkenness and unruly behavior are followed by immediate dismissal.

5. Colonists are not allowed to leave Witzwyl without an authorization from the director.

6. Colonists who have shown industry and capacity can attain positions of trust.

7. Colonists receive free board and lodging, and working clothes.

Special agreements are entered into with skilled laborers as regards remuneration.

8. Colonists who enter the establishment in the winter (December 1 to the end of February) receive no wages during that time. Those who enter in the summer or autumn (March 1 to the end of December), and whose work is satisfactory, receive reduced wages during the winter months.

9. Wages vary from 50 centimes to 1.50 francs [10 to 29 cents] per day. The foremen fix the wages in the beginning.

10. During the time of the contract the managers fix the amount of wages. A part of the men's wages is spent on clothes and linen; the rest is placed to their credit unless paid out for the maintenance of the colonist's family.

The following is the contract the colonists sign:

Contract between the colony of Nussdorf, near Witzwyl, of the first part, and ———, colonist, of the second part.

1. The undersigned, who enters the colony of his own free will, for the purpose of working there, agrees to obey the rules and regulations of the said colony, to stay at least two months, and to inform the managers of his intention to leave at least a week in advance.

2. Articles of clothing which have not been paid for by the colonist must be left behind on leaving; he is only entitled to such clothes as he brought with him.

3. Every inmate is given lodging, sufficient food, and working clothes, so that he has no expenses whatever. He shall be cared for in the colony in case of temporary sickness (unless brought on through the inmate's own fault).

4. Wages vary from 50 centimes to 1.50 francs [10 to 29 cents] per day, in accordance with articles 8 and 9 of the rules.

If the inmate is expelled during the first two months (article 4 of the rules), he is not entitled to receive any wages.

5. As regards payment of wages, article 10 of the rules applies. Every inmate upon being admitted to the colony is informed of the rules.

In case of disagreement the question shall be brought before and settled by the Witzwyl Institution.

Witzwyl, this ——— day of ———, 190—.

Taken thus in connection with the partly free colonies, it is stated that Witzwyl, in proportion to its size, probably saves more of its inmates than any labor colony in the world, and also comes nearest, if it does not succeed, in meeting all its expenses.

Mr. Kelly gives the following statement of conclusions at which he has arrived in regard to labor colonies: (*)

1. It is preferable to create several small agricultural colonies rather than a few large ones.

2. It is advisable to specialize industries in the colonies best fitted therefor.

3. A free colony ought to be instituted by the side of every forced colony in order to facilitate the transfer of the inmates from one colony to the other. This plan would permit the magistrate committing every case of vagrancy that came before him to a labor colony. It would relieve him of the necessity of determining whether the case be one to which blame should be attached or not—a thing which, in view of the deficiency of evidence before him, it is impossible for him to do, whereas, on the contrary, it would permit of a proper classification within the colonies after all the information has been secured that would insure such classification being correct and just.

4. A sufficiently large amount of land ought to be secured at once to enable the slow growth round the central colony of subcolonies, which will gradually prepare the inmates for normal social conditions.

5. No permanent building should be constructed in advance. The system ought to come in operation early in the spring, so as to enable the inmates to occupy temporary cabins and build their own buildings.

6. Every colony ought to have at its head a skilled farmer.

7. Surveillants ought to work together with the inmates.

To these general principles it may be well to add one or two supplementary observations.

There does not seem to be at Witzwyl the system of reward which is such an excellent feature of the colony of Merxplas, and there seems no reason why this excellent provision should not be borrowed from the Belgian institution. Moreover, it ought to be possible to give the inmates of every colony a direct interest in its prosperity by creating separate tables to which a different dietary would be applied, the best furnished tables being offered as a reward for the best work. Such a system would give to every inmate a direct interest in the growth of vegetables, fruit, and all such things as give variety to food.

Again, there is no reason why the unfortunate aged should any longer be sequestered as they now are in asylums, when they can just as well form a part of free colonies where they will have the benefit of social life and can still render considerable service.

DENMARK.

While Denmark has no penal colonies, her treatment of the vagrant may be considered here. It must be considered in connection with her whole poor-law system, which is very progressive, especially as regards the aged poor.

Aged-poor relief is not considered poor relief. The recipient must be free from certain criminal convictions, from debt, must be 60 years old, have lived in Denmark the last ten years prior to application, and must not have received poor relief. Aid is given in kind or in cash, or in the provision of institutions (not poorhouses); for such aid the State levies a fund from which the commune may receive one-half its expenditure for the aged. The homes for the aged are made very attractive, and to become a pensioner is no disgrace. There were 30,957 persons in receipt of old-age relief in January, 1893, and 44,118 in January, 1902. The law is almost universally believed in Denmark to have worked well. It has tended to keep people from committing crime and also from applying for poor relief, so as to be entitled to the old-age insurance. Its cost is thus fully saved by reduced poor-relief cost. The cost in 1901 was about \$1,500,000.

There are, however, as in Belgium, workshops of all kinds carefully organized. Expert managers and foremen direct tailoring, shoemaking, carpentering, bookbinding, weaving, glass blowing, and metal working, which is always going on, and in addition there is a good deal of building, painting, etc. Thus a skilled artisan has no need to break stones, and, as in Belgium, he is practically no loss to the community.

These workshops are not penal, but there are penal workshops, the *Tvangsarbejdanstalt*. Regarding these penal workshops the following is quoted from Mr. Percy Alden:(")

By the law of 1891 the poor-law authorities, acting in conjunction with the police, may send to the penal workhouse all who have been "guilty of breaches of order or of morals, or of disobedience, insubordination, drunkenness, quarrelsomeness, idleness, leaving the workhouse without permission, damage to property, or other irregularities, public or private." But Denmark is wise enough thoroughly to classify not only the unemployed, but also the unemployable; and the moment a man shows himself willing to work and behaves in a quiet, orderly manner his treatment is improved. He is transferred to one of the upper classes and finally removed from the penal workhouses to the ordinary workhouse, where he is better fed and much more comfortable.

In 1902 the cost of Ladegaard penal workhouse at Copenhagen was only 11d. [22 cents] per head per day, while the net profits amounted to about £3,900 (\$18,979).

WORKHOUSES.

Under this head the German workhouse only is considered, because it alone bears in an important way upon the present subject. The English workhouse or poorhouse does not undertake to any appreciable extent to provide work for the unemployed. The English vagrant may find shelter for a night or two in the casual wards of the workhouse, but he is not as a rule given employment.

Belgium, Holland, Denmark, and Switzerland have, as has been seen, developed penal colonies rather than workhouses. In France and some other countries there are workhouses (in France called "*dépôts de mendicité*"), but they are poorly developed from the standpoint of giving employment, and their organization generally is defective. The work they give is frequently most elementary—usually not much more than the picking of oakum or the sorting of rags. France is going through a period of transition in this line, and has on this subject comparatively little to teach.

The German workhouse, however, plays a somewhat important part, and is not to be confounded with the English workhouse. The system varies in different portions of the Empire, but workhouses of one sort or another are found in almost every Province, and more than one are found in some Provinces. Prussia has 24 workhouses (*Arbeiterhaus*). Mr. W. H. Dawson, in his evidence before the English vagrancy commission, defined them as institutions for vagrants, loafers, and people of irregular lives. Their occupants are committed to them by a magistrate or court. In 1903-4 there were 10,363 persons sentenced to the Prussian workhouses; in 1884 there were 15,474.

The Berlin workhouse is most efficiently conducted. In appointments, cleanliness, hygiene, and general attractiveness it far exceeds any of the so-called labor colonies, except so far as that they are in the country and agricultural, while the Berlin workhouse is in a suburb of the city (Rummelsburg) and therefore occupies less space, and is industrial. The following statistics from the report for 1907 show the character of this workhouse:

INMATES OF EACH DEPARTMENT OF THE BERLIN WORKHOUSE FOR YEAR ENDING MARCH 31, 1907, AND AVERAGE FOR EACH YEAR, 1897 TO 1906.

	Department of correction.			Hospital department.			Reinleken-dorf Hospital.	Grand total.
	Men.	Wom-en.	Total.	Men.	Wom-en.	Total.		
Inmates March 31, 1906.....	1,841	123	1,964	441	125	566	195	2,725
Entered during year.....	1,625	155	1,780	419	207	626	99	2,505
Total.....	3,466	278	3,744	860	332	1,192	294	5,230
Left during year.....	1,922	170	2,092	411	193	604	98	2,794
Died during year.....	17	4	21	85	22	107	128
Total.....	1,939	174	2,113	496	215	711	98	2,922
Inmates March 31, 1907.....	1,527	104	1,631	364	117	481	196	2,308
Average number inmates:								
1897.....	1,080	134	1,214	322	91	413	1,627
1898.....	1,054	115	1,169	357	99	456	1,625
1899.....	1,080	124	1,204	427	108	535	1,739
1900.....	1,107	151	1,258	384	105	489	1,747
1901.....	1,128	150	1,278	435	106	541	1,819
1902.....	1,600	152	1,752	556	112	668	2,320
1903.....	1,660	117	1,777	444	125	569	16	2,362
1904.....	1,694	145	1,839	439	132	571	121	2,531
1905.....	1,849	129	1,978	433	130	563	193	2,734
1906.....	1,685	117	1,802	420	118	538	195	2,535

The following table gives statistics of work done at the Berlin workhouse for the year ending March 31, 1907:

DAYS WORKED BY INMATES OF BERLIN WORKHOUSE, AND AMOUNT PAID FOR WORK, YEAR ENDING MARCH 31, 1907.

	Days worked.			Total amount paid for work.	Average pay per person per day.
	Men.	Women.	Total.		
PAID WORK.					
Outside the institution:					
Out-of-door work, April to October.....	190,190	190,190	\$18,106.00	\$0.095
City departments.....	2,515	2,515	419.00	.167
City orphanages and asylums.....	83	83	13.67	.164
Inside the institution, for city departments:					
Sewing.....	2,381	2,381	245.33	.102
Laundry.....	3,812	3,812	6,817.16	1.799
Woodcutting.....	24,814	24,814	1,618.41	.065
Other interior work.....	4,562	4,562	757.52	.167
Agricultural work.....	1,084	1,084	180.59	.167
Other public institutions—laundry.....	881	881	1,574.54	1.776
In the work offices.....	5,542	5,542	659.71	.119
Outside parties.....	101	101	1.75	.017
Bookbinding.....	9,434	9,434	140.47	.015
Picking bed feathers.....	4,825	4,825	33.19	.007
Total paid work.....	243,060	7,074	250,134	30,567.43	1.222

* This is not the correct average according to the items shown, but it is the exact equivalent of the average given in the original official report.

RECENT REPORTS OF STATE BUREAUS OF LABOR STATISTICS.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Thirty-seventh Annual Report of the Bureau of Statistics of Labor.
January, 1907. Chas. F. Pidgin, Chief. xxx, 664 pp.

This report (following a general review of the work of the bureau, etc.) is made up of six parts, as follows: Part I, The apprenticeship system, 85 pages; Part II, Trained and supplemental employees for domestic service, 37 pages; Part III, The incorporation of trade unions, 119 pages; Part IV, Statistics of manufactures, 1904, 1905, 83 pages; Part V, Labor laws of Massachusetts, 60 pages; Part VI, Labor and industrial chronology for the year ending September 30, 1906, 256 pages.

THE APPRENTICESHIP SYSTEM.—This subject is introduced by a brief consideration of the apprenticeship system in general. In order to ascertain public opinion concerning the apprenticeship system, the bureau issued circular letters of inquiry to employers representing some of the largest industrial establishments in the State and to trade union officials connected with the most influential labor organizations. Replies were received from 58 employers and 104 officers of trade unions. There were 26 specified lines of industry and 1 miscellaneous group represented in the replies. From consolidating the inquiries and the replies to the same the following statement is obtained:

OPINIONS OF EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYEES RESPECTING APPRENTICESHIP.

Inquiries.	Replies from employers.			Replies from trade union officials.		
	Yes.	No.	Not stated.	Yes.	No.	Not stated.
Is there a system of apprenticeship in your trade...	31	27	55	44	5
Is it under the immediate control of trade unions...	21	37	46	52	6
Do you consider it a good plan to restrict the number of apprentices.....	5	41	12	71	18	15
Would you employ apprentices to the exclusion of journeymen.....	4	39	15	67	20	17

A table is also given showing for 134 named local and international unions the written and unwritten regulations or restrictions in regard to apprentices, embracing the length of the term of apprenticeship as restricted by the unions, the age limitations, and the limitations as regards the number of apprentices that the employer is permitted to employ.

Specimen apprenticeship agreements used by some of the manufacturing establishments of the State and the provision made for the employment of apprentices in the navy-yards of the country are given, together with the opinions of employers and trade-union officials on restriction of apprentices. Supplementing the subject of apprenticeship, descriptions are given of 11 of the trade schools of the State which give instruction in self-supporting trades.

TRAINED AND SUPPLEMENTAL EMPLOYEES FOR DOMESTIC SERVICE.—In January, 1897, the employment committee of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union resolved to make an attempt to get nearer the source of the difficulties recognized as existing in domestic service in this country. For this purpose they organized the Domestic Reform League. The league in 1901-2 sent out 5,000 question blanks, embodying certain inquiries, to the officers of each of the Federated Clubs of Massachusetts, and to all branches of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae throughout the United States, with a letter asking that the blanks be distributed to the best advantage among such members of the organizations in question as would be most apt to be interested. There were only 260 replies received, which are given in whole or in part in the present report. The report is in two divisions, one relating to trained workers and the other to supplemental workers. One of the most complete sections of the report is that relating to living expenses and wages paid, from which was deduced the total cost per family for families employing 1 servant, 2 servants, and so on up to 8. There were 234 families, employing 425 domestics, represented.

The following statement presents the average weekly per capita cost of each domestic employee to the employer:

AVERAGE WEEKLY PER CAPITA COST OF EMPLOYEES TO EMPLOYERS.

Families with—	Families.	Employees.	Average cost per employee for—		Total average cost per employee.
			Living.	Wages.	
One employee.....	114	114	\$3.54	\$3.80	\$7.34
Two employees.....	77	154	4.06	4.35	8.41
Three employees.....	27	81	3.57	4.67	8.24
Four employees.....	9	36	3.94	5.18	9.12
Five employees.....	5	25	4.40	5.46	9.86
Seven employees.....	1	7	3.50	6.43	9.93
Eight employees.....	1	8	6.00	8.04	14.04
Total.....	234	425	3.87	4.50	8.37

The Domestic Reform League has constantly advised the employment of day workers as a means toward the solution of the perplexing domestic problem. While not in a position to establish a training school for day workers, the league is in position to supply demands for that class of help. The growing demand for day workers is

shown in the numbers supplied by the league during the years 1898 to 1905, and is as follows: 580 in 1898, 700 in 1899, 734 in 1900, 836 in 1901, 931 in 1902, 1,289 in 1903, 1,639 in 1904, and 2,418 in 1905.

The results of the investigation indicate that "one of the most striking facts contributing to the present chaotic conditions in domestic service is apathy. * * * When the interest of women is aroused, either by education or through necessity, the domestic problem will be solved."

THE INCORPORATION OF TRADE UNIONS.—The object of this investigation was to obtain the opinions of employers of labor, officials of trade unions, members of the legal profession, and of public individuals, either as employers of labor or as workingmen, on this question. Letters of inquiry were mailed to 963 persons, to which 301 replies were received—96 from employers of labor, 81 from labor leaders, 71 from public individuals (college professors, editors, etc.), and 53 from members of the legal fraternity.

The following six inquiries were submitted to the persons addressed:

First, would the incorporation of trade unions under general law similar to the general corporation law be inimical to their interests?

Second, would the liability of individual members of incorporated trade unions exceed their actual financial interest in such incorporated organizations?

Third, would it be legal (if possible) to have the strike funds placed in the hands of trustees and thus kept from attachment in case of legal process against the organization?

Fourth, if organized labor and organized capital are to settle their disputes by industrial agreement, is it not anomalous to have one party to the contract with its financial responsibility fixed by law, while the other party to such agreement has no financial limitation?

Fifth, if trade unions are incorporated, should not the manufacturers' and dealers' organizations come under the same law? Could not such a law contain provisions as to the enforcement of industrial agreements that would put such controversies as might arise on a legal basis and thus provide for the settlement of such questions as come up between employers and employees within the provision of an equitable law?

Sixth, can you suggest a just and equitable form of corporation for trade unions which, as regards financial responsibility for broken contracts, will be fair to both labor and capital?

The replies received to the inquiries are given in whole or in part, many of them being too long for full reproduction. Among the general conclusions derived from the various replies the following may be cited:

Employers believe that trade unions should incorporate, because the better class of members would be individually active in the management of the union for the purpose of conservative action leading

to continually increased strength in their standing before the community.

Labor leaders, on the other hand, believe that trade unions should not be incorporated, because the individual member would be held responsible for the actions of the organizations, also because the organizations would be held responsible for the action of the individual member, or, in other words, the responsible members would be liable on account of the irresponsible ones. They are further opposed to incorporation for the reasons, as they advance, that their funds would be liable to attachment.

The public view is that incorporation is desirable both from the standpoint of the public and the unions, for, while it might limit to a certain degree the freedom of action of the unions in ways which do not now exist, and at times the unions might be embarrassed by legal proceedings directed against them, these disadvantages would be more than offset by the greater willingness of their employers to deal with the unions when they feel that the unions are legally responsible bodies.

The legal profession, which is perhaps in a better position to judge impartially of the matter than any other, for the reason that it may have as clients both employers and employees, is of the opinion that it would not be inimical to the interests of trade unions to be incorporated. The legal profession declares the difficulty with trade unions at present to be their irresponsible character. * * * Incorporation would mean responsibility, and actions by responsible unions would be accepted as a pledge of good faith by responsible employers.

In addition, the report presents a brief history of the origin, development, and present status of trade unions in England and in America, the corporation laws of the United States, seven States of the Union, and five foreign countries, the Taff-Vale decision, and a bibliography of works relating to the origin, development, and present status of trade unions.

STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES, 1904, 1905.—This is the twentieth of a series of annual reports on manufacturing statistics. The statistics presented are compiled from the returns of 5,019 establishments, each of which made a report for the two years under consideration. Comparative tables are given showing, for the years 1904 and 1905, the number of establishments controlled by private firms, by corporations, and by industrial combinations, together with the number of partners and stockholders interested therein; the capital invested (for 1904) and the capital devoted to production (for 1905); the cost value of stock and materials used and the selling value of the goods made; the smallest, greatest, and average number of persons employed, and aggregate employees, by months; the total wages paid during each year, average yearly earnings per employee, and classified weekly wages in selected industries, by sex and age; the days in operation during each year, and the proportion of business done. Seventy-nine classified industries are represented.

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The principal facts as to ownership are shown in the following table:

FIRMS, CORPORATIONS, AND INDUSTRIAL COMBINATIONS, AND PARTNERS AND STOCKHOLDERS IN 5,919 IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS, 1904 AND 1905.

Year.	Firms.	Corporations.	Industrial combinations.	Partners.	Stockholders.	Average partners to a firm.	Average stockholders to a corporation.
1904.....	3,178	1,662	22	4,954	55,070	1.56	33.74
1905.....	3,077	1,763	22	4,742	57,804	1.54	32.82

From the above table it will be seen that the tendency continues to be toward an increase of number of establishments controlled by corporations and a decrease of establishments under private control.

The following table presents statistics separately for 9 principal industries, in aggregate for 70 other industries, and totals for the 79 industries reported on for the years 1904 and 1905:

STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES, 1904 AND 1905.

Industry.	Number of establishments.	Value of stock used.		Increase (+) or decrease (-).	
		1904.	1905.	Amount.	Per cent.
Boots and shoes.....	642	\$100,959,088	\$116,826,010	+\$15,866,922	+15.72
Carpetings.....	13	7,353,357	7,566,620	+ 213,263	+ 2.90
Cotton goods.....	163	81,577,677	83,067,489	+ 1,519,803	+ 1.86
Leather.....	108	18,941,962	23,700,951	+ 6,759,489	+35.69
Machines and machinery.....	374	18,776,470	21,544,367	+ 2,767,897	+14.74
Metals and metallic goods.....	437	22,478,069	28,483,332	+ 6,004,663	+26.71
Paper.....	81	17,177,040	19,356,489	+ 2,179,449	+12.69
Woolen goods.....	131	22,143,396	34,757,512	+ 12,614,146	+ 56.53
Worsted goods.....	41	29,987,350	37,608,537	+ 7,621,187	+25.41
Other industries (70).....	3,009	240,025,314	257,531,453	+ 17,506,139	+ 7.29
Total.....	5,919	569,419,793	632,472,751	+ 63,052,958	+11.07

Industry.	Value of goods made.			Total wages paid.		
	1904.	1905.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	1904.	1905.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
Boots and shoes.....	\$169,131,735	\$178,492,136	+11.47	\$32,725,760	\$37,105,800	+13.38
Carpetings.....	10,845,565	11,781,767	+ 8.60	2,298,953	2,415,953	+ 5.09
Cotton goods.....	131,215,110	142,035,223	+ 8.93	31,790,769	34,491,894	+ 8.59
Leather.....	26,860,544	36,035,425	+34.15	3,704,301	3,941,662	+ 6.41
Machines and machinery.....	48,267,340	54,419,727	+12.75	15,433,993	17,701,510	+14.69
Metals and metallic goods.....	46,787,895	55,583,537	+18.80	12,316,718	13,985,673	+13.55
Paper.....	30,958,165	33,178,328	+ 7.18	5,376,093	5,573,075	+ 3.66
Woolen goods.....	53,707,126	60,048,155	+11.68	10,890,738	11,134,282	+ 3.09
Worsted goods.....	45,568,089	58,455,252	+28.28	7,199,557	8,348,876	+15.96
Other industries (70).....	439,511,900	467,824,350	+ 6.44	78,727,112	83,235,499	+ 5.73
Total.....	993,913,449	1,098,751,900	+10.55	200,373,994	217,934,344	+ 8.76

In the above table the 9 specified industries, the aggregate for 70 other industries, and the total for the 79 industries all show an increase in value of materials and products and in wages paid in 1905

over 1904. The greatest increase in wages paid in the 9 specified industries appear in worsted goods, machines, and machinery, metals and metallic goods, and boots and shoes. The greatest increase in value of stock used and in goods made was in the leather industry.

In 1904 the capital invested in the 79 industries amounted to \$801,271,340, and in 1905 the capital devoted to production in the 79 industries amounted to \$603,229,765.

Data relative to employees, earnings, and days in operation are presented in the table following, the establishments considered being the same as in the table preceding:

AVERAGE NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES, AVERAGE YEARLY EARNINGS, AND AVERAGE DAYS IN OPERATION IN 9 PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES, IN 70 OTHER INDUSTRIES, AND IN ALL INDUSTRIES, 1904 AND 1905.

Industry.	Average number of employees.			Average yearly earnings.			Average days in operation.		
	1904.	1905.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	1904.	1905.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	1904.	1905.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
Boots and shoes.....	63,686	69,900	+ 9.76	\$513.86	\$530.84	+3.30	296.12	293.46	-0.90
Carpets.....	5,429	5,624	+ 3.39	423.46	429.58	+1.45	290.54	300.91	+3.57
Cotton goods.....	86,636	95,372	+10.08	366.95	361.66	-1.44	280.49	295.95	+5.52
Leather.....	7,488	7,956	+ 6.25	494.70	495.44	+ .15	300.27	299.41	-.29
Machines and machinery.....	27,062	30,933	+14.18	569.69	572.25	+ .45	300.45	296.58	-1.29
Metals and metallic goods.....	22,238	24,986	+12.36	553.86	559.74	+1.06	304.09	296.17	-2.60
Paper.....	11,529	11,780	+ 2.18	466.31	473.10	+1.46	294.01	290.44	-1.21
Woolen goods.....	25,614	25,734	+ .47	421.67	432.67	+2.61	297.36	296.01	-.45
Worsted goods.....	18,044	20,478	+13.49	399.00	467.70	+2.18	302.55	303.47	+ .30
Other industries (70).....	162,393	170,343	+ 4.90	484.79	488.63	+ .79	295.30	293.06	-.76
Total.....	430,149	463,106	+ 7.66	465.82	470.59	+1.02	293.64	294.88	+ .42

All of the principal industries show an increase in the average number of employees, and all but one an increase in average yearly earnings in 1905, as compared with 1904, while but three of the industries show an increase in average days in operation. In all industries an increase is shown in the three items of average employees, average yearly earnings, and average days in operation.

For the total 79 industries the proportion of business done of full or maximum production was 69.14 per cent in 1904 and 70.92 per cent in 1905; the proportion of actual running time of possible working time was 95.96 per cent in 1904 and 96.68 per cent in 1905.

The table following shows the number of employees (wage-earners) earning the indicated weekly wages. The number of employees given is the number reported in each industry for the week in which the largest number was employed, and does not, therefore, agree with the number shown in the table preceding.

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NUMBER OF MALE AND FEMALE ADULTS AND OF YOUNG PERSONS IN 79 INDUSTRIES, BY CLASSIFIED WEEKLY WAGES, 1904 AND 1905.

Classified weekly wages.	1904.				1905.			
	Persons 16 years of age or over.		Young persons (under 16).	Total.	Persons 21 years of age or over.		Young persons (under 21).	Total.
	Males.	Females.			Males.	Females.		
Under \$5.....	15,745	28,870	12,396	57,011	8,120	15,612	25,538	49,270
\$5 or under \$6.....	14,327	24,867	2,432	41,626	8,672	17,051	16,504	42,227
\$6 or under \$7.....	22,600	29,822	969	53,481	17,347	24,355	13,242	54,944
\$7 or under \$8.....	28,930	23,130	294	52,354	27,462	21,931	7,026	56,439
\$8 or under \$9.....	30,079	18,079	129	48,287	28,149	17,906	3,511	49,566
\$9 or under \$10.....	39,209	13,706	41	52,956	40,232	13,949	2,428	56,629
\$10 or under \$12.....	50,404	10,899	21	61,324	50,898	12,000	1,247	64,145
\$12 or under \$15.....	56,036	4,893	8	61,837	60,165	5,630	464	66,259
\$15 or under \$20.....	47,862	1,404	2	49,268	54,572	2,179	128	56,879
\$20 or over.....	15,871	149	16,020	10,224	244	7	19,475
Total.....	322,053	155,819	16,292	494,164	314,881	130,857	70,095	515,834

The figures in the above table are not comparable, except as to the totals in the last column under each year, due to the fact that a broader classification for young persons was used in 1905 from that used in 1904. Comparing the totals for each class it is seen that there was a material falling off in 1905 in the number earning under \$5 per week as compared with 1904, while the number in each of the other wage classes showed an increase in 1905 as compared with 1904.

In order to show the actual result of the productive forces of industry, the element of cost of material must be deducted from the total value of product, and the remainder will show only the industry product, or the new values created. This has been done in the case of the nine leading industries, also the division of industry product between the wage fund and the fund devoted to profit and minor expenses, as insurance, interest, rent, freight, commissions, salaries, etc. The results for the years 1904 and 1905 appear in the table following:

INDUSTRY PRODUCT, WAGES, AND PROFIT AND MINOR EXPENSES IN NINE SELECTED INDUSTRIES, 1904 AND 1905.

1904.

Industry.	Industry product.	Wages.	Profit and minor expenses.	Per cent of industry product.	
				Paid in wages.	Devoted to profit and minor expenses.
Boots and shoes.....	\$59,172,647	\$32,725,700	\$26,446,887	55.31	44.69
Carpetings.....	3,495,298	2,298,953	1,196,255	65.77	34.23
Cotton goods.....	49,637,433	31,790,769	17,846,664	64.05	35.95
Leather.....	7,919,082	3,704,301	4,214,781	46.78	53.22
Machines and machinery.....	29,490,870	15,433,993	14,056,877	52.33	47.67
Metals and metallic goods.....	24,309,226	12,316,718	11,992,505	50.67	49.33
Paper.....	13,778,125	5,376,093	8,402,032	39.02	60.98
Woolen goods.....	21,623,760	10,800,738	10,823,622	49.95	50.05
Worsted goods.....	15,580,719	7,199,557	8,381,162	46.21	53.79

INDUSTRY PRODUCT, WAGES, AND PROFIT AND MINOR EXPENSES IN NINE SELECTED INDUSTRIES, 1904 AND 1905—Concluded.

1905.

Industry.	Industry product.	Wages.	Profit and minor expenses.	Per cent of industry product.	
				Paid in wages.	Devoted to profit and minor expenses.
Boots and shoes.....	\$61,666,126	\$37,105,890	\$24,560,236	60.17	39.83
Carpetings.....	4,215,147	2,415,953	1,799,194	57.32	42.68
Cotton goods.....	59,837,743	34,491,894	25,345,849	57.64	42.36
Leather.....	10,332,474	3,941,692	6,390,782	38.15	61.85
Machines and machinery.....	32,875,360	17,701,510	15,173,850	53.84	46.16
Metals and metallic goods.....	27,100,205	13,985,673	13,114,532	51.61	48.39
Paper.....	13,821,839	5,573,075	8,248,764	40.32	59.68
Woolen goods.....	25,290,643	11,134,282	14,156,361	44.03	55.97
Worsted goods.....	20,846,715	8,348,876	12,497,839	40.05	59.95

In five of the nine industries, in 1904, more than one-half of the industry product was paid out in wages, the largest showing being in carpetings, with 65.77 per cent, followed by cotton goods, with 64.05 per cent, and boots and shoes, with 55.31 per cent. The industry devoting the lowest proportion of the industry product to labor was paper, with 39.02 per cent. In 1905, likewise, five industries paid out more than one-half of the industry product in wages. The boot and shoe industry paid the highest proportion, 60.17 per cent, and the leather industry the lowest, 38.15 per cent.

LABOR LAWS OF MASSACHUSETTS.—This part of the report contains all the statutes in the revised laws of the State relative to labor, together with all laws passed since 1902, with indications of amended laws and an extended index with copious cross references.

LABOR AND INDUSTRIAL CHRONOLOGY.—This chronology presents for each of the cities and towns of the State, for the year ending September 30, 1906, data relative to strikes and lockouts, wages and hours of labor, trade unions, industrial changes, and welfare work.

Under the section relating to strikes and lockouts have been recorded all labor disputes engaged in during the year which seemed to be of sufficient importance to consider. Slight disputations caused on account of employment of nonunion workmen, or other trade-union principles, where only a few were directly involved and their leaving work did not affect others or cause any cessation of work, have been included under the section devoted to trade unions.

In wages and hours of labor the changes showed a still further tendency for a shorter workday, the nine-hour day being substituted for the ten-hour without change in wages, and the eight-hour day for the nine-hour schedule. The weekly half holiday during the summer months has become almost general in the various industries and trades. The early-closing movement, so long urged by organized

labor, met with more generous response from employers than formerly. During the year marked increases in wages took place, the most pronounced of which were in the wages paid to employees engaged in transportation and in the textile industries.

Under the section relating to trade unions is given information indicative of the current movements of organized labor during the year. The new unions formed, new affiliations, disbanding of old unions, presentation of new trade agreements, and resolutions passed on certain subjects, commendatory or otherwise, as the case may be, form part of this compilation.

Of industrial changes during the year, 200 new establishments were incorporated, with an authorized capital stock of \$13,611,600; 161 private firms were changed to corporations, with an authorized capital stock of \$9,214,200, and there were 56 reorganizations, with an authorized capital stock of \$19,931,100, making a total of 417 manufacturing establishments incorporated, with an authorized capital stock of \$42,756,900. Considering the incorporations by industries, machines and machinery lead with 50, followed by metals and metallic goods with 41, boots and shoes with 30, and clothing with 20, the remaining 276 incorporations being distributed among some 60 industrial groups.

The section devoted to welfare work recounts the actions taken by employers to benefit the condition of their employees, or measures taken by trade unions or employees themselves for the betterment of the social and industrial condition of the workingmen. Some of the subjects embraced in the welfare work relate to improving the sanitary, working, and other conditions in mills, factories, and shops, to various forms of recreation, to educational classes, to housing, and to provident funds.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Twentieth Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor and Printing of the State of North Carolina for the year 1906. H. B. Varner, Commissioner. 350 pp.

This report consists of seven chapters, as follows: Condition of farmers, 98 pages; condition of the trades, 29 pages; miscellaneous factories, 72 pages; cotton, woolen, and knitting mills, 59 pages; furniture factories, 18 pages; newspapers of the State, 47 pages; railroad employees, 9 pages.

CONDITION OF FARMERS.—The report on this subject is compiled from returns made by representative farmers residing in different sections of the State. The data is presented, by counties, in five tables, which show condition of land and labor, wages and cost of living, cost of production of principal crops, market price of c^t profit

on production. In all (97) counties labor was reported scarce; 96 counties reported that negro labor was unreliable and 1 that there was no negro labor; 66 counties reported that employment was regular and 31 that it was irregular; 57 counties favored immigration, 37 opposed it, and 3 did not report; cost of living was reported as having increased in 95 counties and in 2 as not having increased. The highest and lowest monthly wages paid farm laborers in each county were reported, and for men the average of the highest wages so reported was \$21.71, and of the lowest \$13.09; for women, like averages were \$13.18 and \$8.65, and the average wages of children were \$8.01. For all classes of farm labor an increase of wages was reported.

CONDITION OF THE TRADES.—The data from which the tables presented under this title were compiled were secured from representative men engaged in the various trades considered. These reports from the wage-earners of the State show daily wages and wage changes, working conditions and cost of living, hours of labor, conditions of apprenticeship, etc. Of the wage-earners making returns, 62 per cent reported an increase of wages, 3 per cent a decrease, and 35 per cent no change; 61 per cent made full time and 39 per cent part time; 84 per cent reported cost of living increased, 1 per cent decreased, and 15 per cent no change; 31 per cent favored an 8-hour day, 13 per cent a 9-hour day, 55 per cent a 10-hour day, and 1 per cent a 12-hour day; 88 per cent favored fixing a day's work by law and 12 per cent opposed it; 20 per cent favored immigration and 80 per cent opposed it. The average wages paid per day in the different trades were: Blacksmiths \$2.09, boilermakers \$3, brass and iron molders \$2.75, brickmasons \$3.50, carpenters \$1.85, electricians \$3.50, harness makers \$1.23, lumbermen \$2.50, machinists \$2.44, miners \$1.75, painters \$2.33, plasterers \$4.05, printers \$2.02, stonecutters \$3.50, textile workers \$1.40, and wheelwrights \$1.75.

MISCELLANEOUS FACTORIES.—Under this classification the number of factories reporting was 541, of which 467 reported an invested capital amounting to \$31,239,510; 436 reported the number of employees as 22,438, and 530 the number of persons dependent on them for a livelihood as 75,243. An 8-hour day was reported by 4 factories, a 9-hour day by 6, a 9½-hour day by 3, a 10-hour day by 389, a 10½-hour day by 4, an 11-hour day by 48, a 12-hour day by 70, while the remaining factories did not report as to the workday. An increase of wages was reported by 74 per cent of the factories, no change by 17 per cent, while 9 per cent made no report. Of the adult employees 82 per cent were able to read and write and of the children 84 per cent. The highest daily wages paid was \$2.29 and the lowest \$0.84. In 64 per cent of the factories wages were paid weekly, in 17 per cent semimonthly, in 11 per cent monthly, in 1 per cent daily, while the remaining 7 per cent made no report. The

tables presented show for each establishment the product manufactured, capital stock, horsepower, days in operation, hours of labor, number of employees and number of persons dependent on factory, highest and lowest wages, etc.

COTTON, WOOLEN, AND KNITTING MILLS.—The number of mills covered by this presentation is 318, with an aggregate invested capital of \$41,278,160. The number of spindles in operation was 2,558,114, of looms 52,747, of knitting machines 5,237, together requiring 115,671 horsepower.

The number of employees reported by 96 per cent of 268 mills (265 cotton and woolen and 3 silk) was 22,878 adult males, 18,558 adult females, and 7,188 children, a total of 48,624. The number of persons dependent upon 82 per cent of these mills was 112,427. Of the adult employees 87 per cent, and of the children 79 per cent, were able to read and write. The average hours constituting a day's work were 10½. The average of the highest daily wages (based on the highest wages paid to any employee by each establishment) was \$2.42, lowest \$0.77, for men; for women the average highest wages were \$1.18, lowest \$0.64, and for children the average wages were about \$0.54. An increase of wages was reported by 81 per cent of the establishments, 8 per cent reported no change, and 11 per cent made no report.

The number of employees reported by the 50 knitting mills was 1,196 adult males, 2,275 adult females, and 826 children, a total of 4,297. The number of persons dependent upon 74 per cent of these mills was 5,986. Of the adult employees 96 per cent, and of the children 95 per cent, were able to read and write. The average hours constituting a day's work was 10½. For men the average of the highest daily wages was \$1.90, the lowest \$0.70; for women the average of the highest daily wages was \$1.29, the lowest \$0.50, while for children the average daily wages were \$0.53. An increase of wages was reported by 65 per cent of the establishments, 16 per cent reported no change, and 19 per cent made no report.

Relative to the employment of children under 12 years of age in the factories, 84 per cent of the cotton and woolen mill employers were opposed to it, while 3 per cent favored it and 13 per cent expressed no opinion; 84 per cent of the knitting mill employers were opposed to it, while 5 per cent favored it and 11 per cent expressed no opinion.

FURNITURE FACTORIES.—There were 105 furniture factories which reported capital stock, power, class of goods manufactured, wages, hours of labor, days in operation, number of employees, persons dependent on factory, etc. The 105 factories had an aggregate capital of \$2,998,201, used 10,040 horsepower, and employed 6,194 wage-earners. The average of the highest daily wages paid adults was \$2.27; the lowest, \$0.85; the average daily wages paid children was

\$0.51. Of the adult employees 87 per cent and of the children 81 per cent were able to read and write. An increase of wages was reported by 86 per cent of the factories, 9 per cent reported no change, and 5 per cent made no report. Relative to the employment of children under 14 years of age, 68 per cent of the employers were opposed to it, while 18 per cent favored it and 14 per cent expressed no opinion.

RAILROAD EMPLOYEES.—In this chapter statistics are presented showing, by occupations, for each railroad reporting, the number of employees and average wages paid. The following table shows the number and average daily wages of persons employed on the steam railroads of the State:

NUMBER AND AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF RAILROAD EMPLOYEES, BY OCCUPATIONS, 1906.

Occupation.	Number of employees.	Average daily wages.	Occupation.	Number of employees.	Average daily wages.
Station agents.....	691	\$1.22	Other shopmen.....	1,840	1.6
Other station men.....	1,674	1.04	Section foremen.....	545	1.8
Engineers.....	709	2.20	Other trackmen.....	3,730	1.6
Firemen.....	833	1.53	Switchmen, flagmen, and watchmen.....	612	1.2
Conductors.....	536	3.01	Telegraph operators.....	461	1.8
Other train men.....	1,486	1.34	Other employees.....	1,588	1.6
Machinists.....	567	2.55			
Carpenters.....	766	1.87			

Resulting from the movement of trains, there were during the year 156 accidents to passengers, 1 fatal and 155 nonfatal; 29 to postal clerks, express messengers, and Pullman employees, 1 fatal and 28 nonfatal; 711 to employees, 42 fatal and 669 nonfatal, and 261 to other persons, 82 fatal and 179 nonfatal, making a total of 126 fatal and 1,031 nonfatal accidents. From causes other than the movement of trains there were 666 accidents to persons, 1 fatal and 665 nonfatal.

A presentation is also made concerning the operation of each of nine street railways, giving mileage, capital stock, funded debt, gross earnings, operating expenses, income from operation and from other sources, number of passengers carried, and passengers carried per mile of track.

RECENT FOREIGN STATISTICAL PUBLICATIONS.

AUSTRIA.

Die Arbeitseinstellungen und Aussperrungen in Österreich während des Jahres 1906. Herausgegeben vom k. k. Arbeitsstatistischen Amte im Handelsministerium. 713 pp.

This volume contains the thirteenth annual report of the Austrian Government on strikes and lockouts. The information, which is compiled by the Austrian bureau of labor statistics, is given in the form of an analysis and six tables showing: (1) Strikes according to geographical distribution; (2) strikes according to industries; (3) general summary of strikes; (4) comparative summary of strikes for the ten-year period 1897-1906; (5) details for each strike in 1906; (6) details for each lockout in 1906. An appendix gives a brief review of industrial and labor conditions in Austria, statistics of trade unions, and notes concerning the strikes and lockouts reported in the preceding pages of the report.

STRIKES IN 1906.—The number of strikes, the number of establishments affected, and the number of strikers in 1906 showed a marked increase over the preceding year. There were 2,191,815 days lost by the persons directly affected in 1906 on account of strikes, or 90.4 per cent more than in the year 1905. During the year there were 1,083 strikes, which affected 6,049 establishments. Of a total of 276,424 employees in the establishments affected, 153,688 participated in the strikes and 13,098 others were thrown out of employment on account of them, the strikers representing 55.6 per cent of the total number of employees in the establishments affected. The average number of strikers in each strike was 142. After the strikes, 140,414 strikers were reemployed and 6,924 new employees took the places formerly occupied by strikers.

The following table shows, by industries, the number of strikes, establishments affected, strikers and other employees thrown out of work, etc., during the year 1906:

STRIKES, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, STRIKERS, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES, 1906.

Industry.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments af-fected.	Total em-ploy-ees.	Strikers.		Other em-ployees thrown out of work.	Strik-ers re-em-ployed.	New em-ployees after strikes.
				Num-ber.	Per cent of total em-ploy-ees.			
Mining and metallurgical.....	68	135	72,963	38,705	53.0	596	36,960	484
Quarrying, products of stone, clay, glass, etc.....	108	158	16,760	10,776	64.3	1,078	10,017	297
Metal working.....	80	282	25,840	16,373	63.4	568	15,392	400
Machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc.....	56	57	15,715	5,641	35.9	302	5,004	408
Woodworking, caoutchouc, carved materials, etc.....	118	563	7,360	5,598	76.1	188	4,621	402
Leather, hides, hair, feathers, etc.....	35	77	2,654	2,244	84.6	87	2,058	114
Textiles.....	130	294	62,423	28,970	46.4	4,306	27,134	642
Upholstering and paper hanging.....	5	302	1,500	893	59.5	15	860	34
Wearing apparel, cleaning, etc.....	105	2,376	19,445	13,018	66.9	1,150	11,407	780
Paper.....	18	51	2,845	1,522	53.5	571	1,345	120
Foods and drinks (including tobacco).....	82	683	14,432	6,924	48.0	974	5,439	1,063
Chemical products.....	15	15	1,998	1,529	76.5	35	1,456	92
Building trades.....	184	799	23,934	15,416	64.4	3,117	13,278	1,210
Printing.....	24	56	1,432	1,007	70.3	38	921	73
Heat, light, and power plants.....	1	1	383	6	1.6	6
Commerce.....	19	25	1,232	1,108	89.9	7	1,028	65
Transportation.....	24	152	4,837	3,341	69.1	6	3,000	380
Other.....	11	23	671	617	92.0	428	180
Total.....	1,083	6,049	276,424	153,688	55.6	13,098	140,414	6,924

The building trades had the largest number of strikes, 184, in 1906, while the largest number of strikers, 38,705, was in the mining and metallurgical group of industries. Next in importance with regard to the number of strikers involved was the textile industry, with 28,970 persons. Of all the strikers during the year, 44 per cent were engaged in these two groups of industries.

The following table shows the causes of the strikes for 1906, by industries:

STRIKES, BY INDUSTRIES AND CAUSES, 1906.

[Strikes due to two or more causes have been tabulated under each cause; hence the industry totals for this table, if computed, would not agree with those for the preceding table.]

Industry.	Against reduction of wages.	For increase of wages.	For change in method of payment.	For reduction of hours.	For discharge of foremen, workmen, etc.	Against obnoxious treatment.	Against discharge of employees.	Against obnoxious rules.	Other causes.
Mining and metallurgical.....	2	50	1		2		8	1	5
Quarrying, products of stone, clay, glass, etc.....	3	72	2	15	5		15	7	6
Metal working.....	1	52		28	7		21		2
Machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc.....		31		20	4		11	5	4
Woodworking, caoutchouc, carved materials, etc.....		73		48	8	1	19	5	2
Leather, hides, hair, feathers, etc.....		18		14	3		9		1
Textiles.....	1	82		34	7		28	2	10
Upholstering and paper-hanging.....		5		4					
Wearing apparel, cleaning, etc.....		74		33	5	1	14	4	6
Paper.....		14		6	1	1	2	2	
Foods and drinks (including tobacco).....		47		18	9		18	2	6
Chemical products.....		10		3	1		4		
Building trades.....	4	116	1	56	17	1	32	2	9
Printing.....		11		6	3		5	1	2
Heat, light, and power plants.....		1							1
Commerce.....		14		4			4		1
Transportation.....	2	15		7	1		2		4
Other.....		9		2			1		1
Total.....	13	694	4	298	73	4	103	31	59

As in previous years, the most frequent causes of strikes were the demands for increased wages and for reduction of hours. The demand for increased wages alone or in conjunction with other demands figured in 694 strikes, and that for reduction of hours in 298 strikes.

The following table shows the number of strikes and of strikers in each group of industries in 1906, by results:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY INDUSTRIES AND RESULTS, 1906.

Industry.	Strikes.				Strikers.			
	Succeeded.	Succeeded partly.	Failed.	Total.	Succeeded.	Succeeded partly.	Failed.	Total.
Mining and metallurgical.....	7	27	34	68	2,043	23,753	12,909	38,705
Quarrying, products of stone, clay, glass, etc.....	22	55	31	108	2,603	5,622	2,551	10,776
Metal working.....	20	35	25	80	1,956	13,226	1,191	16,373
Machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc.....	11	28	17	56	453	3,604	1,584	5,641
Woodworking, caoutchouc, carved materials, etc.....	29	66	23	118	714	4,210	674	5,598
Leather, hides, hair, feathers, etc.....	10	18	7	35	521	1,579	144	2,244
Textiles.....	16	71	43	130	2,143	21,089	5,738	28,970
Upholstering and paper hanging.....	1	4		5	809	84		893
Wearing apparel, cleaning, etc.....	24	58	23	105	965	11,386	637	13,018
Paper.....	5	7	6	18	277	714	531	1,522
Foods and drinks (including tobacco).....	18	35	29	82	1,855	3,765	1,304	6,924
Chemical products.....	4	7	4	15	461	829	299	1,529
Building trades.....	48	73	63	184	2,214	9,384	3,818	15,416
Printing.....	10	3	11	24	106	64	837	1,007
Heat, light, and power plants.....	1			1	6			6
Commerce.....	2	9	8	19	131	677	300	1,108
Transportation.....	8	13	3	24	949	1,702	660	3,341
Other.....	5	4	2	11	341	388		729
Total.....					18,337	138,000	60,000	248,337

Of the total number of strikes in 1906, 22.2 per cent succeeded, 47.4 per cent succeeded partly, and 30.4 per cent failed. Of the total number of strikers, 12 per cent were engaged in strikes which succeeded, 66.4 per cent in strikes which succeeded partly, and 21.6 per cent in strikes which failed.

The following table shows the number of strikes and strikers in 1906, according to duration and results:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY DURATION AND RESULTS, 1906.

Days of duration.	Strikes.				Strikers.			
	Suc- ceeded.	Suc- ceeded partly.	Failed.	Total.	Suc- ceeded.	Suc- ceeded partly.	Failed.	Total.
1 to 5.....	144	168	161	473	11,588	30,730	14,938	57,256
6 to 10.....	39	109	53	201	1,826	11,403	2,801	16,030
11 to 15.....	19	54	28	101	1,741	16,300	3,458	21,589
16 to 20.....	16	41	13	70	878	3,400	4,810	9,068
21 to 25.....	4	21	18	43	30	3,912	1,624	5,575
26 to 30.....	4	21	9	34	117	14,608	678	15,403
31 to 40.....	9	26	12	47	2,062	5,457	996	8,535
41 to 50.....	3	26	12	41	54	4,480	943	5,456
51 to 100.....	2	33	21	56	30	5,755	2,466	8,251
101 or over.....	1	14	2	17	22	5,962	491	6,475
Total.....	241	513	329	1,083	18,377	102,106	33,205	153,688

STRIKES DURING THIRTEEN YEARS.—The summaries for the years 1894 to 1906 were compiled partly from the report for 1906 and partly from previous reports. The following table shows the number of strikes and strikers, establishments affected, and working days lost in Austria for the period during which the Ministry of Commerce has published reports on strikes:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, BY YEARS, 1894 TO 1906.

Year.	Strikes.	Estab- lish- ments af- fected.	Strikers.	Per cent of strik- ers of to- tal em- ployees.	Working days lost.
1894.....	172	2,542	67,061	69.5	795,416
1895.....	209	874	28,652	59.9	300,348
1896.....	305	1,499	66,234	65.7	899,939
1897.....	246	851	38,467	59.0	368,006
1898.....	255	885	39,658	59.9	323,619
1899.....	311	1,330	54,763	60.2	1,029,937
1900.....	303	1,003	105,128	67.3	3,483,963
1901.....	270	719	24,870	38.5	157,744
1902.....	264	1,184	37,471	44.0	284,046
1903.....	324	1,731	46,215	60.5	500,567
1904.....	414	2,704	64,227	64.3	606,629
1905.....	686	3,803	99,591	63.6	1,151,310
1906.....	1,083	6,049	153,688	55.6	2,191,815

The number of strikes and the number of strikers for each year of the thirteen-year period are shown, by industries, in the following table:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY INDUSTRIES AND YEARS, 1894 TO 1906.

STRIKES.

Year.	Mining and metallurgical.	Quarrying, products of stone, clay, glass, etc.	Metal working.	Machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc.	Wood-working, caoutchouc, carved materials, etc.	Textiles.	Building trades.	Other.	Total.
1894.....	13	22	23	7	23	34	11	39	172
1895.....	4	29	37	6	38	29	24	42	209
1896.....	11	29	33	14	55	43	42	78	305
1897.....	25	27	26	20	28	28	34	58	246
1898.....	29	27	26	13	28	28	49	55	256
1899.....	26	21	32	24	35	84	33	56	311
1900.....	40	19	26	13	34	56	23	92	308
1901.....	46	29	22	15	27	28	24	85	270
1902.....	63	24	18	15	20	34	22	68	264
1903.....	40	18	34	13	48	44	37	90	324
1904.....	36	38	44	27	41	37	80	111	414
1905.....	43	76	65	45	53	54	188	162	686
1906.....	68	108	80	56	118	130	184	339	1,063
Total....	438	467	406	268	548	629	751	1,275	4,842

STRIKERS.

1894.....	22,986	6,415	2,752	194	9,793	6,317	14,975	3,629	67,061
1895.....	626	9,943	3,694	253	2,336	4,085	5,361	2,354	28,652
1896.....	30,120	3,217	2,973	2,058	5,972	9,791	5,434	6,669	66,234
1897.....	3,632	3,053	1,568	4,689	1,382	11,275	4,995	7,873	38,467
1898.....	7,046	4,491	991	2,471	1,318	3,171	13,961	6,209	39,658
1899.....	3,477	2,112	2,459	1,356	3,198	30,249	7,842	4,070	54,763
1900.....	78,791	574	1,977	519	1,391	12,010	4,849	5,017	105,128
1901.....	7,496	1,698	1,393	880	2,925	2,675	3,214	4,580	24,870
1902.....	13,573	1,819	741	1,013	1,312	2,599	10,476	5,938	37,471
1903.....	12,341	2,740	2,930	705	2,846	5,220	9,645	9,782	46,215
1904.....	19,614	4,788	4,211	1,400	1,756	3,483	15,947	13,028	64,227
1905.....	10,100	9,832	7,409	4,660	2,736	5,806	35,024	23,967	99,591
1906.....	38,705	19,776	16,373	5,641	5,598	28,970	15,416	32,209	153,688
Total ...	248,507	61,458	49,474	25,848	42,563	125,711	147,139	125,325	826,025

The causes of strikes for each year of the period are shown in the following table, the cause and not the strike being made the unit:

STRIKES, BY CAUSES AND YEARS, 1894 TO 1906.

[Strikes due to two or more causes have been tabulated under each cause; hence the yearly totals for this table, if computed, would not agree with those for the preceding tables.]

Year.	Against reduction of wages.	For increase of wages.	For change in method of payment.	For reduction of hours.	For discharge of foremen, workmen, etc.	Against obnoxious treatment.	Against discharge of employees.	Against obnoxious rules.	Other causes.
1894.....	23	53	5	19	12	5	35	16	31
1895.....	19	89	6	31	22	2	31	8	37
1896.....	23	140	8	07	32	5	40	12	34
1897.....	26	116	7	47	26	13	32	18	45
1898.....	33	124	8	54	29	9	38	20	39
1899.....	29	143	5	73	17	5	40	18	40
1899.....	26	152	6	69	13	10	36	14	53
1901.....	28	116	7	46	23	4	36	15	33
1902.....	28	127	7	52	9	2	37	25	36
1903.....	30	151	6	61	36	2	51	15	33
1904.....	22	213	5	91	20	6	70	30	43
1905.....	24	402	3	151	46	3	130	16	52
1906.....	13	694	4	298	73	4	193	31	59
Total ...	329	2,520	77	1,059	363	70	767	238	535

The following table shows, for both strikes and strikers, during each year of the period, the results expressed in percentages:

PER CENT OF STRIKES AND OF STRIKERS, BY RESULTS, FOR EACH YEAR, 1894 TO 1906.

Year.	Strikes.				Strikers.			
	Number.	Per cent succeeded.	Per cent succeeded partly.	Per cent failed.	Number.	Per cent succeeded.	Per cent succeeded partly.	Per cent failed.
1894.....	172	25.0	27.9	47.1	67,061	9.2	32.3	58.5
1895.....	209	26.5	24.9	48.3	28,652	12.8	46.7	40.5
1896.....	305	21.0	36.4	42.6	66,234	4.6	62.8	32.6
1897.....	246	17.5	37.0	45.5	38,467	15.7	47.3	37.0
1898.....	255	18.8	41.2	40.0	39,658	8.4	66.4	25.2
1899.....	311	15.4	45.0	39.6	54,763	10.2	72.0	17.8
1900.....	303	20.1	44.9	35.0	105,128	4.7	85.5	9.8
1901.....	270	20.7	36.3	43.0	24,879	20.1	47.5	32.4
1902.....	264	19.7	39.0	41.3	37,471	13.9	52.6	33.5
1903.....	324	17.3	43.5	39.2	46,215	10.0	68.0	22.0
1904.....	414	24.4	44.4	31.2	64,227	18.6	41.4	40.0
1905.....	686	21.9	51.2	26.9	99,591	14.0	71.6	14.4
1906.....	1,083	22.2	47.4	30.4	153,688	12.0	66.4	21.6

LOCKOUTS.—There were 50 lockouts reported in 1906. One was due to the refusal of employees to work overtime; 1 to the arbitrary reduction of hours by employees; 1 to the refusal of employees to comply with the rules of the establishment; 2 to cessation of work by employees without the consent of employers; 2 boycotts by employees against other establishments; 2 against unionism; 2 to anticipate threatened strikes; 2 on account of lockouts existing in other establishments; 8 to the demands of employees for increase of wages; 13 to prevent the spreading of existing strikes; and 16 were due to employees taking a holiday without obtaining permission of the employers.

The following table shows the number of lockouts, establishments affected, and employees locked out for each year of the period, 1895 to 1906:

LOCKOUTS, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY YEARS, 1895 TO 1906.

Year.	Lockouts.	Estab-lishments affected.	Em-ployees locked out.	Per cent of em-ployees locked out of total em-ployees.	Em-ployees locked out and re-employ-ment.
1895.....	8	17	2,317	51.2	2,08
1896.....	10	211	5,445	79.5	4,28
1897.....	11	12	1,712	54.4	1,96
1898.....	5	38	3,457	60.9	1,48
1899.....	10	58	4,036	75.8	1,78
1900.....	3	3	302	70.4	22
1901.....	8	9	1,050	49.9	1,80
1902.....	8	71	1,334	51.8	93
1903.....	6	665	23,742	99.2	23,70
1904.....	17	48	11,197	75.2	9,54
1905.....	30	1,832	67,872	84.3	64,58

BELGIUM.

Statistique des grèves en Belgique, 1901-1905. Office du Travail, Ministère de l'Industrie et du Travail. 1907. lix, 243 pp.

This is the second quinquennial report on strikes issued by the Belgian labor bureau. A summary of the data contained in the first report, embracing the period from 1896 to 1900, is given in the Twenty-first Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor, pages 812 to 817.

The present volume, which is substantially in the same form as the first report, consists of an introduction and analysis, giving the main results and a description of the methods used, general detailed tables, summary tables, and notes in regard to the most important strikes. In the detailed tables a list is given of all strikes, classified for each year by main branches of industries, and for each strike is given the following information: Industry, locality, cause or object, number of establishments involved in the strike, total number of persons employed in the establishments, number of strikers, number of employees forced out of employment by strikes, the dates of the beginning and ending of strikes, the duration, method of settlement, and result. Summary tables are presented showing (1) the number of strikes, establishments, persons employed and strikers, by industries; (2) the same information, by causes or objects of strikes; (3) results of strikes and number of strikers, by industries; (4) methods of settling strikes, by industry groups; (5) results of strikes, by causes or objects; (6) duration of strikes, by industries; (7) duration of strikes, by causes or objects; (8) duration of strikes, by results; (9) strikes and strikers, by months of the year and industries. Lock-outs, which are stated to be very rare in Belgium, are not included in the statistics presented in this report. During the five years embraced in this report 474 strikes were registered, affecting 1,281 establishments employing 321,631 persons, while the total number of strikers was 149,987, or 46.6 per cent of all the employees. In addition, 66,520 employees, or 20.7 per cent, were thrown out of employment by the strikes, making the total number thrown out of employment 216,507, or 67.3 per cent of all the employees of the establishments affected. For the period covered by the report, 1901 to 1905, the number of

strikes, number of establishments affected, and the number of strikers are given in the following table:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, AND ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, BY YEARS, 1901 TO 1905.

Year.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments affected.	Strikers.		
			Males.	Females.	Total.
1901.....	117	214	42,479	1,336	43,814
1902.....	73	116	9,894	583	10,477
1903.....	70	121	6,649	666	7,315
1904.....	81	280	11,735	640	12,375
1905.....	133	550	69,620	6,082	75,702
Total.....	474	1,281	140,711	9,276	149,987

In 1903 the smallest number of strikes occurred. This year also shows the smallest number of strikers, while the year 1905 shows the largest number of strikes and the largest number of strikers during the period.

The following table gives for each of the five years the number of strikes and strikers, by industrial groups:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY INDUSTRIES AND YEARS, 1901 TO 1905.

Industry.	Strikes.					Total.	Strikers.					Total.
	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.		1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	
Mining.....	38	15	3	21	25	102	20,813	5,940	637	6,059	59,168	92,617
Quarrying.....	7	6	2	1	9	25	710	792	368	38	600	2,508
Metallurgical, metal working, and machinery.....	12	8	9	10	15	54	586	968	542	771	639	3,526
Ceramic.....			1	2	2	5			2,568	282	3,101	5,951
Glass.....	6	2	4	2	3	17	3,671	138	662	277	1,627	6,375
Chemical products.....	3		4		2	9	563		98		213	844
Foods and drinks.....	1			1		2	100			50		150
Textiles.....	25	25	18	31	54	153	1,147	1,623	1,247	2,060	7,975	14,052
Wearing apparel.....	3	3	4	3		13	68	86	521	140		815
Building.....	7	2	2		4	15	421	52	69		346	888
Woodworking.....	3	2		2	5	12	91	162		78	476	807
Leather and hides.....	2	1	6	1	8	18	79	26	147	82	341	675
Tobacco.....		2	4	1	1	8		419	356	12	2	791
Printing.....	1	2	2	2	1	8	6	158	41	20	27	253
Art trades and scientific instruments.....	2	3	6	1	1	13	330	49	280	2,400	1,042	4,110
Special.....	4	2	3	3	2	14	166	44	82	106	35	433
Transportation.....	3		2		1	6	15,983		50		80	15,193
Total.....	117	73	70	81	133	474	43,814	10,477	7,649	12,375	75,072	149,987

Over one-half of the 474 strikes reported during the five-year period occurred in the mining and textile industries, namely, 102, or 21.5 per cent, in the former and 153, or 32.3 per cent, in the latter. During the same period the industries in which the largest number of strikers were engaged were mining, with 92,617 persons, or 61.8 per cent; transportation, with 15,193 persons, or 10.1 per cent; and textiles, with 14,052 persons, or 9.4 per cent.

The following table shows for each of the five years the number of strikes and strikers, by causes:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY CAUSES AND YEARS, 1901 TO 1905.

Cause or object.	Strikes.						Strikers.					
	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	Total.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	Total.
For increase of wages.	35	24	24	28	74	185	2,820	5,326	3,823	4,041	66,061	82,011
Against reduction of wages.	28	8	15	8	10	69	31,269	661	954	1,730	2,563	37,186
Other causes affecting wages.	5	2				7	128	372				500
For reduction of hours.	1	2	5	6	1	15	230	301	604	2,777	386	4,298
Against increase of hours.	1	1	1	2	1	6	200	40	20	592	44	896
Other causes affecting hours of labor.	1					1	29					29
For or against modification of conditions of work.	14	10	9	8	17	58	1,400	789	442	269	2,202	5,282
Against piecework.	1	2	1			4	46	183	415			644
For or against modification of shop rules.	1			3	3	7	280			80	81	441
Against fines.	2		1	4	2	9	100		228	1,066	1,225	2,709
For discharge of superintendents or other employees.	7	6	3	3	6	25	1,005	216	139	105	632	2,097
For reinstatement of discharged employees.	16	11	4	10	17	58	2,608	1,882	161	1,133	2,370	8,154
Trade unionism.	5	4	7	6	2	24	3,519	633	863	254	78	5,347
Other causes.		3		3		6		74		319		393
Total.	117	73	70	81	133	474	43,814	10,477	7,649	12,375	75,672	149,987

Questions of wages caused more than half of all the strikes in Belgium during the period, namely, 261, or 55.1 per cent of all the strikes, involving 119,697, or 79.8 per cent of all the strikers. Other frequent causes were demands for modification of conditions of work (58 strikes and 5,282 strikers) and demands for reinstatement of discharged employees (58 strikes and 8,154 strikers). Disputes as to hours of labor caused 22 strikes with 5,223 strikers.

In the table which follows, the strikes and strikers are classified according to duration of strikes:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY DURATION AND YEARS, 1901 TO 1905.

Days of duration.	Strikes.						Strikers.					
	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	Total.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	Total.
Under 2.	25	8	15	7	22	77	1,464	1,006	573	288	2,866	6,197
2 to 5.	42	24	27	28	28	159	7,370	2,429	1,571	4,121	5,417	21,208
6 to 10.	25	16	11	18	30	100	2,278	4,041	1,041	2,400	2,558	12,318
11 to 15.	3	10	4	8	11	35	75	1,205	2,672	792	371	5,115
16 to 20.	4	4	3	5	4	20	16,138	297	158	193	410	16,196
21 to 30.	3	3	1	6	8	21	158	546	150	1,391	1,413	3,658
Over 30.	15	8	9	9	20	61	17,331	953	1,484	2,890	62,637	85,295
Total.	117	73	70	81	133	474	43,814	10,477	7,649	12,375	75,672	149,987

*The sum of the items (12,075) does not agree with this total, but the figures are reproduced as found in the report.

The majority of the strikes is found to be of very short duration, 336 out of 474 strikes, or 70.9 per cent, lasting fewer than 10 days. It appears from the table, however, that these 336 strikes included only 39,723 strikers, or 26.5 per cent. Of the total number, 77 strikes, or 16.2 per cent, lasted from 11 to 30 days and included 24,969, or 16.6 per cent, of the strikers, while 61 strikes, or 12.9 per cent, lasted over 30 days and involved 85,295 strikers, or 56.9 per cent. By dividing the strikes according to their duration into these 3 large groups, it is found that the average number of strikers per strike in the first or briefest group is 118, in the second group 324, and in the last group, of longest duration, 1,398 men per strike.

Of the 474 strikes recorded, 83, or 17.5 per cent, involving 11,205 workmen, or 7.5 per cent of the total, resulted entirely in favor of the workmen; 325, or 68.6 per cent, with 125,974 employees, or 84 per cent, resulted in favor of the employers, and 66, or 13.9 per cent, with 12,808 employees, or 8.5 per cent, were compromised. The proportion of the strikes resulting in favor of the employees in 1901 was 11 per cent, in 1902 12 per cent, in 1903 14 per cent, in 1904 20 per cent, and in 1905 26.3 per cent. The large strikes were generally unfavorable to the employees, as is shown by the fact that during the five-year period the average number of employees per strike ending favorably for the employees was 135, per strike compromised was 194, and per strike resulting in favor of the employers was 387.

The following table shows the number of strikes and strikers, by results, in each year of the five-year period:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY RESULTS AND YEARS, 1901 TO 1905.

Year.	Strikes, the results of which were—			Strikers in strikes, the results of which were—				
	Total strikes.	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.	Total strikers.	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.
1901.....	117	13	88	16	43,814	956	40,640	2,218
1902.....	73	9	54	10	10,477	1,060	8,287	1,130
1903.....	70	10	52	8	7,649	3,152	3,827	670
1904.....	81	16	55	10	12,375	2,230	7,180	2,965
1905.....	133	35	76	22	75,672	3,807	66,040	5,825
Total.....	474	83	325	66	149,967	11,205	125,974	12,808

The number of strikes and strikers in various branches of industry during the five-year period are shown in the following table, by results:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY INDUSTRIES AND RESULTS, 1901 TO 1905.

Industry.	Total strikes.	Strikes, the results of which were—			Total strikers.	Strikers in strikes, the results of which were—		
		In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.		In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.
Mining.....	102	6	90	6	92,617	1,675	89,782	1,160
Quarrying.....	25	5	12	8	2,508	272	1,164	1,072
Metallurgical, metal working, and machinery.....	54	9	37	8	3,526	1,138	1,991	397
Ceramic.....	5	3	2	5,951	3,644	2,307
Glass.....	17	4	10	3	6,375	308	5,533	534
Chemical products.....	9	6	3	844	279	565
Foods and drinks.....	2	2	150	150
Textiles.....	153	31	96	26	14,052	2,468	6,116	5,468
Wearing apparel.....	13	3	8	2	815	70	638	107
Building.....	15	3	10	2	888	216	362	370
Woodworking.....	12	3	7	2	807	68	429	310
Leather and hides.....	18	5	10	3	675	146	402	127
Tobacco.....	8	1	6	1	791	386	118	287
Printing.....	8	1	7	252	88	164
Art trades and scientific instruments.....	13	4	7	2	4,110	518	1,181	2,411
Special.....	14	3	11	433	93	340
Transportation.....	6	2	4	15,193	115	15,078
Total.....	474	83	325	66	149,987	11,205	125,974	12,808

A classification of the strikes and strikers during the five-year period with reference to causes and results is given in the following table:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY CAUSES AND RESULTS, 1901 TO 1905.

Cause or object.	Total strikes.	Strikes, the results of which were—			Total strikers.	Strikers in strikes, the results of which were—		
		In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.		In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.
For increase of wages.....	185	47	113	25	82,011	7,301	68,737	5,973
Against reduction of wages.....	69	13	46	10	37,186	799	35,678	709
Other causes affecting wages.....	7	6	1	500	452	48
For reduction of hours.....	15	1	11	3	4,298	37	1,718	2,543
Against increase of hours.....	6	1	4	1	896	401	295	200
Other causes affecting hours of labor.....	1	1	29	29
For or against modification of conditions of work.....	58	6	39	13	5,282	461	3,011	1,810
Against piecework.....	4	1	1	2	644	113	415	116
For or against modification of shop rules.....	7	2	5	441	64	377
Against fines.....	9	1	8	2,709	700	2,009
For discharge of superintendents or other employees.....	25	1	22	2	2,097	30	1,626	441
For reinstatement of discharged employees.....	58	3	49	6	8,154	153	7,250	751
Trade unionism.....	24	6	16	2	5,347	944	4,189	214
Other causes.....	6	1	4	1	393	202	188	3
Total.....	474	83	325	66	149,987	11,205	125,974	12,808

As will be seen by the table, of the strikes resulting in favor of the employees more than one-half were undertaken for the purpose of increasing wages, while of those against increase of hours for their purpose one strike, in which 401 employees were engaged, resulted in favor of the employees. Also, more than one-half of the strikers struck for increase of wages.

The following table shows, for both strikes and strikers, the methods of settlement of the strikes during each year of the five-year period:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY METHOD OF SETTLEMENT AND YEARS, 1901 TO 1905.

Method of settlement.	1901.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	Total.
Strikes settled by—						
Submission of employees.....	10	23	10	21	38	102
Negotiations between employers and employees.....	80	28	22	31	57	218
Negotiations in which the organization of one of the parties participated.....	5	16	19	11	5	56
Negotiations conducted by the organizations of the two parties.....	1		3	2		6
The council of industry and labor.....		1				1
Arbitration.....				1	1	2
Conciliation.....	2		1	2	7	12
Exclusion of strikers.....	19	5	15	13	25	77
Total strikes.....	117	73	70	81	133	474
Strikers in strikes settled by—						
Submission of employees.....	29,695	5,849	908	3,556	61,351	101,359
Negotiations between employers and employees.....	12,500	2,848	1,218	4,745	7,721	29,032
Negotiations in which the organization of one of the parties participated.....	249	1,579	1,724	529	441	4,522
Negotiations conducted by the organizations of the two parties.....	320		3,058	2,499		5,877
The council of industry and labor.....		140				140
Arbitration.....				30	30	60
Conciliation.....	134		87	600	4,034	4,945
Exclusion of strikers.....	916	61	654	326	2,095	4,052
Total strikers.....	43,814	10,477	7,649	12,375	75,672	149,987

During the period 102 strikes, with 101,359 strikers, were terminated by an unconditional return to work. In addition 77 strikes, with 4,052 strikers, were terminated by the exclusion of the strikers from the establishments. In other words, 179 strikes, or 37.8 per cent of the total, in which 105,411 strikers, or 70.3 per cent of the total, were engaged, were terminated otherwise than by negotiations of any kind between the parties to the disputes. The next largest group is that in which settlement was brought about by direct negotiations between the employers and the workmen. This group included 218 strikes, or 46 per cent of the total, and 29,032 strikers, or 19.4 per cent of the total.

FRANCE.

Statistique des Grèves et des Recours à la Conciliation et à l'Arbitrage Survenus Pendant l'Année 1906. Direction du Travail, Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale. xxi, 824 pp.

The present volume is the sixteenth of a series of annual reports on strikes and conciliation and arbitration issued by the French labor bureau. The information is presented in the same form as in previous reports.

STRIKES.—During the year 1906 there were 1,309 strikes, involving 19,637 establishments, 438,466 strikers, and 29,305 other persons thrown out of work on account of strikes. Of the strikers, 86.76 per cent were men, 9.43 per cent were women, and 3.81 per cent were children. The strikes caused a loss of 8,692,104 working days by strikers and 746,490 by other employees thrown out of work, a total of 9,438,594 working days. In 1905 there were 830 strikes, in which 177,666 strikers were involved and 18,146 other employees were thrown out of work, causing an aggregate loss of 2,746,684 working days. The average number of days lost per striker in 1906 was 19, as compared with 14 in 1905.

Of the 1,309 strikes in 1906, 830 involved but 1 establishment each, 157 involved from 2 to 5 establishments, 87 from 6 to 10 establishments, 116 from 11 to 25 establishments, 49 from 26 to 50 establishments, and 32 from 51 to 100 establishments. Of the remaining strikes, 35 involved over 100 establishments each, while for 3 strikes the number of establishments involved could not be ascertained. In 1,003 strikes, all or a part of the striking employees were organized. The employers were organized in 589 strikes. Sixteen workmen's unions and 6 employers' associations were organized during the progress of or immediately following strikes. In 128 strikes regular aid was given by labor organizations to their striking members and in some cases to strikers not members.

Of the 1,309 strikes, 278, or 21.2 per cent, involving 31,148 strikers, succeeded; 539 strikes, or 41.2 per cent, involving 253,264 strikers, succeeded partly, and 490 strikes, or 37.4 per cent, involving 154,010 strikers, failed; 2 strikes had not terminated July 1, 1907. The percentage of strikers involved in the three classes of strikes was 7.1 per cent, 57.8 per cent, and 35.1 per cent, respectively. In 575 strikes the striking employees were time workers, while in 294 they worked by the piece, and in the remaining 440 by both time and piece.

The table following shows, by groups of industries, the number of strikes, strikers, and establishments affected, according to the results of strikes; also the days of work lost by all employees and the

number of strikers per 1,000 working people in each group of industries, for the year 1906:

STRIKES, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, AND STRIKERS, BY RESULTS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, FOR EACH GROUP OF INDUSTRIES, 1906.

Industry.	Succeeded.		Succeeded partly.		Failed.		Total.	
	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.
Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries..	17	489	22	825	11	500	50	1,814
Mining.....	4	4	23	55	13	16	40	75
Quarrying.....	6	25	4	16	7	30	17	71
Foods and drinks.....	13	437	19	738	21	283	53	1,458
Chemical products (including to- bacco).....	5	5	12	21	16	16	33	42
Paper and printing.....	31	77	46	691	42	105	119	873
Leather and hides.....	23	95	31	126	21	572	75	783
Textiles.....	41	87	84	489	83	161	208	737
Wearing apparel, cleaning, etc.....	5	31	11	161	12	47	28	239
Woodworking, carved materials, etc.....	16	100	29	790	21	167	68	1,059
Building trades (woodwork).....	6	37	13	278	13	1,246	32	1,561
Metallurgical.....	3	3	10	31	11	18	24	52
Metal working, machinery, instru- ments, apparatus, etc.....	22	72	72	1,010	70	1,809	164	2,801
Jewelry, gold and silver working.....			3	642	3	3	6	645
Stonecutting, products of stone, clay, glass, etc.....	11	31	19	50	25	26	55	107
Building trades (stone and earth work).....	44	197	79	2,586	79	3,747	202	6,530
Transportation, commerce, etc.....	31	133	62	448	42	109	135	690
Total.....	278	1,823	539	8,957	490	8,855	a 1,300	b 19,637

Industry.	Strikers in strikes which—			Total strikers.	Strik-ers per 1,000 work-ing people in each indus-try. (c)	Work-ing days lost by all em-ployees thrown out of work.
	Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.			
Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries.....	4,517	7,985	1,880	14,382	48.57	183,139
Mining.....	779	75,569	10,131	86,479	475.44	2,974,470
Quarrying.....	537	1,810	325	2,672	43.70	15,646
Foods and drinks.....	1,244	2,658	768	4,670	7.36	31,528
Chemical products (including tobacco).....	981	2,415	2,362	5,758	50.37	53,962
Paper and printing.....	1,335	10,561	3,547	21,443	162.40	561,893
Leather and hides.....	2,909	8,216	3,528	14,653	93.43	484,966
Textiles.....	4,819	31,602	12,352	48,773	79.10	934,465
Wearing apparel, cleaning, etc.....	163	3,450	851	4,464	9.44	39,468
Woodworking, carved materials, etc.....	1,029	18,057	7,668	d 26,798	109.52	664,164
Building trades (woodwork).....	280	1,394	10,359	12,033	(e)	183,675
Metallurgical.....	525	8,641	13,046	22,212	314.80	495,418
Metal working, machinery, instruments, appa- ratus, etc.....	1,438	30,035	33,027	64,500	117.98	1,245,216
Jewelry, gold and silver working.....		3,539	101	3,640	171.54	51,417
Stone cutting, products of stone, clay, glass, etc.....	815	2,201	2,402	5,418	35.91	171,472
Building trades (stone and earth work).....	7,349	29,732	42,849	79,930	f 277.83	1,249,462
Transportation, commerce, etc.....	2,428	9,399	8,814	20,641	17.56	98,833
Total.....	31,148	253,264	154,010	d 438,466	f 86.03	9,438,594

* Including 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

† Including 2 establishments in 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

‡ Based on the census of 1901.

§ Including 44 strikers in 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

|| Included in building trades (stone and earth work).

¶ Including building trades (woodwork).

‡ Based on the total number of industrial working people in France in 1901.

Of the 17 groups of industries above shown, 3, namely, textiles, building trades (stone and earth work), and metal working, etc.,

together furnished 43.9 per cent of the total number of strikes during the year. With regard to the number of strikers, these 3 groups furnished 44.1 per cent. The principal data as to strikes are shown, by causes, in the table following:

STRIKES, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, AND STRIKERS, BY RESULTS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, FOR EACH CAUSE, 1906.

[Strikes due to two or more causes have been tabulated under each cause; hence the totals for this table, if computed, would not agree with those for preceding tables.]

Cause or object.	Succeeded.		Succeeded partly.		Failed.		Total.	
	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.
For increase of wages.....	192	1,770	335	6,164	268	4,107	^a 797	^b 12,043
Against reduction of wages.....	15	40	9	78	13	13	37	131
For reduction of hours with present or increased wages.....	109	1,021	92	4,219	182	8,688	383	13,928
Relating to time, method, etc., of wage payments.....	87	839	44	618	72	1,182	203	2,639
For or against modification of conditions of work.....	18	38	9	208	31	608	58	854
Against piecework.....	18	172	16	596	56	5,911	90	6,679
For or against modification of shop rules.....	33	564	20	313	53	1,298	106	2,175
For abolition or reduction of fines.....	6	40	6	50	14	16	26	106
Against discharge or for reinstatement of workmen, foremen, or superintendents.....	34	156	21	48	94	317	149	521
For discharge of workmen, foremen, or superintendents.....	34	74	23	40	91	631	^c 149	^d 746
For limitation of number of apprentices.....					7	65	7	65
Relating to deductions from wages for support of insurance and aid funds.....	4	23	3	11	4	51	11	85
Other causes.....	29	347	16	237	41	1,885	86	2,469

Cause or object.	Strikers in strikes which—			Total strikers.	Working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.
	Succeeded.	Succeeded partly.	Failed.		
For increase of wages.....	22,816	210,425	67,798	^e 301,083	7,517,442
Against reduction of wages.....	1,100	916	584	2,600	12,845
For reduction of hours with present or increased wages.....	16,296	64,149	139,993	220,438	3,843,923
Relating to time, method, etc., of wage payments.....	15,513	74,967	27,170	117,650	3,497,674
For or against modification of conditions of work.....	2,405	3,149	5,254	10,808	168,600
Against piecework.....	2,414	9,246	68,919	80,579	1,932,823
For or against modification of shop rules.....	4,011	5,333	14,286	23,630	518,323
For abolition or reduction of fines.....	1,544	4,778	8,815	15,137	238,749
Against discharge or for reinstatement of workmen, foremen, or superintendents.....	6,725	6,844	24,981	38,550	939,062
For discharge of workmen, foremen, or superintendents.....	4,020	4,134	24,196	^f 32,364	582,623
For limitation of number of apprentices.....			3,001	3,001	40,192
Relating to deductions from wages for support of insurance and aid funds.....	269	225	3,910	4,404	64,021
Other causes.....	25,505	6,663	87,309	119,477	3,649,433

^a Including 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

^b Including 2 establishments in 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

^c Including 1 strike not terminated July 1, 1907.

^d Including 1 establishment in 1 strike not terminated July 1, 1907.

^e Including 44 strikers in 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

^f Including 14 strikers in 1 strike not terminated July 1, 1907.

The most frequent causes of strikes during the year were wage disputes, the demands for increased wages, alone or in conjunction with

other demands, having figured in 797 strikes, or 60.9 per cent of the total number of strikes for the year, involving 301,083 strikers, or 68.7 per cent of the total number of strikers, and causing a loss of 7,517,442 working days, which include days lost by persons other than strikers who were thrown out of employment on account of strikes. Of these demands (excluding 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907, involving 44 strikers) 192 were successful for 22,816 strikers, 335 partly successful for 210,425 strikers, and 268, involving 67,798 strikers, failed. The next two tables show, for both strikes and strikers, the results of strikes by duration and the results and duration of strikes by number of strikers involved:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY DURATION AND RESULTS, 1906.

Days of duration.	Strikes which—			Total strikes.	Strikers in strikes which—			Total strikers.
	Suc- ceeded.	Suc- ceeded partly.	Failed.		Suc- ceeded.	Suc- ceeded partly.	Failed.	
7 or under.....	210	278	264	752	23,134	50,750	30,702	104,586
8 to 15.....	37	106	92	235	2,670	21,996	19,155	43,821
16 to 30.....	23	83	77	183	3,012	37,781	43,515	84,308
31 to 100.....	7	62	48	117	832	122,263	57,547	180,642
101 or over.....	1	10	9	^a 22	1,500	20,474	3,081	^b 25,108
Total.....	278	539	400	^a 1,309	31,148	253,264	154,010	^b 438,466

^a Including 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

^b Including 44 strikers in 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

STRIKES, BY NUMBER OF STRIKERS INVOLVED, RESULTS, AND DURATION, 1906.

Strikers involved in each strike.	Strikes which—			Total strikes.	Strikes which lasted—				
	Suc- ceeded.	Suc- ceeded partly.	Failed.		7 days or under.	8 to 15 days.	16 to 30 days.	31 to 100 days.	101 days or over.
25 or under.....	79	108	150	^a 338	221	63	31	20	3
26 to 50.....	64	95	111	^a 271	186	50	26	6	3
51 to 100.....	51	108	72	231	143	37	29	20	2
101 to 200.....	43	84	64	191	99	38	31	22	1
201 to 500.....	33	82	47	162	75	30	32	20	5
501 to 1,000.....	4	25	13	42	14	6	14	5	3
1,001 or over.....	4	37	33	74	14	11	20	24	5
Total.....	278	539	490	^b 1,309	752	235	183	117	22

^a Including 1 strike not terminated July 1, 1907.

^b Including 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

Considered by their duration, the largest percentage of successful strikes was found in strikes which lasted 7 days or under. In strikes of this class 27.9 per cent were successful, while of those which continued for more than 7 days only 12.2 per cent terminated favorably to the strikers. In the classes 8 to 15 days and 16 to 30 days the percentages of successful strikes were 15.7 and 12.6, respectively. Of strikes lasting more than 30 days 5.8 per cent were successful.

The following table gives a summary of the most important strike statistics for each of the years 1894 to 1906. The figures for the years

1894 to 1905 have been compiled from previous reports and those for 1906 from the present report:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY RESULTS, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, FOR EACH YEAR, 1894 TO 1906.

Year.	Strikes.	Estab- lish- ments affected.	Strikers.	Working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.	Strikes which—			Strikers in strikes which—		
					Suc- ceeded.	Suc- ceeded partly.	Failed.	Suc- ceeded.	Suc- ceeded partly.	Failed.
1894.....	391	1,731	54,576	1,062,480	84	129	178	12,897	24,784	16,895
1895.....	405	1,298	45,801	617,469	100	117	188	8,565	20,672	16,564
1896.....	476	2,178	49,851	644,168	117	122	237	11,579	17,057	21,215
1897.....	356	2,568	68,875	780,944	68	122	166	19,838	28,767	20,270
1898.....	368	1,967	82,065	1,216,306	75	123	170	10,594	32,546	38,025
1899.....	739	4,288	176,772	3,590,734	180	282	277	21,131	124,767	30,874
1900.....	902	10,253	222,714	3,769,577	205	360	337	24,216	140,358	58,140
1901.....	523	6,970	111,414	1,862,950	114	195	214	9,364	44,386	57,664
1902.....	512	1,820	212,704	4,675,081	111	184	217	23,533	160,830	28,351
1903.....	567	3,246	123,151	2,441,944	122	222	223	12,526	89,736	20,889
1904.....	1,026	17,250	271,057	3,934,884	297	394	335	53,555	168,094	49,508
1905.....	830	5,302	177,666	2,746,684	184	361	285	22,872	125,016	29,778
1906.....	^a 1,309	^b 19,637	^c 438,466	9,438,694	278	539	490	31,148	253,264	154,010

^a Including 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

^b Including 2 establishments in 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

^c Including 44 strikers in 2 strikes not terminated July 1, 1907.

The number of strikes, establishments affected, strikers, and aggregate working days lost during 1906 show a large increase over each of the preceding years of the period.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION.—During the year recourse to the law of December 27, 1892, relating to the conciliation and arbitration (^a) of labor disputes, was had in 302 disputes. In 16 cases recourse was had to the law before entire cessation of work had occurred, in 8 of which a compromise was effected, while in 1 case the employees receded from their demands. In 1 case, upon the refusal of the employers to present themselves, a strike was declared which resulted in failure. In the remaining 6 cases committees of conciliation were formed, but in none of these was a strike averted. Of the 6 strikes which followed the failure of conciliation, 3 succeeded, 2 after new meetings of the committee and 1 after direct negotiation between the parties. The 3 remaining strikes were settled by compromise after new meetings of the committee had occurred.

The number of disputes in which the application of the law was requested in 1906 is equal to 23.1 per cent of the number of strikes that actually occurred during the year. During the preceding thirteen-year period such recourse was had in 1,898 disputes, or 24.6 per cent of the total strikes for the period. Requests for the application of the law during 1906 were made by employees in 141 disputes, by employers in 8 disputes, and by both employees and employers in

^a For the provisions of this law see Bulletin of the Department of Labor No. 25, pp. 854-856.

6 disputes. In the 147 other disputes in which recourse was had to the law the initiative was taken by justices of the peace.

As for results, it was found that 13 strikes had terminated by direct agreement between employers and employees before committees of conciliation were formed. The offer of conciliation was rejected in 119 of the 289 remaining disputes, the rejection coming from employers in 100 cases, from employees in 3 cases, and from both employers and employees in 16 cases. In 10 of the 119 cases in which conciliation was rejected the disputes were terminated by the employees withdrawing their demands or accepting concessions previously offered, while in the 109 other cases strikes were declared or continued.

Committees of conciliation were constituted for the settlement of the remaining 170 disputes. Ninety-four of these disputes were settled directly by such committees, and of the 76 disputes remaining 8 were settled by arbitration and 5 were settled by the parties themselves after having appeared without success before committees of conciliation. Strikes were declared or continued after the failure of conciliation and arbitration in the 63 remaining disputes.

The following is a summary statement in regard to disputes in which recourse was had to the law concerning conciliation and arbitration during 1906 and for the preceding thirteen years taken collectively:

SUMMARY OF CASES IN WHICH RECOURSE WAS HAD TO THE LAW CONCERNING CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION, 1893 TO 1905 AND 1906.

Items.	1893 to 1905.	1906.
Total number of strikes.....	7,723	1,309
Disputes in which recourse was had to the law of 1892.....	1,898	302
Disputes settled:		
Before the creation of committees of conciliation.....	97	13
After refusal of request for conciliation.....	92	10
Directly by committees of conciliation.....	558	94
By arbitration.....	69	8
Directly by the parties, after having had recourse to conciliation.....	55	5
Total cases settled through the application of the law.....	871	130
Strikes resulting or continuing:		
After refusal of request for conciliation.....	591	109
After failure of recourse to conciliation and arbitration.....	437	63
Total cases of failure after application of the law.....	1,027	172

The above summary shows that of 302 disputes considered in 1906, 130 were settled directly or indirectly through the application of the law of 1892, and in the case of 172 the recourse to the law proved fruitless. Of the 130 disputes settled, 19 were favorable to the demands of the employees, 93 resulted in a compromise, and 18 were unfavorable to the employees. In the 172 disputes which continued after the failure of attempts at conciliation and arbitration the employees succeeded in 15, partly succeeded in 83, and failed in 74

GERMANY.

Streiks und Aussperrungen im Jahre 1906. Bearbeitet im Kaiserlichen Statistischen Amt. 306 pp.

This is the eighth annual report on strikes and lockouts issued by the German Imperial Statistical Bureau. The report contains analyses and summaries of the strikes and lockouts in 1906, copies of schedules of inquiry, an outline of the methods pursued by the bureau in the collection and compilation of strike and lockout data, a series of diagrams presenting the principal features relating to strikes and lockouts in Germany and other countries, and tables showing in detail, by locality and industry for each dispute, the establishments affected, total number of employees, strikers and others thrown out of employment, causes, results, manner of settlement, etc. The data relate to disputes ending in 1906.

STRIKES.—During 1906 there were 3,328 strikes reported, affecting 16,246 establishments. Operations were completely suspended in 5,068. Of a total of 683,539 employees in the establishments affected, 272,218 participated in the strikes and 24,433 others were thrown out of employment.

The following table shows the number of strikes, establishments affected, strikers, and other employees thrown out of work, by results of strikes, in 1906:

STRIKES, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, STRIKERS, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES
THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY RESULTS, 1906.

[The column headed "Strikers" shows the maximum number of strikers at any time during strike.]

Result.	Strikes.	Estab- lishments affected.	Total em- ployees in estab- lishments affected.	Strikers.	Other em- ployees thrown out of work.
Succeeded.....	613	3,161	82,152	32,729	2,910
Succeeded partly.....	1,498	11,363	366,534	177,047	15,025
Failed.....	1,217	1,722	237,853	62,442	6,498
Total.....	3,328	16,246	685,539	272,218	24,433

The number of strikes that failed was 36.6 per cent of the total, while the proportion of persons participating in unsuccessful strikes was 22.9 per cent of the total number of strikers. Only 12 per cent of the strikers, representing 19.5 per cent of the establishments affected, were engaged in successful strikes.

The following table shows, by principal groups of industries, the number and results of strikes, the number of establishments and

strikers involved, and the number of other employees thrown out of work on account of strikes during the year 1906:

NUMBER AND RESULTS OF STRIKES, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, STRIKERS, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES, 1906.

[The column headed "Strikers" shows the maximum number of strikers at any time during strike.]

Industry.	Total strikes.	Strikes which—			Estab-lishments af-fected.	Strikers.	Other em-ployees thrown out of work.
		Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.			
Gardening, florist, and nursery trades.....	12		10	2	152	656	29
Fisheries.....	3	2	1		50	307	97
Mining, metallurgical, salt, etc.....	106	9	58	39	208	21,391	4,307
Quarrying, products of, stone, clay, glass, etc.....	242	51	87	104	590	13,367	1,025
Metal working.....	310	51	145	114	952	22,724	1,118
Machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc.....	206	29	83	94	576	19,046	944
Chemical products.....	33	4	16	13	41	4,123	179
Oil, fat, soap, gas, etc.....	18	2	10	6	18	546	
Textiles.....	154	22	75	57	384	29,215	5,064
Paper.....	48	13	13	22	108	7,133	133
Leather.....	88	13	43	32	244	7,911	860
Woodworking, carved materials, etc.....	436	77	193	166	1,916	21,141	519
Foods and drinks (including tobacco).....	144	25	64	55	330	7,703	257
Wearing apparel, cleaning, etc.....	133	27	74	32	1,904	10,718	126
Building trades.....	1,079	232	490	357	7,626	79,076	8,494
Printing.....	51	8	26	17	116	2,251	307
Art trades.....	5	1	3	1	24	117	
Commerce.....	164	33	70	61	549	12,756	183
Transportation.....	94	14	37	43	466	11,966	1,075
Hotels, restaurants, etc.....	1			1	1	36	
Other.....	1			1	1	15	
Total.....	3,328	613	1,498	1,217	16,246	272,218	24,433

The group of building trades had the largest number of strikes, strikers, and establishments affected—1,079, or 32.4 per cent of all the strikes, 79,076, or 29 per cent of all the strikers, and 7,626, or 46.9 per cent of all the establishments being in this industry. Of the strikes in the building trades 33.1 per cent were failures. Next in importance with regard to the number of persons involved were the groups of textiles, metal working, mining, metallurgical, salt, etc., and woodworking industries, respectively. The strikers in these five groups of industries constituted 63.8 per cent of the total.

The next two tables give statistics of strikes according to their duration and according to the number of strikers involved:

NUMBER AND RESULTS OF STRIKES, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, STRIKERS, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY DURATION, 1906.

[The column headed "Strikers" shows the maximum number of strikers at any time during strike.]

Days of duration.	Total strikes.	Strikes which—			Estab-lishments af-fected.	Strikers.	Other em-ployees thrown out of work.
		Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.			
Less than 1.....	213	59	60	94	266	9,873	401
1 to 5.....	1,132	307	416	409	2,857	68,263	11,413
6 to 10.....	463	96	219	148	1,892	28,220	3,840
11 to 20.....	475	72	241	162	4,295	45,224	2,374
21 to 30.....	303	35	156	112	1,911	28,843	2,028
31 to 50.....	304	17	159	124	1,710	31,762	534
51 to 100.....	320	19	181	120	2,529	47,972	3,328
or over.....	118	8	66	44	785	12,061	515
Total.....	3,328	613	1,498	1,217	16,246	272,218	24,433

*Note

NUMBER AND RESULTS OF STRIKES, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, STRIKERS, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY NUMBER OF STRIKERS INVOLVED, 1906.

[The column headed "Strikers" shows the maximum number of strikers at any time during strike.]

Strikers involved in each strike.	Total strikes.	Strikes which—			Establishments affected.	Strikers.	Other employees thrown out of work.
		Succeeded.	Succeeded partly.	Failed.			
2 to 5.....	108	50	54	94	217	767	127
6 to 10.....	393	101	104	188	502	3,133	109
11 to 20.....	642	135	231	276	972	9,813	583
21 to 30.....	442	103	188	151	915	11,189	1,228
31 to 50.....	494	76	235	183	1,387	19,548	2,322
51 to 100.....	555	81	300	174	2,305	39,970	2,509
101 to 200.....	331	38	215	78	2,367	46,875	4,431
201 to 500.....	205	22	124	59	3,734	63,802	6,708
501 or over.....	68	7	47	14	3,787	77,151	6,416
Total.....	3,328	613	1,498	1,217	16,246	272,218	24,433

The following table shows the results of strikes in 1906, by cause or object:

STRIKES, BY CAUSES AND RESULTS, 1906.

[Strikes due to two or more causes have been tabulated under each cause; hence totals for this table, if computed, would not agree with those for the preceding tables.]

Cause or object.	Total strikes.	Strikes which—		
		Succeeded.	Succeeded partly.	Failed.
Against reduction of wages.....	70	22	17	31
For increase of wages.....	2,343	368	1,312	663
For extra rate for overtime.....	452	43	309	100
For extra pay for secondary work.....	199	29	144	35
Other causes affecting wages.....	322	34	195	93
Against increase of hours.....	13	2	6	5
For reduction of hours.....	864	102	571	191
For abolition or limitation of overtime work.....	112	6	76	30
For reduction of hours on Saturday.....	120	11	88	21
For regular hours.....	51	5	37	9
Other causes affecting hours of labor.....	124	13	78	33
For change in method of payment.....	131	13	84	34
Against change in method of payment.....	17	5	6	6
For reinstatement of discharged employees.....	512	74	119	319
For discharge or against employment of certain persons.....	166	45	33	88
For discharge of foremen, etc.....	49	4	19	26
Against being compelled to work on holidays.....	54	5	44	5
For better sanitary conditions, etc.....	116	14	70	32
Against use of material from establishment in which strike was pending.....	30	6	11	13
For better treatment.....	55	8	27	20
For recognition of committee of employees.....	202	17	126	59
For adoption, retention, or change of wage scale.....	355	63	204	88
Other causes.....	514	79	250	185

The results of strikes for each year from 1899 to 1906 are shown in the following table, together with number of strikers and establishments affected:

NUMBER AND RESULTS OF STRIKES, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, AND STRIKERS, BY YEARS, 1899 TO 1906.

Year.	Total strikes.	Strikes which—						Estab-lishments affected.	Total em-ployees in estab-lishments affected.	Strikers.
		Succeeded.		Succeeded partly.		Failed.				
		Num-ber.	Per cent of total strikes.	Num-ber.	Per cent of total strikes.	Num-ber.	Per cent of total strikes.			
1899.....	1,268	331	25.7	429	33.3	528	41.0	7,121	256,858	99,338
1900.....	1,433	275	19.2	505	35.2	653	45.6	7,740	298,819	122,803
1901.....	1,056	200	18.9	285	27.0	571	54.1	4,561	141,220	55,262
1902.....	1,060	228	21.5	235	22.2	597	56.3	3,437	131,086	53,912
1903.....	1,374	300	21.8	444	32.3	630	45.9	7,000	198,606	85,603
1904.....	1,870	449	24.0	688	36.8	733	39.2	10,321	273,364	113,460
1905.....	2,403	528	22.0	971	40.4	904	37.6	14,481	776,984	408,145
1906.....	3,328	613	18.4	1,498	45.0	1,217	36.6	16,246	686,539	272,218

LOCKOUTS.—During 1906 there were 298 lockouts reported affecting 2,780 establishments. Of a total of 152,449 employees in the establishments affected 77,109 were locked out and 2,655 others were thrown out of employment on account of the lockouts.

The following table shows the number of lockouts, establishments affected, employees locked out, and other employees thrown out of work, by results of lockouts, in 1906:

LOCKOUTS, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY RESULTS, 1906.

[The column headed "Employees locked out" shows the maximum number of employees locked out at any time during lockout.]

Result.	Lock-outs.	Estab-lishments affected.	Total employ-ees in estab-lishments affected.	Employ-ees locked out.	Other employ-ees thrown out of work.
Succeeded.....	88	660	20,224	10,779	86
Succeeded partly.....	174	1,751	112,413	56,524	2,057
Failed.....	36	369	19,812	9,806	512
Total.....	298	2,780	152,449	77,109	2,655

Of the lockouts in 1906, 29.5 per cent were successful from the standpoint of the employers, 58.4 per cent were partly successful, and 12.1 per cent were complete failures.

The following table shows, by principal groups of industries, the number and results of lockouts, the number of establishments and persons involved in lockouts, and the number of other employees thrown out of work on account of lockouts during the year 1906:

NUMBER AND RESULTS OF LOCKOUTS, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES, 1906.

[The column headed "Employees locked out" shows the maximum number of employees locked out at any time during lockout.]

Industry.	Total lock-outs.	Lockouts which—			Estab-lish-ments af-fected.	Em-ployees locked out.	Other em-ployees thrown out of work.
		Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.			
Mining, metallurgical, salt, etc.	1	1			1	103	
Quarrying, products of stone, clay, glass, etc.	53	13	34	6	109	3,982	349
Metal working.	26	13	11	2	466	5,066	23
Machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc.	32	7	22	3	223	30,317	1,381
Chemical products.	1	1			1	346	
Oil, fat, soap, gas, etc.	2	1		1	2	119	
Textiles.	9		7	2	82	10,833	14
Paper.	1		1		24	1,023	
Leather.	6	4	2		49	473	
Woodworking, carved materials, etc.	31	11	13	7	327	3,014	25
Foods and drinks (including tobacco)	5	3		2	10	573	
Wearing apparel, cleaning, etc.	1		1		34	1,800	
Building trades.	87	27	47	13	1,165	14,909	409
Printing.	38	3	35		213	4,097	454
Commerce.	3	2	1		12	422	
Transportation.	1	1			1	19	
Hotels, restaurants, etc.	1	1			1	13	
Total.	298	88	174	36	2,780	77,109	2,655

The group of building trades had the largest number of lockouts and establishments affected, 29.2 per cent of all the lockouts and 41.9 per cent of all the establishments affected belonging to this industry. Of the lockouts in this group of trades, 31 per cent were successful, 54 per cent were partly successful, and 15 per cent were complete failures. The largest number of employees locked out is found in the group of machinery, instruments, apparatus, etc., 30,317, or 39.3 per cent of the total number of employees locked out, being engaged in these industries. Next in importance with regard to the number of persons involved are the groups of building trades and textiles. Of all the employees locked out, 72.7 per cent belonged to these three groups of industries.

The results of lockouts for each year from 1899 to 1906, together with establishments affected and employees locked out, are shown in the table following:

NUMBER AND RESULTS OF LOCKOUTS, ESTABLISHMENTS AFFECTED, AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY YEARS, 1899 TO 1906.

Year.	Total lock-outs.	Lockouts which—						Estab-lish-ments affected.	Total employ-ees in estab-lish-ments affected.	Em-ployees locked out.
		Succeeded.		Succeeded partly.		Failed.				
		Num-ber.	Per cent of total lockouts.	Num-ber.	Per cent of total lockouts.	Num-ber.	Per cent of total lockouts.			
1899	23	6	26.1	9	39.1	8	34.8	427	8,290	5,298
1900	35	13	37.1	17	48.6	5	14.3	607	22,462	9,085
1901	35	16	45.7	8	22.9	11	31.4	238	7,980	5,414
1902	46	30	65.2	7	15.2	9	19.6	948	18,705	10,305
1903	70	36	51.4	15	21.4	19	27.2	1,714	52,541	35,273
1904	129	44	36.7	33	27.5	43	35.8	1,115	36,312	23,760
1905	154	65	45.6	147	57.9	42	16.5	3,859	188,326	118,665
1906	298	88	29.5	174	58.4	36	12.1	2,780	152,449	77,109

GREAT BRITAIN.

Report on Strikes and Lockouts and on Conciliation and Arbitration Boards in the United Kingdom in 1906. 1907. 152 pp. (Published by the Labor Department of the British Board of Trade.)

This report is the nineteenth of a series of annual reports, begun in 1888, on strikes and lockouts. It presents statistics for strikes and lockouts beginning in 1906 and of trade disputes settled by conciliation or arbitration boards. Summary tables are also given, making general comparison of results in 1906 with the results of each of the four previous years, 1902 to 1905.

Figures are given showing by industries, causes, and results the number of strikes and lockouts, persons directly and indirectly involved, and days lost. A list of trade disputes (involving cessation of work) settled in 1906 by conciliation or arbitration is given, and tables are presented summarizing, by industries, the work of the permanent and district conciliation and arbitration boards.

Strikes and lockouts, in which the number of persons involved was fewer than 10 or which lasted less than one day unless the aggregate days lost exceeded 100 days, are not included in the report.

Appendixes show the method used in classifying causes of trade disputes, trade dispute statistics for each year of the period 1893 to 1906, great labor disputes 1888 to 1905, etc.

As in previous years, disputes relative to wages were the most numerous, forming 68.3 per cent of all disputes for the year and involving 55.7 per cent of all striking and locked-out employees. Of this class of disputes 28 per cent resulted in favor of employees, 34.6 per cent in favor of employers, 36.5 per cent were compromised, and in three cases, or 0.9 per cent, the results were indefinite. Of the total employees engaged in wage disputes 17.7 per cent were in disputes settled in favor of the employees, 35 per cent in those settled in favor of the employers, and 46.7 per cent in those that were compromised. Of disputes relative to hours of labor, 46.1 per cent were settled in favor of the employees, 30.8 per cent in favor of the employers, and 23.1 per cent were compromised. Of the disputes relative to trade unionism and employment of particular classes or persons, 42.3 per cent were settled in favor of employees, 40 per cent in favor of employers, 16.5 per cent were compromised, and 1.2 per cent were indefinite or unsettled; while 88.5 per cent of the employees involved were in disputes settled in favor of the employees, 5.8 per cent in those settled in favor of the employers, and 5.7 per cent in those that were compromised, indicating that the disputes in which the employees were successful were conducted by unions having a large membership. Considering all disputes, 31.5 per cent were settled in

favor of the employees, 36.8 per cent in favor of the employers, 30.9 per cent were compromised, and 0.8 per cent were indefinite or unsettled.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS IN 1906.—The number of strikes and lockouts, the number of work people affected, and the aggregate days lost were greater in 1906 than in any year since 1902. During the year there were 486 strikes and lockouts recorded, affecting 217,773 persons and entailing an aggregate loss of 3,028,816 working days. These items are considerably above the averages for the five-year period, 1901 to 1905.

The following tables show the number of strikes and lockouts, the number of strikers and persons locked out and of other persons thrown out of work by reason of strikes and lockouts in 1906, and the number of working days lost by all employees thrown out of work, classified according to principal causes and by results:

STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY CAUSES AND RESULTS, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, 1906.

[“Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work” includes the aggregate duration in 1906 of disputes which began in previous years, and excludes the duration in 1907 of disputes which began in 1906.]

Principal cause or object.	Strikes and lockouts, the results of which were—				Total strikes and lockouts.	Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.
	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.	Indefinite or unsettled.		
Wages.....	93	115	121	3	332	2,321,661
Hours of labor.....	6	4	3	13	97,209
Employment of particular classes or persons.....	15	25	12	1	53	75,891
Working arrangements, rules, and discipline.....	16	25	11	52	114,297
Trade unionism.....	21	9	2	32	416,685
Sympathetic disputes.....	1	1	2	1,014
Other causes.....	1	1	2	2,059
Total.....	153	179	150	4	486	3,028,816

STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY CAUSES AND RESULTS, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, 1906.

Principal cause or object.	Strikers and employees locked out in disputes, the results of which were—				Total strikers and employees locked out.	Other employees thrown out of work.
	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.	Indefinite or unsettled.		
Wages.....	15,532	30,808	41,055	538	87,933	49,283
Hours of labor.....	1,086	609	5,301	7,086	311
Employment of particular classes or persons.....	1,184	2,428	1,112	10	4,734	5,580
Working arrangements, rules, and discipline.....	1,404	3,150	1,973	6,526	2,708
Trade unionism.....	47,913	773	2,064	50,750	2,019
Sympathetic disputes.....	10	23	33
Other causes.....	30	770	800
Total.....	67,159	38,547	51,618	548	157,872	59,101

Of all employees directly affected by labor disputes 42.5 per cent were involved in disputes settled in favor of the employees 94.4 per

cent in those settled in favor of the employers, 32.7 per cent in those that were compromised, and 0.4 per cent in those the results of which were indefinite or unsettled.

The following table shows the number of strikes and lockouts, employees thrown out of work, and working days lost, according to classified groups of employees thrown out of work:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, BY CLASSIFIED NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, 1906.

[“Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work” refers exclusively to disputes which began in 1906, and includes working days lost in 1907 due to disputes which extended beyond 1906.]

Groups of employees thrown out of work.	Strikes and lockouts.	Employees thrown out of work.		Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.	
		Number.	Percent.	Number.	Percent.
5,000 or over.....	9	101,685	46.7	1,456,760	51.4
2,500 or under 5,000.....	4	13,900	6.4	39,880	1.4
1,000 or under 2,500.....	26	36,268	16.7	348,618	12.3
500 or under 1,000.....	31	21,326	9.8	217,502	7.7
250 or under 500.....	57	18,743	8.6	326,630	11.5
100 or under 250.....	102	15,978	7.3	239,393	8.4
50 or under 100.....	82	5,704	2.6	130,318	4.6
25 or under 50.....	72	2,538	1.2	45,335	1.6
Under 25 (a).....	103	1,631	.7	29,706	1.1
Total.....	496	217,773	100.0	2,834,142	100.0

* Disputes involving fewer than 10 work people and those which lasted less than one day have been omitted, except when the aggregate duration exceeded 400 working days.

In 1906 there were 9 disputes in each of which the number of employees involved exceeded 5,000; in 1905 there was no dispute of such magnitude. The disputes affecting more than 1,000 persons in 1906 were but 8 per cent of the total number of disputes, while these disputes affected 69.8 per cent of all employees thrown out of work.

In the following table are given the number of strikes and lockouts, employees thrown out of work, and working days lost, classified according to duration of the disputes:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, BY DURATION, 1906.

[“Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work” refers exclusively to disputes which began in 1906, and includes working days lost in 1907 due to disputes which extended beyond 1906.]

Duration of strikes or lockouts.	Number of disputes.	Employees thrown out of work.	Aggregate working days lost by all employees.
Under 1 week.....	206	73,256	163,041
1 week or under 2 weeks.....	97	43,406	316,111
2 weeks or under 4 weeks.....	61	61,307	583,362
4 weeks or under 6 weeks.....	37	5,432	140,353
6 weeks or under 8 weeks.....	19	18,406	711,707
8 weeks or under 10 weeks.....	16	10,368	400,764
10 weeks or under 15 weeks.....	26	2,368	130,624
15 weeks or under 20 weeks.....	5	327	22,715
20 weeks or under 25 weeks.....	7	622	48,088
25 weeks or over.....	12	2,281	316,347
Total.....	486	217,773	2,834,142

The number of strikes and lockouts which lasted less than two weeks formed 62.3 per cent of all disputes, and the number of persons thrown out of work in these groups formed 53.6 per cent of all persons thrown out of work by strikes and lockouts. There were but 12 disputes, or 2.5 per cent of all disputes, which had a duration of twenty-five weeks or more. While the number of employees involved in disputes in this group formed but 1 per cent of all employees affected by strikes and lockouts, yet the aggregate days lost by strikers and locked-out employees was 11.2 per cent of the aggregate working days lost by all employees engaged in the disputes of the year.

The following tables, in which the disputes are classified by results, show the number of disputes and of persons affected, and the number of working days lost in each group of industries:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, BY RESULTS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, FOR EACH GROUP OF INDUSTRIES, 1906.

[* Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work " includes the aggregate duration in 1906 of disputes which began in previous years, and excludes the duration in 1907 of disputes which began in 1906.]

Industry.	Strikes and lockouts the result of which were—				Total strikes and lockouts.	Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.
	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Com-promised.	Indefinite or unsettled.		
Building trades.....	8	9	2	19	56,291
Mining and quarrying.....	42	21	33	96	922,102
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding.....	32	55	35	3	125	1,118,282
Textile trades.....	31	43	49	1	124	762,999
Clothing trades.....	17	12	13	42	92,139
Transportation.....	5	12	2	19	10,021
Miscellaneous trades.....	18	26	14	58	62,184
Employees of public authorities.....	1	2	3	4,888
Total.....	153	179	150	4	486	3,028,816

STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY RESULTS, AND OTHER EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, FOR EACH GROUP OF INDUSTRIES, 1906.

Industry.	Strikers and employees locked out in disputes, the results of which were—				Total strikers and employees locked out.	Other employees thrown out of work.
	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Com-promised.	Indefinite or unsettled.		
Building trades.....	561	732	89	1,382	59
Mining and quarrying.....	52,927	3,690	7,439	64,056	19,777
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding.....	2,926	14,159	6,156	148	23,389	18,660
Textile trades.....	9,209	15,919	31,361	400	56,889	18,225
Clothing trades.....	731	1,040	5,373	7,144	1,768
Transportation.....	135	1,331	100	1,566	322
Miscellaneous trades.....	670	1,464	1,068	3,202	1,070
Employees of public authorities.....	212	32	244	2*
Total.....	67,150	38,547	51,618	548	157,872	59,901

The number of disputes, persons directly affected, persons indirectly affected, and aggregate working days lost in the mining and quarry-

ing, metal, engineering, and shipbuilding, and textile groups of industries exceeded similar items in every other industrial group. Of the total, there were 153 disputes, involving 67,159 work people, which resulted in favor of employees; 179 disputes, involving 38,547 work people, which resulted in favor of employers, and 150 disputes, involving 51,618 work people, which were compromised. The remaining disputes were indefinite or unsettled as to results.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS DURING FIVE YEARS.—During the five-year period, 1902 to 1906, there was a yearly average of 406 disputes affecting an average of 154,410 employees yearly, and entailing an average yearly loss of 2,560,230 working days.

The following table shows the number of strikes and lockouts, employees thrown out of work, and working days lost in each year of the period named:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, BY YEARS, 1902 TO 1906.

[“Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work” includes the aggregate duration in each year of disputes which began in previous years and extended beyond the year in which they began, and excludes the duration in 1907 of disputes which began in 1906.]

Year.	Strikes and lockouts.	Strikers and employees locked out.	Other employees thrown out of work.	Total employees thrown out of work.	Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.
1902.....	442	116,824	139,843	256,667	3,479,255
1903.....	387	93,315	23,386	116,901	2,338,608
1904.....	355	56,389	30,828	87,208	1,484,220
1905.....	358	67,653	25,850	93,503	2,470,189
1906.....	486	137,872	59,901	217,773	3,028,816

The number of strikes and lockouts, and employees thrown out of work in each year from 1902 to 1906, are shown in the following table, by industries:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS AND EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES AND YEARS, 1902 TO 1906.

Industry.	Strikes and lockouts.					Employees thrown out of work.				
	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Building trades.....	39	44	37	31	19	5,356	3,663	8,697	6,637	1,441
Mining and quarrying.....	168	125	113	106	96	208,526	63,578	46,287	44,791	83,833
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding.....	71	87	75	70	125	15,914	32,380	12,130	12,753	42,049
Textile trades.....	82	55	32	67	124	16,706	9,458	13,048	15,786	75,114
Clothing trades.....	23	25	26	29	42	2,790	2,476	1,448	3,540	8,912
Transportation.....	14	15	10	11	19	1,590	2,172	1,759	2,112	1,888
Miscellaneous trades.....	41	32	41	39	58	3,679	2,463	3,794	7,159	4,272
Employees of public authorities.....	4	4	1	5	3	2,106	711	45	725	264
Total.....	442	387	355	358	486	256,667	116,901	87,208	93,503	217,773

The following table shows, by groups of industries, the aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work for each year of the period 1902 to 1906:

AGGREGATE DURATION IN WORKING DAYS OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, BY INDUSTRIES AND YEARS, 1902 TO 1906.

["Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work" includes the aggregate duration in each year of disputes which began in previous years and extended beyond the year in which they began, and excludes the duration in 1907 of disputes which began in 1906.]

Industry.	Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.				
	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Building trades	115,890	114,371	345,513	412,633	56,201
Mining and quarrying	2,560,047	1,397,896	657,285	1,255,514	922,102
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding	420,362	481,016	185,429	467,571	1,118,282
Textile trades	238,389	117,038	121,554	126,483	762,999
Clothing trades	54,044	136,182	13,292	71,435	92,139
Transportation	10,027	26,779	42,343	67,089	10,021
Miscellaneous trades	84,133	64,892	118,804	64,290	62,184
Employees of public authorities	6,402	492	90	5,174	4,888
Total	3,479,255	2,338,668	1,484,220	2,470,189	3,028,816

There were more strikes and lockouts during 1906 than during any other year of the five-year period, and more employees thrown out of work and more working days lost by employees except during the first year of the five-year period. During the four years 1902 to 1905 the greatest number of disputes arose in the mining and quarrying industry, but in 1906 this industry ranks third as to number of disputes, the greatest number (125) during the year being in the metal, engineering, and shipbuilding group of trades, followed by 124 in the textile trades. On the other hand, mining and quarrying shows during 1906 the largest number of employees thrown out of work and ranks second as to aggregate working days lost by employees. The building trades during 1906, as compared with each of the four preceding years of the period, show a material falling off in number of disputes, employees thrown out of work, and aggregate working days lost by employees.

The number of strikes and lockouts and the number of strikers and employees locked out for each year of the period 1902 to 1906 are shown in the next table, by principal causes:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS AND STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY PRINCIPAL CAUSES AND YEARS, 1902 TO 1906.

Principal cause or object.	Strikes and lockouts.					Strikers and employees locked out.				
	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Wages	267	232	233	235	332	56,733	49,557	32,783	38,737	87,933
Hours of labor	20	17	13	14	13	3,044	4,108	1,970	3,145	7,086
Employment of particular classes or persons	58	54	46	47	53	11,436	7,822	6,081	6,408	4,734
Working arrangements, rules, and discipline	64	56	47	37	52	19,849	13,609	7,001	5,546	6,536
Trade unionism	29	25	15	21	32	25,489	17,602	7,925	9,377	50,750
Sympathetic disputes	1		1	2	2	14		20	243	33
Other causes	3	3		2	2	259	817		4,197	800
Total	442	387	355	358	486	116,824	93,515	56,380	67,653	157,872

While the number of disputes relative to wages remained comparatively the same during the years 1903 to 1905, there was a material increase during 1906 as compared with each of the preceding years of the five-year period. The number of strikers and employees locked out also shows a large increase during 1906 over preceding years. The number of disputes relative to hours of labor follows closely that for each of the three preceding years, while the number of employees involved shows a large increase over each of the four preceding years of the period. Disputes in 1906 on account of trade unionism numbered 32, as compared with 29, the greatest number during any preceding year of the period, while the number of employees involved was 50,750, as compared with 25,489, the greatest number reported during any preceding year of the five-year period. Disputes arising from the remaining named causes show for 1906 a record not strikingly different from that of the four preceding years.

The following table shows, by results, the number of strikes and lockouts and employees directly affected during each year, 1902 to 1906:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS AND STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY RESULTS AND YEARS, 1902 TO 1906.

[The figures for years previous to 1906 have been revised to include the results of disputes terminated after the reports of those years were published.]

Result.	Strikes and lockouts.					Strikers and employees locked out.				
	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
In favor of employees.....	108	90	62	70	153	37,187	29,167	15,413	16,702	67,159
In favor of employers.....	206	185	180	168	179	37,187	44,956	23,500	23,029	38,547
Compromised.....	125	111	112	119	150	42,141	19,370	17,441	27,894	51,618
Indefinite or unsettled.....	3	1	1	1	4	309	22	26	28	548
Total.....	442	387	355	358	486	116,824	93,515	56,380	67,653	157,872

This table shows that for each year during the five-year period the number of disputes resulting in favor of the employees was less than the number in which the employers were successful. The number compromised (except in 1906) also exceeds the number which were settled in favor of the employees, but is less in each year than the number settled in favor of the employers. The total number of disputes during the five-year period was 2,028, of which 483, or 23.8 per cent, were settled in favor of the employees; 916, or 45.2 per cent, in favor of the employers; 616, or 30.4 per cent, were compromised, and 13, or 0.6 per cent, were indefinite or unsettled. In 1906, of the 486 disputes, 31.5 per cent were favorable to the employees and 36.8 per cent to the employers, 30.9 per cent were compromised, and 0.8 per cent were indefinite or unsettled at the end of the year.

During the five-year period there were in the aggregate 492,244 employees directly affected by strikes and lockouts. Of this number, 628 employees, or 33.6 per cent of all employees directly affected,

were involved in disputes in which employees were successful; 167,219, or 34 per cent, in disputes in which the employers were successful; 158,464, or 32.2 per cent, in disputes which were compromised, and 933, or 0.2 per cent, in those of which the settlement was indefinite, or which were unsettled. The corresponding percentages for 1906 were 42.5, 24.4, 32.7, and 0.4, respectively.

In the following table the number of strikes and lockouts, and the number of strikers and employees locked out, are shown by methods of settlement for each year of the period 1902 to 1906:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS AND STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY METHOD OF SETTLEMENT AND YEARS, 1902 TO 1906.

[The figures for the years previous to 1906 have been revised to include the results of disputes terminated after the reports for these years were published.]

Method of settlement.	Strikes and lockouts.					Strikers and employees locked out.				
	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.	1902.	1903.	1904.	1905.	1906.
Arbitration.....	16	18	15	9	16	2,418	18,047	1,832	2,224	4,391
Conciliation.....	13	8	12	22	23	2,641	1,401	3,179	8,752	3,494
Direct arrangement or negotiation between parties or their representatives.....	319	270	227	220	340	98,270	64,459	43,589	48,155	129,614
Submission of employees.....	40	36	27	47	39	9,310	6,989	4,495	5,550	17,293
Replacement of employees.....	50	50	67	53	59	3,928	2,378	2,587	2,126	2,377
Closing of works.....	3	5	6	3	3	228	241	672	714	128
Indefinite or unsettled.....	1	1	4	6	29	26	132	575
Total.....	442	387	355	358	486	116,824	93,515	56,380	67,653	157,872

In each year most of the disputes were settled by direct arrangement or negotiation, the percentage of disputes settled by this method being 72.2, 69.8, 63.9, 61.5, and 70.0 per cent of all disputes for the respective years 1902 to 1906. The number of disputes settled by submission of employees and by replacement of employees in 1906 compares closely with the averages for the preceding four years. In only three instances was there a closing of works. Disputes settled by submission of employees, replacement of employees, and closing of works together formed 21.0, 23.5, 28.2, 28.8, and 20.8 per cent of all disputes for the respective years. Only 39 disputes, involving 5.0 per cent of all persons directly affected, were settled by arbitration and conciliation during 1906. The number of disputes so settled, however, is greater than the average for the preceding four years, which is but 28.

RUSSIA.

Statisticheskyyâ svedeniâ o Stachkakh Rabochykh na Fabrikakh i Zavodakh za desâtilietie 1895-1904 goda (Statistical data relating to strikes of workingmen in factories and mills for the decade 1895-1904). Published by Ministerstvo Torgovli i Promyshlennosti, Otdiel Promyshlennosti (Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Bureau of Industry). 1905. 79 pp.+38 pp.

This is the first official report on strikes in Russia. The report, which covers only European Russia, embraces the decade 1895-1904.

and includes only those factories and mills which are subject to factory inspection and to the supervision of the Ministry of Finance. The smaller industrial establishments, having fewer than 10 and in some cases 15 employees, are excluded, as are mines and metallurgical establishments, which are subject to the Ministry of Agriculture and State Domains, all state factories and mills, and all industrial establishments under the jurisdiction of the Ministries of War, of the Navy, and of Ways of Communication. While accurate data for all the years are lacking, it is stated that during the period about one-half of the industrial establishments and about seven-tenths of the workingmen employed were subject to the factory-inspection laws. For the entire decade the number of industrial establishments inspected is estimated at 18,000 and the number of workingmen employed in them at 1,600,000. Throughout the report, by "number of strikes" is meant the number of establishments in which strikes have taken place. All the labor disputes included are termed "strikes." in the report, and it is explained that "lockouts" are practically unknown in Russia, on account of peculiar local conditions of employment, requiring a two weeks' notice of discharge, and also on account of the absence of employers' associations. Discharges of large bodies of employees are sometimes resorted to after a strike is declared, and the nearest approach to "lockouts" might be found in strikes brought on by aggressive actions of employers.

The report contains 79 pages of text with summary tables and 15 tables giving, for the years 1895 to 1904, the following information: (1) Strikes and strikers by geographical distribution, for each year; (2) strikes and strikers by months, for each year; (3) proportion of strikers to total number of factory workers for the period; (4) number of establishments having more than one strike, by geographical distribution, for the period; (5) group strikes (i. e., embracing more than one establishment), by years, geographical distribution, and groups of industries; (6) strikes and strikers, by years and groups of industries; (7) strikes and strikers, by months and groups of industries, for the period; (8) strikes and strikers, by industries, for the period; (9) duration of strikes and number of workdays lost, by years and groups of industries; (10) strikes, by main and subsidiary causes and by years; (11) strikes and strikers, by causes and years; (12) strikes and strikers, by causes and groups of industries, for the period; (13) causes of strikes, due to action of employers; (14) strikes, by causes and results, for the period; (15) strikes in which extraordinary means were taken, by years.

The total number of strikes during the ten years was 1,765, in which 431,254 strikers were engaged. This gives an annual average

of 176.5 strikes, or 0.98 per cent of all establishments, and 43,125 strikers, or 2.7 per cent of all workmen employed in all establishments. By individual years the strikes, strikers, and days of work lost were distributed as follows:

STRIKES, STRIKERS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, BY YEARS, 1895 TO 1904.

Year.	Strikes.	Strikers.	Total employees in establishments affected.	Per cent of strikers of total employees in establishments affected.	Working days lost.		
					Total.	Average number per—	
						Strike.	Striker.
1895.....	68	31,195	60,587	51.49	156,843	2,307	5.0
1896.....	118	29,527	47,979	61.54	180,213	1,604	6.4
1897.....	145	59,870	111,725	53.59	321,349	2,216	5.4
1898.....	215	43,150	93,596	46.10	158,898	739	3.7
1899.....	189	57,498	112,296	51.20	264,856	1,401	4.6
1900.....	125	29,389	77,382	37.98	119,525	956	4.1
1901.....	164	32,218	62,735	51.36	110,193	672	3.4
1902.....	123	36,671	64,196	52.12	128,200	1,042	3.5
1903.....	550	86,832	138,877	62.52	444,919	809	5.1
1904.....	68	24,904	51,642	48.22	185,412	2,727	7.4
Total.....	1,765	431,254	821,015	52.53	2,079,408	1,178	4.8

There seem to have been two well-defined waves in the strike movement, the first in the period 1897–1899, and the second in 1903.

The distribution of the strikes and strikers, by months, shows a concentration of the strike movement within the four months of April, May, June, and July, which, during the 10-year period, claimed 1,100 strikes out of 1,765, or 62.3 per cent, and 227,037 strikers out of 431,254, or 52.7 per cent. The following table shows the aggregate number of strikes and strikers and the average number of strikers per strike during the period, 1895 to 1904, by months:

NUMBER OF STRIKES AND STRIKERS, AND AVERAGE STRIKERS PER STRIKE, BY MONTHS, FOR THE PERIOD, 1895 TO 1904.

Month.	Strikes.		Strikers.		Average number of strikers per strike.
	Number.	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.	
January.....	162	5.8	43,192	10.0	423
February.....	54	3.0	24,609	5.7	456
March.....	62	3.5	27,801	6.4	448
April.....	168	9.5	28,243	6.6	168
May.....	197	11.2	85,096	19.7	432
June.....	259	14.6	39,696	9.2	153
July.....	476	27.0	74,002	17.2	155
August.....	107	6.1	23,269	5.4	217
September.....	125	7.2	21,587	5.0	173
October.....	91	5.1	19,710	4.6	217
November.....	66	3.7	16,529	3.8	250
December.....	58	3.3	27,520	6.4	474
Total.....	1,765	100.0	431,254	100.0	244

The next table shows the distribution of strikes and strikers during the period, by industry groups:

STRIKES, STRIKERS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, BY INDUSTRIES, 1895 TO 1904.

Industry.	Strikes.		Strikers.		Working days lost.	
	Number.	Per cent of total.	Number.	Per cent of total.	Total.	Average per striker.
Cotton.....	253	14.4	185,101	42.9	945,696	5.1
Wool.....	225	12.8	20,169	4.7	155,843	7.7
Silk.....	6	.3	1,649	.4	7,273	4.4
Flax, hemp, and jute.....	64	3.6	19,157	4.4	62,549	3.3
Other textiles.....	44	2.5	10,736	2.5	51,688	4.8
Paper and printing.....	136	7.7	9,154	2.1	33,878	3.7
Woodworking.....	89	5.1	7,049	1.6	24,860	3.5
Metal working.....	336	19.0	116,973	27.1	541,960	4.6
Stone, earthen, glass, and china ware.....	129	7.3	15,791	3.7	60,581	3.8
Animal products.....	186	10.5	10,751	2.5	79,834	7.4
Food products.....	177	10.0	23,479	5.5	71,046	3.1
Chemical products.....	120	6.8	11,254	2.6	43,610	3.9
Total.....	1,765	100.0	431,254	100.0	2,079,408	4.8

The table shows that strikes were most frequent in the textile industry and in metal working (mainly the iron and steel industry), the first group comprising 592 strikes, or 33.6 per cent, and 236,812 employees, or 54.9 per cent, and the second group 336 strikes or 19 per cent, and 116,973 employees, or 27.1 per cent.

The following table shows the number of strikes and strikers, for each year of the period, by industry groups:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY INDUSTRIES AND YEARS, 1895 TO 1904.

STRIKES.

Year.	Cotton.	Wool.	Silk.	Flax and hemp	Other textiles.	Paper and printing.	Woodworking.	Metal working.	Stone-ware, etc.	Animal products.	Food products.	Chemical products.	Total.
1895.....	15	24		1	2		1	8	7	4	3	3	68
1896.....	32	37		4	5	1	2	8	8	16	3	2	118
1897.....	67	3	2	3	6	3	3	15	7	28	7	1	145
1898.....	38	105		2	2	5	6	21	17	4	11	4	215
1899.....	19	16	1	12	12	2	13	69	14	12	14	5	189
1900.....	17	10		12	1	2	4	17	16	18	27	1	125
1901.....	26	6	1	7	6	2	4	26	27	37	17	5	164
1902.....	17	4	1	2	1	7	12	36	10	6	23	4	123
1903.....	18	11	1	10	8	110	38	119	17	60	67	91	550
1904.....	4	9		11	1	4	6	17	6	1	5	4	68
Total.....	253	225	6	64	44	136	89	336	129	186	177	120	1,765

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY INDUSTRIES AND YEARS, 1895 TO 1904—Concluded.

STRIKERS.

Year.	Cotton.	Wool.	Silk.	Flax and hemp.	Other textiles.	Paper and printing.	Wood-working.
1895.....	18,283	7,387	450	230	24
1896.....	21,628	543	472	2,592	10	200
1897.....	46,089	54	293	1,099	2,626	826	120
1898.....	24,642	3,519	955	165	712	464
1899.....	15,474	4,403	400	4,044	2,543	125	2,151
1900.....	13,038	1,252	1,975	60	24	452
1901.....	7,341	567	110	2,463	200	28	453
1902.....	15,100	380	500	184	62	243	902
1903.....	18,810	697	346	5,471	2,199	7,137	1,878
1904.....	3,696	1,367	2,044	9	49	396
Total.....	185,101	20,169	1,649	19,157	10,736	9,154	7,040

Year.	Metal working.	Stone-ware, etc.	Animal products.	Food products.	Chemical products.	Total.
1895.....	2,201	653	161	1,450	356	31,195
1896.....	2,359	719	553	306	145	29,527
1897.....	3,157	826	291	3,389	100	59,870
1898.....	7,116	1,714	271	3,482	110	43,150
1899.....	19,603	2,230	1,487	1,409	3,629	57,498
1900.....	9,045	1,498	265	1,723	67	29,389
1901.....	15,527	1,367	1,497	1,456	1,149	32,218
1902.....	12,663	3,240	286	2,042	1,069	36,671
1903.....	30,935	2,437	5,904	6,719	4,299	86,832
1904.....	14,367	1,107	36	1,503	330	24,904
Total.....	116,973	15,791	10,751	23,479	11,254	431,254

It appears that for the first half of the decade covered by the report the strikes were mainly in the textile industries. In 1899 the metal industry, and in 1903 both this and the printing industries were those most severely affected.

In the next table the number and per cent of strikes and strikers and the working days lost during the period are shown, by causes:

STRIKES, STRIKERS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, BY CAUSES, 1895 TO 1904.

Cause or object.	Strikes.		Strikers.			Working days lost.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Average per strike.	Total.	Average per striker.
For increase of wages.....	754	42.7	98,767	22.9	131	494,814	5.0
Against reduction of wages.....	128	7.3	61,271	14.2	479	283,880	4.6
Methods of wage payment.....	189	10.7	48,523	11.3	257	206,261	4.3
For reduction of hours.....	284	16.1	81,009	18.8	285	422,740	5.2
Against increase of hours.....	41	2.3	22,460	5.2	548	166,862	7.4
Arrangement of working hours.....	60	3.4	25,889	6.0	431	47,018	1.8
Against imposition of fines.....	26	1.5	14,727	3.4	566	101,372	6.9
Dissatisfaction with foremen, superintendents, etc.....	77	4.3	40,977	9.5	532	188,060	4.6
Dissatisfaction with quarters and board.....	28	1.6	2,928	.6	105	3,856	1.3
Miscellaneous and sympathetic.....	178	10.1	34,703	8.1	195	164,545	4.7
Total.....	1,765	100.0	431,254	100.0	244	2,079,408	4.8

Questions of wages and pay caused 60.7 per cent of all the strikes, and 48.4 per cent of all striking employees, while questions of hours

of work caused 21.8 per cent of all strikes with 30 per cent of all strikers.

Demands for higher wages and shorter hours, i. e., demands for betterment of the conditions of the labor contract, were responsible for almost three-fifths (58.8 per cent) of the strikes, and over two-fifths (41.7 per cent) of the number of strikers. But an interesting feature is that the largest strikes, as indicated by the largest average number of strikers, were caused by grievances rather than demands, namely, by fines, resistance to lengthening of hours, dissatisfaction with superintendence, or to reduction of wages, so that while for all strikes the average number of days lost per striker was 4.8, in cases of strikes caused by fines, it was 6.9, and in cases of resistance to longer hours, 7.4.

The following table shows the number of strikes and strikers, respectively, for each year of the period, classified according to the causes of the strikes:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY CAUSES AND YEARS, 1895 TO 1904.

STRIKES.

Year.	For increase of wages.	Against reduction of wages.	Methods of wage payment.	For reduction of hours.	Against increase of hours.	Arrangement of working hours.	Against imposition of fines.	Dissatisfaction with foremen, superintendents, etc.	Dissatisfaction with quarters and board.	Miscellaneous and sympathetic.	Total.
1895.....	21	21	11	4	2	4	4	1	68
1896.....	50	6	19	23	2	2	3	5	3	5	118
1897.....	31	12	28	42	17	7	2	3	1	2	145
1898.....	120	19	13	10	4	21	3	11	8	6	215
1899.....	107	12	13	32	4	1	6	3	11	189
1900.....	39	14	23	34	4	2	2	4	3	10	125
1901.....	59	11	25	46	2	5	1	7	3	5	164
1902.....	35	14	19	14	3	6	3	16	2	11	123
1903.....	276	7	26	77	9	9	4	15	1	126	550
1904.....	26	12	12	2	2	3	6	3	2	68
Total..	754	128	189	284	41	60	26	77	28	175	1,705

STRIKERS.

1895.....	5,564	15,523	2,289	881	140	1,327	5,437	34	31,195
1896.....	1,662	3,741	8,587	17,561	306	1,196	205	837	193	239	29,527
1897.....	6,195	7,926	13,382	12,374	13,639	2,595	730	2,270	42	517	59,870
1898.....	6,941	5,703	3,786	3,452	960	13,221	683	5,717	1,177	1,569	43,150
1899.....	27,068	6,228	7,263	9,002	823	76	3,662	313	3,123	57,498
1900.....	5,563	5,556	4,084	2,188	6,564	548	95	380	232	4,179	29,280
1901.....	4,599	1,853	2,202	14,081	250	1,602	27	6,954	130	529	32,218
1902.....	4,939	7,990	3,465	3,211	365	3,550	1,810	6,246	53	5,642	36,671
1903.....	29,808	5,960	5,903	15,664	376	666	1,138	7,619	676	19,622	86,832
1904.....	6,428	791	2,622	2,395	1,548	8,686	1,855	78	501	24,904
Total..	98,767	61,271	48,523	81,009	22,460	25,889	14,727	40,977	2,928	34,703	431,254

In Russia the duration of strikes is usually brief. It has been shown that the average number of days lost per striker was 4.8. One-half of all the strikes (48.5 per cent) lasted three days

or less, and over five-sixths (84.6) not more than ten days. This is shown in the following table:

STRIKES, BY DURATION AND YEARS, 1895 TO 1904.

Year.	Less than $\frac{1}{2}$ day.	$\frac{1}{2}$ day to 2 days.	2 to 3 days.	3 to 5 days.	5 to 10 days.	10 to 15 days.	15 to 20 days.	20 to 30 days.	30 or more days.	Un-known	No loss of time.	Total.
1895.....	8	23	9	6	13	2	1	6	68
1896.....	8	31	4	11	52	9	1	1	1	118
1897.....	10	48	15	21	21	10	2	16	1	1	145
1898.....	15	72	12	10	8	98	215
1899.....	16	55	23	22	58	10	3	1	1	189
1900.....	6	31	43	14	11	5	1	12	2	125
1901.....	20	43	20	13	24	16	24	1	2	1	164
1902.....	17	47	19	15	10	10	2	1	1	1	123
1903.....	27	107	89	204	100	4	14	2	1	1	1	550
1904.....	10	16	12	15	10	1	2	1	1	68
Total No.	137	473	246	331	307	67	45	14	131	7	7	1,765
Per cent.	7.8	26.8	13.9	18.8	17.3	3.8	2.6	0.8	7.4	0.4	0.4	100.0

The number of strikes, strikers, and working days lost for the period are shown, by results, in the following table:

STRIKES, STRIKERS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, BY RESULTS, 1895 TO 1904.

Strikes which—	Strikes.		Strikers.			Working days lost.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Average number per establishment.	Total.	Average per striker.
Succeeded.....	408	28.2	116,629	27.1	234	447,456	3.8
Succeeded partly.....	384	21.8	84,069	19.5	219	437,170	5.2
Failed.....	802	45.4	222,679	51.6	278	1,148,761	5.2
Result unknown.....	81	4.6	7,877	1.8	97	46,021	5.8
Total.....	1,765	100.0	431,254	100.0	244	2,079,408	4.8

A little over one-fourth of the strikes resulted favorably to the employees, about one-fifth in compromises, and about one-half in favor of the employers. In case of the other strikes the results were not reported.

The table following shows the results of strikes, for strikes and strikers, for each year from 1895 to 1904:

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY RESULTS AND YEARS, 1895 TO 1904.

Year.	Strikes which—						Strikes the results of which were unknown.		Total strikes.
	Succeeded.		Succeeded partly.		Failed.		Number.	Per cent.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.			
1895.....	37	54.41	19	27.94	12	17.65	68
1896.....	26	22.03	8	6.78	77	65.26	7	5.93	118
1897.....	44	30.35	15	10.34	84	57.95	2	1.38	145
1898.....	49	22.79	113	52.56	52	24.19	1	.46	215
1899.....	31	16.40	27	14.29	131	69.31	189
1900.....	31	24.80	36	28.80	56	44.80	2	1.60	125
1901.....	67	40.85	33	20.12	64	39.03	164
1902.....	37	30.08	16	13.01	69	56.10	1	.81	123
1903.....	148	26.91	109	19.82	225	40.91	68	12.36	550
1904.....	28	41.18	5	47.06	68
Total.....	408	28.21	44	81	4.59	1,765

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY RESULTS AND YEARS, 1895 TO 1904—Concluded.

Year.	Strikers in strikes which—						Strikers in strikes the results of which were unknown.		Total strikers.
	Succeeded.		Succeeded partly.		Failed.		Number.	Per cent.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.			
1895.....	12,497	40.06	13,560	43.47	5,138	16.47			31,195
1896.....	4,995	16.92	1,392	4.71	23,094	78.21	46	0.16	29,527
1897.....	22,529	37.63	12,911	21.57	24,415	40.78	15	.02	59,870
1898.....	12,175	28.22	8,992	20.84	21,839	50.61	144	.33	43,150
1899.....	11,563	20.11	12,128	21.09	33,807	58.80			57,498
1900.....	5,873	19.99	10,613	36.11	11,603	39.48	1,300	4.42	29,389
1901.....	11,981	37.19	2,660	8.25	17,577	54.56			32,218
1902.....	6,550	17.86	5,025	13.71	25,060	68.34	35	.09	36,671
1903.....	25,086	28.89	14,807	17.05	40,602	46.76	6,337	7.30	86,832
1904.....	3,380	13.57	1,980	7.95	19,544	78.48			24,904
Total.....	116,629	27.04	84,069	19.49	222,679	51.64	7,877	1.83	431,254

In the following table the number and per cent of strikes which succeeded, succeeded partly, and failed are shown for the period, by causes:

STRIKES, BY CAUSES AND RESULTS, 1895 TO 1904.

Cause or object.	Strikes which—						Strikes the results of which were unknown.		Total strikes.
	Succeeded.		Succeeded partly.		Failed.		Number.	Per cent.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.			
For increase of wages.....	137	18.2	237	31.4	302	40.1	78	10.3	754
Against reduction of wages..	60	46.9	30	23.4	38	29.7			128
Methods of wage payment..	116	61.4	23	12.2	50	26.4			189
Total.....	313	29.2	290	27.1	390	36.4	78	7.3	1,071
For reduction of hours.....	69	24.3	65	22.9	150	52.8			284
Against increase of hours...	26	63.4	5	12.2	10	24.4			41
Arrangement of working hours.....	27	45.0	6	10.0	27	45.0			60
Total.....	122	31.7	76	19.7	187	48.0			385
Against imposition of fines..	6	23.1	2	7.7	18	69.2			26
Dissatisfaction with foremen superintendents etc.	21	27.3	11	14.3	45	58.4			77
Dissatisfaction with quarters and board.....	18	64.3	1	3.6	8	28.5	1	3.6	28
Total.....	45	34.3	14	10.7	71	54.2	1	.8	131
Miscellaneous and sympathetic.....	18	10.1	4	2.3	154	86.5	2	1.1	178
Grand total.....	498	28.2	384	21.8	802	45.4	81	4.6	1,705

Combining the strikes that succeeded with those that succeeded partly, it appears that strikes in resistance to lower wages and longer hours resulted more favorably to employees than those for higher wages and shorter hours.

The report also contains data as to disputes, accompanied by extraordinary measures and occurrences. Since the Russian factory law of 1886 requires two weeks' notice by either party for a dissolution of

the contract of employment, most strikes lasting fewer than fourteen days do not constitute a dissolution of a labor contract, and hence do not result in dismissal of the strikers. Dismissals of part of the employees occurred in 190 cases and dismissals of all the workers in 137 cases. Arrests and deportations of strikers to their homes (the legal residence of factory workers being usually some village) took place in 269 cases, destruction of property took place in 71 cases, and the military forces were called out in 340 cases. Both destruction of property and use of the military forces occurred frequently during the strikes of 1903. The conflicts were most numerous in the metal industry and in the oil industry of the Caucasus.

The following table shows the number of strikes that were accompanied by extraordinary measures and occurrences:

STRIKES, ACCOMPANIED BY EXTRAORDINARY MEASURES AND OCCURRENCES, BY YEARS, 1895 TO 1904.

Year.	Strikes resulting in—		Strikes accompanied by—		
	Dismissal of part of the employees.	Dismissal of all of the employees.	Arrests or deportations to workmen's homes.	Use of the military.	Destruction of property
1895.....	12	2	10	4	4
1896.....	39	3	24	2	7
1897.....	22	12	34	20	4
1898.....	20	11	19	8	4
1899.....	15	12	87	30	3
1900.....	17	10	12	8	1
1901.....	13	12	27	31	14
1902.....	20	11	22	23	2
1903.....	29	53	19	211	32
1904.....	3	11	15	3
Total.....	190	137	209	340	71

DECISIONS OF COURTS AFFECTING LABOR.

[Except in cases of special interest, the decisions here presented are restricted to those rendered by the Federal courts and the higher courts of the States and Territories. Only material portions of such decisions are reproduced, introductory and explanatory matter being given in the words of the editor. Decisions under statute law are indexed under the proper headings in the cumulative index, page 1037 et seq.]

DECISIONS UNDER STATUTE LAW.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—SUPERINTENDENT ACTING AS LABORER—CONTINUING DUTY—PARENTS' RIGHT TO SUE FOR LOSS OF MINOR'S SERVICES—*Jordan v. New England Structural Company, Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts, 83 Northeastern Reporter, page 332.*—There were two cases under this title before the court on appeal from the superior court of Suffolk County. A minor, T. F. Jordan, was suing by his next friend to recover damages for injuries received while in the employment of the company, and his father was suing for loss of services. Judgment was for the plaintiffs in both cases in the court below. On appeal, however, it was held that the "Fellow-servant law," under which alone the action could be brought, did not give the father a right to sue. The judgment in behalf of the son was affirmed.

The facts appear in the opinion, which was delivered by Judge Knowlton and is in the main as follows:

In the defendant's shop there was a large crane, estimated to weigh about 20 tons, which passed in and out upon an iron track nearly 20 feet above the ground, which track was supported by girders. The track and girders were taken down and replaced by new ones. While the work was going on and before the old track was entirely removed, the crane ran in and out over that part which was in position, and as soon as the new track was in place and safely supported it began to run in and out occasionally over that. The minor plaintiff was an iron worker. He was sent with another man to put in a bracket underneath the girder, between the pillars that supported it, and in doing the work he stood upon a narrow piece of iron and steadied himself by taking hold of the track above the girder with one hand. His companion went away temporarily, and John Flynn, a foreman who directed the work, came up to take his place, standing in a similar way, with one of his hands holding the rail of the track. The crane came along over the track and cut off the ends of two of the plaintiff's fingers.

There was ample evidence to warrant a finding that Flynn was a superintendent within the meaning of the statute. The jury might well find that it was a part of his duty to warn workmen, who were in exposed positions of the coming of the crane, if they were where they would not be likely to see it. There was testimony that he had given such warnings repeatedly during the progress of the work. It appeared that the place was very noisy, and that the plaintiff could not hear nor see the approach of the crane while he was working below the girder. His back was towards the crane as it approached, while the superintendent was facing it. There was testimony that the superintendent could have seen the crane as it was coming, although this was disputed. The superintendent was not relieved from the obligation to use due care for the safety of the employees by his taking the place of the plaintiff's companion, temporarily, to assist in the work of putting in the bracket. It was a question for the jury whether the superintendent was negligent in failing to discover the approach of the crane and to warn the plaintiff of his danger. It was also a question for the jury whether the plaintiff was in the exercise of due care. In this case the defendant's exceptions must be overruled.

The claim of the father presents a different question. This, like the other, is brought under the employer's liability act, and no negligence is charged except that of the superintendent. At common law neither of the plaintiffs could recover, as the only negligence complained of was that of a fellow-servant. The employer's liability act cannot be availed of by the father to recover for loss of service or for expenses, inasmuch as this statute gives a right of action only to the employee or his legal representatives, or, if he is instantly killed or dies without conscious suffering, to his widow or next of kin. (Rev. Laws, c. 106, secs. 71-73.) "The employee or his legal representatives shall * * * have the same rights to compensation and of action against the employer as if he had not been an employee," etc. If he is a minor, this enlargement of his rights at common law does not extend to his father, suing in his own right.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—SUPERINTENDENT ACTING AS LABORER—QUESTION FOR JURY—*Gallagher v. Newman, Court of Appeals of New York, 83 Northeastern Reporter, page 480.*—Annie Gallagher sued to recover damages for the death of her husband, caused, as alleged, by the negligence of one Brady, who was Newman's foreman. Judgment was for the plaintiff in the trial court and the appellate division of the supreme court, but was reversed on further appeal and a new trial ordered.

It appears that the foreman called on the deceased and a fellow-workman to assist in replacing a belt that had slipped from its place, and that while they were so employed, Brady, with the apparent purpose of furthering the undertaking, threw on the power at such time as to inflict the injuries that caused Gallagher's death. The instructions by the trial judge were held not to have properly submitted to

the jury the question of the nature of the act of Brady, whether he was at the time a superintendent, so that the employer was bound by his action, or whether the act was one of mere coservice and so not within the provisions of the employers' liability law of 1902, under which the suit was brought.

The construction of the law adopted by the court of appeals is set forth in the following excerpt from the opinion of the court, which was delivered by Judge Hiscock:

The employer's liability act provides for a recovery by the administrator of a deceased employee the same as though the intestate had not been an employee where the injury was caused "by reason of the negligence of any person in the service of the employer intrusted with and exercising superintendence, whose sole or principal duty is that of superintendence." As was said by this court in *Harris v. Baltimore Machine & Elevator Works*, 188 N. Y. 144, 80 N. E. 1028, this statute "gave an additional cause of action; because it prescribed that a master shall be liable for the negligence of the superintendent, or the person acting as such. * * * At common law such a liability was not recognized, unless the superintending servant was the alter ego of the master with respect to the work." This court may be regarded as having formulated under this act the principles that an employer is not liable for the negligent act of an employee simply because the latter ordinarily is engaged in discharging duties of superintendence, nor, on the contrary, is the employer exempted from liability for such act simply because it is one which may be described in some sense as "a detail of the work;" but the employer is liable or not accordingly as the negligent act is one of or pertaining to superintendence, or is one which is the subject of performance by ordinary, subordinate employees, and including no element of superior duty, supervision, or command.

These principles were last discussed and approved by this court in the case of *Guilmartin v. Solvay Process Company*, 189 N. Y. 490, 82 N. E. 725. In that case some of the defendant's employees were engaged in readjusting a belt on a pulley. One Mullin was the foreman of the shift or gang to which the plaintiff belonged, and had power to stop the machinery in case of accident or emergency. On being informed of the accident, he caused the movement of the engine to be slowed down, and then directed the plaintiff with other workmen to cut the lacing of the belt, he personally joining in the work. After the belt was cut he directed one of the workmen to throw the loose end on the floor. The shaft pulley being relieved from the strain of the taut belt again revolved with the shaft and caused the loose end of the belt to strike and injure the plaintiff. The plaintiff recovered a judgment in the trial court, which was reversed by the appellate division, on the ground that the negligence of Mullin in failing to stop the engine, if negligence it was, was the negligence of a fellow-servant in a detail of the work for which the master was not liable. Judge Cullen, writing in behalf of this court, for a reversal of the decision of the appellate division, said: "To render the master liable, the negligence must not only be on the part of the person who is acting as superintendent, but also in an act of superintendence. But if the act be of that character the fact that in a sense

it is a detail of the work will not relieve the master from liability. In the prosecution of many, if not most, works, superintendence is a detail of the work, in the accurate use of that term. It is often so denominated in the older cases, and properly so, because, before the statute, it was unnecessary to distinguish between negligence of a superintendent and that of a colaborer of the same grade as that of the person injured so far as any liability of the master was involved. The statute has changed this. In the McHugh case, 179 N. Y. 378, 72 N. E. 312, the defendant was held liable for the negligence of a train dispatcher in starting a train. The dispatcher performed that act, doubtless, scores of times a day, and its performance was a mere detail of his ordinary day's work. Therefore the question in any case brought under the statute is not whether the negligent act is a detail of the work, but whether it is a detail of the superintendent's part of the work, or of the subordinate employees and servants. In the present case had the foreman Mullin attempted to stop the engine himself, and so carelessly done the work as to cause injury to the other employees, that might very well be deemed the negligence of a coservant for which the master would not be liable, but the determination of the question whether the machinery should be stopped before the men were put to work on it was of a very different character. None of the other workmen could direct the engine to be stopped. He alone had that power. His direction in reference thereto or failure to direct was an act of superintendence. At least the jury was authorized to so find."

In the present case the act of Brady which resulted in the intestate's death is doubtless near the border line which separates superintendence from mere employment and manual labor. If, without taking any part in the actual adjustment of the belt on the pulleys, he had superintended the operation, and had directed the shifting of the lever which put the shaft in motion and injured intestate, there could be little doubt as to the character of his act as being one of superintendence. That, however, is not the case. He took actual part with the others in the manual labor directed toward the readjustment of the belt, the others working at one end of it and he at the other, and, as we have already said, it seems permissible to infer that his act in putting the shaft in motion was a mere continuance of his labor for the purpose of permitting the belt to be still further rolled onto the pulley. It fairly may be contended, in the language of Judge Braley, in *Meagher v. Crawford Laundry Co.*, 187 Mass. 586, 73 N. E. 853, that he was "engaged with the men in a common task of manual labor," and we think that the appellant was entitled to have the jury say whether his act in moving the lever was comprehended within the lines of his duty as superintendent or was the act of an ordinary employee engaged with others in a common joint attempt to readjust the belt.

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN—HOURS OF LABOR—DELEGATION OF LEGISLATIVE AUTHORITY—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—*Burcher v. People*, *Supreme Court of Colorado*, 93 *Pacific Reporter*, page 14.—Frank Burcher and others were convicted of employing a woman in

violation of the act of 1903 (chapter 138), which limits employment to eight hours per day in certain designated industries and in other employments "at the discretion of the court." The constitutionality of the act was attacked on various grounds, but two of which were considered by the court, as on both of them the law was held to be unconstitutional.

The first ground related to the agreement of the title and the body of the law, and need not be considered. As to the second, Judge Campbell, who gave the opinion, referred to the following provision of the constitution:

"The general assembly shall provide by law, and shall prescribe suitable penalties for the violation thereof, for a period of employment not to exceed eight (8) hours within any twenty-four (24) hours (except in cases of emergency where life or property is in imminent danger), for persons employed in underground mines or other underground workings, blast furnaces, smelters; and any ore reduction works or other branch of industry or labor that the general assembly may consider injurious or dangerous to health, life, or limb."

He then said:

The second assignment we think is well laid, and it matters not whether the source of the power of this legislation is to be found in the express command contained in the constitutional amendment, or is inherent in the police power of the State. The question as to whether the general assembly by this amendment is given any greater power in making regulations concerning the unenumerated branches of "industry or labor" than that body theretofore and always has possessed as a part of its general legislative power, and certain other questions argued by counsel, we find it unnecessary to determine upon this review. And upon all questions not included in the two assignments determined, and as to the enforceability, meaning, scope, and applicability of this constitutional amendment, we withhold expression of opinion until a cause involving them is before us. If the power to enact such legislation as this reposes in the amendment, or is inherently a part of the general legislative power belonging to the general assembly, it is entirely clear that the power itself must be exercised, in the first instance, by that lawmaking body. With the ultimate authority of the courts, as was held *In re Morgan*, 26 Colo. 415, 58 Pac. 1071, 17 L. R. A. 52, 77 Am. St. Rep. 269, to determine as to the validity of the exercise of the police power, both as to the subject selected and reasonableness of the regulation, we are not now concerned. But it is unquestionably true, and can not be, and is not, controverted, that the legislative branch of government alone has the authority, and is charged with the duty, of enacting such regulations, and can not relinquish or delegate it to either of the other great coordinate departments of government. That this is the correct doctrine is declared by all the cases, and by every author and jurist who has spoken on the subject. The amendment recognizes this doctrine when, after specifying particular occupations in which the period of employment is prescribed, it adds, "or other branch of industry or labor that the general assembly may consider injurious or dangerous

to health, life or limb." Here we have, as to unnamed branches of industry and labor, the express limitation that regulations concerning hours of employment in them must be restricted to those which the general assembly may consider injurious or dangerous to health, life, or limb. We look in vain to find that the general assembly in section 3, or in any part of this, or any other, act, has considered or declared the laundry business, or even labor therein of any kind, either injurious or dangerous. The mere general prohibition of employment in harmless occupations beyond, or in excess of, specified hours, is not the equivalent of a solemn finding and declaration of the general assembly that such occupations are injurious or dangerous. The amendment contemplates that not until after the general assembly has considered and enacted that they are of that character can regulations of employment therein, and prohibition of labor beyond a certain time, be made effective, or violations thereof punished as a crime or misdemeanor.

In marked contrast with this act is the act of the fifteenth general assembly, found in Sess. Laws 1905, p. 284, c. 119. In that act the general assembly was evidently intending to carry out the mandate of the constitutional amendment that is here invoked. That title is: "An act to declare certain employments injurious and dangerous to health, life and limb; regulating the hours of employment in underground mines and other underground workings, in smelters and ore reduction works, in stamp mills, in chlorination and cyanide mills, and employment about or attending blast furnaces, and providing a penalty for the violation thereof." The occupations named in section 1 of the act of 1905, which include all of those expressly enumerated in the constitutional amendment, and several others assumed by the general assembly to be of similar character and hence within the language of the amendment "any other branch of industry or labor," are by the general assembly expressly "declared dangerous and injurious to health, life and limb," and this declaration is immediately followed by a provision that the period of employment for all persons employed in such occupations shall be eight hours per day. Here we find that the general assembly conceived that its duty under this amendment was, first, to declare certain occupations to be dangerous or injurious, and then to make the desired regulations concerning the hours of employment. This method was entirely ignored in the act which we are considering. Reading the act of 1903 in its entirety, it is plain that our general assembly did not purport to say, and did not intend to declare, what occupations were, in its judgment, dangerous or injurious, and therefore occupations of such a character as to justify regulations of hours or labor therein, for in section 2 it said: "All paper mills, cotton mills and factories where wearing apparel for men and women is made, ore reduction mills or smelters, factories, shops of all kinds and stores may be held to be unhealthful and dangerous occupations within the meaning of this act at the discretion of the court." It must be borne in mind, as the attorney-general must concede, that under our constitution the right of contracting for one's labor is reserved and guaranteed to every citizen. It is subject to no restraint, except where the public safety, health, morals, or general welfare demands it, and then only where the legislative department of the State government, in the exercise of its police power,

selects a proper subject for its exercise and prescribes reasonable and appropriate regulations. In the absence, therefore, of a legitimate exercise by the general assembly of this power by a declaration to the contrary, the defendants might lawfully by contract require a woman to work more than eight hours per day in their laundry. Yet here is an attempted relinquishment by the lawmaking body of that very power of legislation, and a futile effort to confer upon the courts the authority to make such laws, by saying, in their discretion, and in the first instance, and with no previous declaration on the subject by the general assembly, what occupations are unhealthful and dangerous. This is a palpable evasion of duty, coupled with an abortive attempt to give to the courts legislative power to make crimes and misdemeanors out of the acts which are not in violation of any valid legislative enactment. It is manifest, therefore, that, as to section 3, at least one essential condition precedent to the validity of enactments of this kind is lacking, namely, the considering or finding by the general assembly that the occupation in question is of a character concerning which only can it, in any event, adopt such regulations as are assumed to be contained in this act. If this, however, were not so, this judgment must be reversed; for, if the courts have the power which section 2 ineffectually tries to give them, the laundry business must be considered healthful, for counsel themselves, in their stipulation of facts, on which the record shows the cause was decided, are in accord that such occupation is healthful. Upon the two grounds discussed, we hold section 3 to be unconstitutional and void.

EXAMINATION AND LICENSING OF BARBERS—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—*State v. Walker, Supreme Court of Washington, 92 Pacific Reporter, page 775.*—This case was before the supreme court on appeal from the superior court of Pierce County, in which the law (chapter 172, Acts of 1901) requiring barbers to be examined and procure a license before practicing their trade was declared unconstitutional. The supreme court reversed this ruling, holding the law to be constitutional, with the exception of a single provision, as appears from the following quotation from the opinion of the court, as delivered by Judge Mount:

The only question in the case is whether the act is valid under the State and Federal constitutions. In the case of *State v. Sharpless*, 31 Wash. 191, 71 Pac. 737, 96 Am. St. Rep. 893, the validity of this act was questioned upon several grounds, and we there held that the act was not unconstitutional upon any of the grounds claimed. Respondent now seeks to justify the ruling of the lower court upon the ground that the act is an abridgment of the liberty and natural rights of the citizen, which point was not passed upon in the *Sharpless* case. The case of *State ex rel. Richey v. Smith*, 42 Wash. 237, 84 Pac. 851, 5 L. R. A. (N. S.) 674, 114 Am. St. Rep. 114 [see Bulletin No. 67, p. 875], with the authorities therein cited, is relied upon as supporting the ruling of the lower court. That was a case where we were considering an act to regulate plumbing in certain cities of the

State. We there said: "The power of the legislature to make all needful rules and regulations for the health, comfort, and well-being of society can not be questioned, but there are certain limits beyond which the legislature can not go, without trenching upon liberty and property rights which are safeguarded by the State and Federal constitutions." We also said: "Acts of similar import, but relating to different professions, trades, and occupations, have often been before this court. Thus in *State v. Carey*, 4 Wash. 424, 30 Pac. 729, an act regulating the practice of medicine and surgery was sustained. In *State ex rel. Smith v. Board of Dental Examiners*, 31 Wash. 492, 72 Pac. 110, and *In re Thompson*, 36 Wash. 377, 78 Pac. 899, a similar act regulating the practice of dentistry was upheld. In *State v. Sharpless*, 31 Wash. 191, 71 Pac. 737, 96 Am. St. Rep. 893, involving the validity of the act regulating the business of barbering, a similar ruling was made. But *In re Aubrey*, 36 Wash. 308, 78 Pac. 900, 104 Am. St. Rep. 952 [see Bulletin No. 58 p. 994], an act regulating the business of horseshoeing was declared unconstitutional, and without the police power of the State. Some of the acts considered in the above cases were manifestly needful and proper for the protection of the public health; others were on the border line." By these last words the writer of that opinion evidently referred to the act relating to barbering. After further discussing the authorities and particularly considering the case before us, we concluded as follows: "We are satisfied that the act has no such relation to the public health as will sustain it as a police or sanitary measure, and that its interference with the liberty of the citizen brings it in direct conflict with the Constitution of the United States." We adhere to the rule and reasoning of that case. But there is a clear distinction between that case and this. The business of plumbing only remotely affects the public health. The skill or cleanliness of the plumber himself does not immediately affect the public any more than the skill or cleanliness of the ordinary scavenger affects it, because the business of plumbing does not bring the plumber in personal contact with the public. But the physician, the surgeon, the dentist, and the barber operate directly on the person, and therefore affect directly the health, comfort, and safety of the public. We think this marks the principal distinction between that class of trades, professions, or callings which may be regulated by law for public health, comfort, and safety, and that class which can not be so regulated without depriving a citizen of his natural rights and privileges guaranteed to him by fundamental law.

Respondent further takes the position that the act is void because it is manifest therefrom that the same was not passed as a measure to insure the public health, but solely to create a monopoly of barbers in this State; and, as supporting that position, our attention is called to that part of section 10 which provides, as a prerequisite to obtaining a certificate of registration, that the applicant "has studied the trade for two years as an apprentice under or as a qualified and practicing barber in this State or other States." It is claimed that this provision was made to destroy schools where barbering was taught in this and other States, and permitted practicing barbers to limit the number of applicants by refusing to receive apprentices. This provision, no doubt, gives strong color to the charge made; but we

think it is not of itself enough to avoid the whole act. The legislature or the board of examiners when authorized so to do may make and enforce reasonable rules and regulations in order to determine the qualification of applicants to practice that occupation. Unreasonable, arbitrary provisions can not be enforced. We think the provision quoted is both unreasonable and arbitrary. What the public is interested to know is that the barber is competent. How he has acquired his skill or knowledge is of minor importance. If he has qualified himself by attendance upon some school for that purpose, or by his own efforts unassisted, or by having served an apprenticeship under some qualified barber, or in some other equally efficacious way, that is all that can reasonably be required of him. To limit the qualifications to one particular way or to one particular place, where there are many universally recognized as equally good, and provide that none others need apply, is no doubt unreasonable. The result is that this requirement of the act is void. But that does not render the whole act void. In order to sustain the judgment in this case, it is necessary to avoid the whole act, which we can not do.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS—STATUS OF UNINCORPORATED ASSOCIATIONS—SUIT FOR DISSOLUTION—UNLAWFUL ORGANIZATIONS—*Kealey et al. v. Faulkner et al.*, *Court of Common Pleas of Cuyahoga County, Ohio*, 18 *Superior and Common Pleas Decisions*, page 498.—This case was first heard on the demurrer to the petition of John A. Kealey and his associates, representing the flatteners and cutters, members of the Amalgamated Window Glass Workers of America, who asked for a dissolution of the association. The defendants were members of the same association. The plaintiffs claimed that they had not received fair treatment from the hands of the organization; that the organization itself was illegal, and that there were funds on hand in excess of \$100,000 to which they had contributed. They asked that the association be dissolved and a receiver appointed and that the fund be distributed among the members of the organization according to their respective rights. The defendants demurred first on the ground that they were not sufficient parties to the action. The plaintiffs represented a large portion of the members, although a minority whose interests were identical with their own, while the defendants named were representatives of a class of persons too numerous to be individually present or make parties to the suit. The court discussed this question first and decided that under the laws of Ohio, Revised Statutes 5008, the parties' interests were properly represented, the statute providing that where a question is one of common or general interest of many persons and it is impracticable to bring them all before the court one or more may sue or defend for the benefit of all. The court held that the interests were properly represented by the parties before the court; that the defendants had had control of the funds of the association, and that making

them parties as was done in the suit was sufficient notice to the whole membership. The second demurrer was based on the substance of the petition. The petition claimed that the Amalgamated Window Glass Workers of America is in its purposes and methods a menace to the public welfare and should be dealt with as an organization that is opposed to the public policy of the country. Judge Phillips, before whom the case was heard, stated that before passing on this point it would be necessary to consider the principles upon which such a petition should be based and to discover as far as possible the true standard by which to determine a question of public policy. Among other things, he said:

One of the chief reasons for the creation of government, and therefore one of the chief functions of government, is to prevent extortion and oppression, and to foster a productive industry by maintaining a just division of the fruits of industry.

Every one is perfectly free to bring his capital, or his labor, into the market on such terms as he may deem best. This is a fundamental postulate, and as an inseparable corollary therefrom, no one may, of right, impair or impinge upon this individual freedom to use one's labor or capital.

This individual freedom as to the marketing of one's labor or capital belongs equally to an aggregation of labor or of capital; and the duty not to impair or impinge upon this freedom of labor and of capital rests equally upon any aggregation of men. In other words, the right is not enlarged, nor is the duty lessened, by the association. Stated differently again, this right and this duty do not arise from the coming together of men; they inhere in, and attach to, the individual, as a member of the community. And when labor or capital is united, for the advantageous marketing thereof, this individual right of freedom, and this individual duty to desist, attach to the aggregation, whether it be of capital or of labor.

I read an extract from an opinion in *Purvis v. United Brotherhood of Carpenters & Joiners*, 214 Pa. St. 348, 357 [63 Atl. Rep. 585; 112 Am. St. Rep. 757]:

"The right of a workman to freely use his hands and to use them for just whom he pleases, upon just such terms as he pleases, is his property, and so in no less degree is a man's business in which he has invested his capital. The right of each—employer and employee—is an absolute one, inherent and indefeasible, of which neither can be deprived, not even by the legislature itself. The protection of it, though as old as the common law, has been reguaranteed in our bill of rights. 'All men are born equally free and independent, and have certain inherent and indefeasible rights, among which are those of enjoying and defending life and liberty, of acquiring, possessing and protecting property and reputation, and of pursuing their own happiness.' * * * The principle upon which the cases, English and American, proceed, is that every man has the right to employ his talents, industry, and capital as he pleases, free from the dictation of others; and if two or more persons combine to coerce his choice in this behalf, it is a criminal conspiracy. The labor and skill of the workman, be it of high or low degree, the plant of the manufacturer, the equipment of the farmer, the investments of commer

equal sense, property." * * * A person's business is property, entitled under the constitution to protection from unlawful interference. Every person has a right, as between his fellow-citizens and himself, to carry on his business within legal limits, according to his own discretion and choice, with any means that are safe and healthful, and to employ therein such persons as he may select."

This right of commercial freedom, and this correlated duty to forbear, and the origin, the scope, and the purpose thereof, must be kept well in mind, for the due consideration, and the safe determination, of the questions that here confront us. If I may venture a modest criticism, it was failure to properly advert to these considerations that led some of the courts, in the earlier cases, to make announcements that have come to be regarded as of doubtful authority.

The Amalgamated Window Glass Workers of America is composed of skilled workmen—artisans, men trained to dexterity in the making of window glass. Because these men are skilled in the manufacture of an important article of commerce, they are able to contribute, in a special way, and in special measure, to the productive industry of the community. Therefore the community has a special interest in the industrial freedom of these men, and each of them. One of these men could not obligate himself not to work at his trade. He might, of choice, decline to pursue his trade; but he could not obligate himself not to work at his trade; and if he should enter into a contract never again to work at his trade, the courts would not enforce the contract. Such contract would be against public policy. It would impair the industrial freedom in which the public is interested, and which it is the duty of government to protect and promote. It is this indicium, the impairment of industrial freedom, that discriminates and vitiates such contract.

Our supreme court has said of such engagement, that it tends to oppression by depriving the individual of the right to pursue a trade with which he is most familiar and by depriving the community of the services of a skilled laborer; and it tends indirectly to affect the price of such things as would be produced by his labor.

And for the same reasons that one man may not, by contractual obligation, impair or limit his industrial freedom, any number of men may not. And the individual may not, by union with others, surrender his right of industrial freedom to the association. The tendency of such impairment of the right of industrial freedom is against the general welfare, and is therefore against the public policy which is promotive of the public good.

Chief Justice Wilmot said (I read a quotation found in *Crawford v. Wick*, 18 Ohio St. 190, 203 [98 Am. Dec. 103]):

"Whatsoever a man may lawfully forbear, *that* he may oblige himself against; *except where a third person is wronged, or the public is prejudiced by it.*"

In the light of what has been said, and in the light of the authorities to be referred to, let us see what is the legal character and status of the Amalgamated Window Glass Workers of America.

It is clear that the thing that vitiates a contract, under a principle of the law which we call "public policy," is not an intent to injure the public, but a *tendency* to the prejudice of the public. Actual injury is never required to be shown; it is the tendency to the prejudice of the public good, which vitiates contractual relations.)

Within the limitations I have stated, men may combine and cooperate, for the advantageous marketing of their skill and labor, or their capital. But this right is limited to an advantageous marketing of labor or capital, and it is limited by the right of the public to have industrial and commercial freedom maintained and promoted. Whatever of purpose or of method transcends these bounds, if in its tendency it is opposed to the public welfare, is under the ban of the law and its administration.

The undoubted trend of modern business is for the combination, both of capital and of labor. Combinations of capital have become a necessity. The great business undertakings of these times could not be carried on without it. And most of the labor is now employed in large aggregations of men. There is as much right, and I think as much reason, for laborers to combine for their protection and benefit, as for capital to combine. This inevitable tendency to combine can neither be ignored or repressed, nor should it be.

There is no law to compel a man or a body of men to work, and there is no law to prevent a man or a body of men from refusing to work. If there were such law, it would violate fundamental property rights. Any man, and any body of men, may work for, or refuse to work for, whom they will. And the same freedom belongs to the employer of labor. These are fundamental principles, recognized in all the decisions that are authoritative.

It is noticeable, that nowhere do the by-laws of this organization state, in terms, its aims and purposes. These are to be gathered from the several provisions, and the general trend of the by-laws, and from the averments of the petition, which, for the purposes of this demurrer, are admitted, so far as they are well pleaded.

I think the leading general purpose of the association is, to protect and promote the interests of such window glass workers as may be members of the association,—a purpose that is not only lawful, but commendable, if the auxiliary purposes, and the methods to be employed, are likewise lawful.)

First. It is one of the auxiliary purposes of this organization to prevent any one not a member thereof, or an apprentice authorized thereby, from working at the trade of window glass blower, gatherer, flattener or cutter. And I read from the by-laws that are made a part of the petition, sec. 2, page 18, of the copy that has been furnished me:

“No one not a member of the Amalgamated Window Glass Workers of America shall be allowed to work at any of the four trades, excepting our own apprentices.”

Of course, this policy, if enforced, would promote the individual advantage of the members of the association. But how as to the other side of the equation? If this policy is enforced, the right of industrial freedom is thereby limited and impaired, and the public is deprived of the right it has in the full and free enjoyment of industrial freedom by every member of the community.)

Second. This organization undertakes to limit the number of glass workers in this country. And I read from pages 8, 9 and 10, secs. 3, 4, 5, 13 and 20:

“Sec. 3. That aside from sons and brothers, not to exceed an additional 10 per cent of apprentices, per actual pot capacity in opera-

tion, shall be granted to learn the trade of gathering, for blast of 1906-07.

"Sec. 4. That not to exceed 10 per cent of the membership of flatteners shall be granted to learn to flatten, for blast of 1906-07.

"Sec. 5. That not to exceed 10 per cent of the membership of the cutters shall be granted to learn to cut, for blast of 1906-07.

"Sec. 13. Any member attempting to learn either of the four trades, or making application, without the proper permission and papers, shall be fined \$25.

"Sec. 20. No apprentice certificate shall be granted to any one who is not a white male, and has not attained the age of fifteen years, and must be of good moral character and able to read and write."

Judge Phillips then read an extract from the opinion in the case of *Gray v. Building Trades Council*. 91 Minn. 171, 97 N. W. Rep. 663, the last sentences being:

"Labor may organize, as capital does, for its own protection and to further the interests of the laboring class. They may strike, and persuade and induce others to join them, but when they resort to unlawful means to cause injury to others with whom they have no relation, contractual or otherwise, the limit permitted by the law is passed, and they may be restrained."

He then said:

Now, the provisions that I have read, reach beyond the membership of this organization. They undertake to prohibit others outside of its own membership from learning the trade of glass worker. That is interfering with fundamental rights. It is against the public policy, because it is for the public good that all men should be free to select, adopt and learn whatever trade they may desire, and then to pursue it. Now, interference with that is unlawful because it is against the public interest.

Then this organization places restrictions upon the labor of its own members. And I read several sections on that point. Page 10, sec. 25:

"No member of Amalgamated Window Glass Workers of America shall be allowed to work at any nonunion works. For the violation of this law, they shall be subject to a fine at the discretion of the executive board."

Page 19, sec. 7:

"Any member signing an agreement of any kind to secure employment, shall be fined \$25 for first offense, \$50 for second offense, and be suspended from membership for third offense."

Page 21, sec. 20:

"No member of this association shall work for monthly wages, unless it be for guarantee to secure himself against loss or to retain himself in an undesirable position."

I read a short extract from a case in 2 Law Reports 622:

"Every workman is entitled to dispose of his labor on his own terms; but that right is conditioned, by the right of every other workman to do the like. In particular, each employee is, as I think, at liberty to decide for himself whether he will or will not work along with another individual in the same employ."

Page 25, sec. 18:

"No blower or gatherer shall work faster than at the rate of nine rollers per hour, excepting in case of roller falling off or pipes breaking. No blower or gatherer shall be allowed to start on the ninth roller until fifty minutes are up; this to also apply to the D. S. blower and gatherer according to their limit per hour, and that a fine of \$10 be imposed on any and all preceptors for the nonenforcement of this law."

Page 27, sec. 31:

"No cutter shall be allowed to cut for more than 3½ pots of S. S. and 3 pots of D. S."

Page 32, sec. 68:

"Any blower or gatherer working more than forty hours per week, shall, for the first offense, be fined \$50, and for the second offense be expelled from the organization."

I read from the case of *O'Brien v. People*, 216 Ill. 354, 372 [75 N. E. Rep. 108]:

"Every man has a right under the law, as between himself and others, to full freedom in disposing of his own labor or capital according to his own will, and any one who invades that right without lawful cause or justification commits a legal wrong, and, if followed by an injury caused in consequence thereof, the one whose right is thus invaded has a legal ground of action for such wrong. * * * It is now well settled that the privilege of contracting is both a liberty and a property right. Liberty includes the right to make and enforce contracts, because the right to make and enforce contracts is included in the right to acquire property. Labor is property. To deprive the laborer and the employer of this right to contract with one another is to violate sec. 2 of art. 2 of the constitution of Illinois, which provides that 'no person shall be deprived of life, liberty or property without due process of law.' It is equally a violation of the fifth and fourteenth amendments of the Constitution of the United States, which provide that no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, and that no State shall deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, 'nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.'"

On pages 29 and 30, secs. 45 and 58, are other restrictions which have, by some courts been held to be lawful, but by the majority of decisions held to be illegal; I will not take time to read them.

On page 30, sec. 53, this organization places limitations upon its members as to working in factories where machinery is used:

"That no member of this association will be allowed to assist or try to operate any iron man, machine or invention, for the purpose of making window glass, except it be under the protection of the executive board or with the consent of the same. For violation of the above a member or members shall be fined, suspended or expelled from the association, as the executive board may decide."

The use of machinery, when it multiplies the products of labor, is in the interest of labor, and is in the interest of the general welfare; any provision, any contractual obligation which stands athwart this principle stands athwart the policy that the law enforces for the public welfare.

I have heard it stated,—I do not know how true it is,—perhaps approximately right,—that the machine energy in use in the United States amounts to one hundred millions of horsepower, doing the work of eight hundred millions of men, and that this machinery is operated by twenty millions of men. So that, by the use of machinery one man is enabled to do the work and make the production of forty men without machinery. This is in the interest of everybody, because it augments the fund total, that is the product of labor.

Then this organization undertakes to control the manufacturers. I read sec. 9 on page 4 of the by-laws:

“Every manufacturer engaging members of the Amalgamated Window Glass Workers of America, shall sign the agreement of the association before the member will be allowed to work.”

Page 27, sec. 36:

“Each manufacturer shall be compelled to employ a boss cutter; and said boss cutter to be a member of the Amalgamated Window Glass Workers of America, and he shall divide and distribute the orders among the cutters.”

Every manufacturer is compelled to employ a boss cutter who is to be subject to the direction of this association. And on page 28, secs. 40 and 41:

“Any manufacturer introducing into his flattening house, blow furnace, tanks, or pots, new inventions, supposed improvements, shall, so long as said inventions or improvements continue to be an experiment, or until it shall have been demonstrated that it will not be a loss to the workmen whose work is, or may be, affected by said machine or invention,” etc.

Sec. 41:

“All ten-pot furnaces shall be required to employ three flatteners, and no flattener shall flatten more than four pots, unless the president and executive board deem it absolutely necessary.”

Now, these provisions, if enforced, would impair the right of the employer to conduct his business according to his own notion of fitness. And it impairs the commercial freedom that belongs to the employer just as industrial freedom belongs to the individual laborer. This is outside of the membership of this association, and beyond any legitimate purpose that it can have, to wit, the benefit of its membership.

I have noted, and intended to read from, but I will not take the time to do so, *Curran v. Galen*, 152 N. Y. 33, 36, 38 [46 N. E. Rep. 168; 37 L. R. A. 802; 57 Am. St. Rep. 496]; *Erdman v. Mitchell*, 207 Pa. St. 79, 80 [56 Atl. Rep. 327; 63 L. R. A. 534; 99 Am. St. Rep. 783]; *Picket v. Walsh*, 192 Mass. 572, 580 [78 N. E. Rep. 753].

The by-laws of this association contain a multitude of provisions, not referred to by me because it would take too long, that give the organization absolute control of every member as a glass worker, and places him in complete servility to it. Every member of this body has surrendered his individuality, and his industrial freedom, and is no longer a personal factor in the industrial world. This is violative of fundamental personal rights, and of public rights, and is therefore unlawful.

This association undertakes to exclude all glass workers not members, and to limit manufacturers to employment of none but its mem-

This is deemed to constitute a monopoly.

On the basis of these considerations Judge Phillips ruled in favor of the contention of the plaintiffs, holding that by its express purposes and its conceded methods the association exerts an influence and has a tendency against the public policy of the State and is therefore an illegal organization.

The question then arose as to the rights of the plaintiffs who were members of the organization and had subscribed to its by-laws and joined in the actions which were condemned by the court. Judge Phillips stated in this connection that "it is too plain to require comment or the citation of authorities that the plaintiffs are *in pari delicto*, and that they do not come into court with clean hands." On this point Judge Phillips said further:

Such attitude of plaintiffs does not commend them to the court; and if the scope of this case is limited to the granting of relief to the plaintiffs they must go out of court, and must be left to bear the ills which their own wrongs have helped to bring upon them.

But it is claimed that inasmuch as this action is not to enforce an illegal contract, but is in disaffirmance of an executory contract, the court should entertain the action, not for the benefit of the plaintiffs, but in the interest of the public.

Anomalous and paradoxical as it would seem to be, to require actions to be brought in the name of the real party in interest, and limited, as to parties, to those who are interested in the subject of the controversy, and limiting the judgment to the parties that are before the court—I say anomalous and paradoxical as it would seem to impose these requirements, and then, finding that the parties to the action are not entitled to relief, to carry on the action in the interest of the public, I think it is a well-settled principle of judicial procedure, and of equity jurisprudence that this may be done in proper cases.

I read an extract from an opinion in *Congress & E. Spring Co. v. Knowlton*, 103 U. S. 49, 58 [26 L. Ed. 347]:

"And this distinction is taken in the books that where the action is in affirmance of an illegal contract, the object of which is to enforce the performance of an engagement prohibited by law, clearly such an action can in no case be maintained, but where the action proceeds in disaffirmance of such a contract, and instead of endeavoring to enforce it presumes it to be void and seeks to prevent the defendant from retaining the benefit which he derived from an unlawful act, then it is consonant to the spirit and policy of the law that the plaintiff should recover."

I think the case made in this petition comes within that doctrine. It stands as an exception to the general rule that parties *in pari delicto* can not have relief in a court of justice. This contract is still executory; the whole thing is in *feri*—the wrongs that may be committed against public policy are still to be committed; it is to be perpetuated; it is executory. And this action is not based upon any right of these plaintiffs as members of this association, it is not to perpetuate or to recognize or enforce this contract between the members of a society; it is in disaffirmance of a contract. It is to accomplish its destruction and thereby benefit the public, as well as these

plaintiffs, from the consequences of a continuation of this society and the perpetuation of the wrongs against the public that its provisions would work.

While these plaintiffs can not have relief in favor of their individual rights, I think that the court may, in a case of this kind, and in this case, grant that relief because thereby the public good may be promoted. I think it is an organization of such scope, such character, that the court when it gets jurisdiction of the organization and its membership, it should, in the interest of the public, entertain the action and grant such relief as will promote the public good—protect the public, even though it results in giving to these plaintiffs relief that as plaintiffs they are not entitled to.

Now, just what relief may be given under this petition—what relief ought to be given, what decree, or judgment, ought to be rendered in the case I do not think I am called upon, in the consideration of this demurrer, to determine. The court that tries the case will have that question, if the action is entertained, and I leave that question for the court when the case is tried, if it shall be tried.

For these reasons the demurrer, in both branches, is overruled.

At a later date the case came on for trial, the plaintiffs moving for judgment on the petition. No defense was submitted, so that the only questions that arose were as to the effect of the decree on the organization itself, and, second, as to the funds in its treasury. Judge Phillips decided that dissolution was necessary and that a receiver should be appointed for the distribution of the fund. The grounds of these conclusions appear in the following extracts from his opinion:

It is claimed on behalf of the defendants that all that the court is interested in, and all that the court is authorized to do, looking now to the public interest, may be accomplished by eliminating the illegal features of this contractual relation, by injunction, and leaving the society intact.

At the former hearing certain provisions of the by-laws were pointed out as illegal, and as giving character to the whole contractual relation—not all that were held to be illegal or found to be illegal were adverted to at that time, and need not be now. Of course, there are provisions in the articles of amalgamation, and there are provisions in the by-laws, that are entirely legal. It is suggested that if these provisions be left standing, and only the noxious provisions be eliminated by enjoining the society from operating under them, or any of them, that will accomplish all that is now sought to be accomplished by a decree.

I do not think this can be done, and for several reasons. I think it would be in effect the making by the court of a new contract for the members of this organization. A contract expurgated in that way would not be the contract that they entered into. There would then stand only a fragmentary part of the contract that was agreed to. It would lack the consent of the members, which is an indispensable prerequisite to a contract. No member of this organization has consented to enter into the contractual relations that would then exist; they could not be bound by it as their contract. The only jural relation these members have is a contractual relation, arising from the and conditions contained in the documents to which they have

consented. I think it would destroy the contract, and what would remain, as I have said, would lack the indispensable contractual element of consent of the parties. The court is never authorized to make a contract; the court may enforce a legal contract; the court may undo an illegal contract; and that is as far as it can go.

Another objection to such form of decree would be, that there is no legal and valid part of this contract. The contract was entered into as an entirety. All the documents, resolutions, etc., adopted and agreed to, enter into it and form the contract; on all of them rests the contractual relation among the members of this association. The illegal features, the illegal provisions in this entire contract are so numerous, and they so permeate the whole contract that the entire contract is vitiated. It can not be said that some of these things make a valid contract. There never has been, and there is not now, any legal contract or part of a contract existing. There is no legal contractual relation here to be left undisturbed. There was no legal contract in the beginning; *ergo*, there was no contract in the beginning, and there is therefore no contract to leave in force. If any material part of this contract should be eliminated by injunction, then there is nothing left to which the members have consented; there is nothing left that ever had in law any validity. You can not inspire this contract with validity by eliminating some parts of it. If such disposition of the case could be made, if I believed it could be made, I would be glad to leave such portions of the contract as are not vulnerable, stand, and leave the organization intact, resting upon such parts of an attempted contract. I can see no ground upon which that can be done legally. It is not the illegal features of the contract that the law condemns, it condemns the contract relation, because of its illegal features. As I said, these illegal features permeate the whole contract, and give to it its illegal character.

So I do not see how I can do otherwise than to dissolve this organization. I would not make such decree if I did not feel compelled to do it. Taking the view of this case that I have taken,—and I have arrived at it after full argument and careful consideration,—I think it is the only decree that can be made. Nothing short of this will maintain the law; nothing short of this will promote public policy in this instance.

Then, subject to the hearing of proof, and if the proof shall support the material allegations of the petition, the decree will be that this organization is dissolved.

There remains the disposition of the funds found within this organization, if they are to be dealt with. This is a matter to which I have given much less consideration than to the other questions.

One of two courses must be taken. Either the court must take possession of this fund and dispose of it, or it must be left in the hands of whomsoever may now have the possession of it.

In the last analysis, what, in fairness and reason, ought to be done with this money? The banks have no right to keep it; the officers have no right to keep it. The only persons who can have any right to it are the persons who paid it in. And such right does not arise by virtue of any legal effect that the organization ever had; it is outside of that. They are not entitled to it because they are members or were members of the society, when it was dissolved; that is not the basis of their right. The basis of their right is, that they have con-

tributed to it. It was their money. It was paid over in good faith, but for a purpose that is found now to be unlawful.

I have no doubt there may be obligations in favor of persons who have a legal right to payment out of this fund. What the character of such obligations may be, I do not know. But there may be obligations that have a right to payment out of this fund. Then, whatever is left ought to be distributed to the people who produced it, in some equitable proportion; probably in the ratio in which they contributed to it.

Whether this is a proper case for the allowance of attorneys' fees out of this fund, I do not decide; it is not necessary now to decide that.

If the proof to be offered shall sustain the material averments of the petition, there will be a decree dissolving this organization, for reasons that ought to be stated, of course, in the decree, and appointing some person to take charge of the fund in the hands of the society, and to make disbursements therefrom and distribution thereof under order of the court.

Upon the hearing of evidence, the organization was dissolved, and a receiver appointed.

DECISIONS UNDER COMMON LAW.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—ACTS OF VICE-PRINCIPALS—SCOPE OF EMPLOYMENT—*Compher v. Missouri & Kansas Telephone Company, Kansas City Court of Appeals, 106 Southwestern Reporter, page 536.*—In this case Eva Cook Compher had recovered a judgment for damages against the company on account of personal injuries inflicted by her superior while she was in the company's employment. She was serving as telephone girl and had turned away from the board in a moment of unemployment in violation of the foreman's orders. These had been transmitted a little time before by means of a note passed down the line of operators which the plaintiff, being busy, did not see. The injury was caused by the foreman angrily whirling the chair in which the plaintiff was sitting and causing her knees and body to strike against the lower part of the switchboard. The judgment of the lower court was affirmed on this appeal on grounds which appear in the following quotation from the opinion of Judge Johnson, who, having stated the facts, said:

It is conceded that the chief operator was the vice-principal of defendant for the purpose of maintaining discipline in the room, but it is denied that he had authority, either express or implied, to employ physical force to secure obedience to the rules of the company; and it is argued that since defendant, as plaintiff's master, had no right to resort to physical chastisement for the enforcement of its orders, it could not delegate such right to its vice-principal, and, consequently, that the excessive act of the chief operator must be regarded as his own, and not as one for which the master should be held liable under the rule of *respondet superior*. We agree with defendant that the ancient rule of the common law which permitted

a master to chastise his servants has no place in the jurisprudence of an enlightened civilization and is not recognized by American courts. But it does not follow, as defendant appears to think, that the absence of any right in defendant to assault plaintiff for the purpose of coercing her into obeying its orders relieves it from liability for the tortious act of its vice-principal in employing physical force. Old cases are to be found in England and a few in this country where a master has been held not to be liable for the torts of his servant, in the absence of proof of an express direction or sanction by the master of the wrongful act; but no principle is now more firmly established than that which holds the master responsible for the torts of the servant committed within the scope of his employment and as part of his service. The principle is based on the maxim that "what one does by another, he does himself," and we find the rules by which it should be applied to the facts of a given case to be most aptly expressed in the following quotation from Wood on the Law of Master and Servant, sec. 307: "It is not necessary, in order to fix the master's liability, that the servant should, at the time of the injury, have been acting under the master's orders or directions, or that the master should know that the servant was to do the particular act that produced the injury in question. It is enough if the act was within the scope of his employment, and, if so, the master is liable, even though the servant acted willfully and in direct violation of his orders. A master can not screen himself from liability for an injury committed by his servant within the line of his employment by setting up private instructions or orders given by him and their violation by the servant. By putting the servant in his place, he becomes responsible for all his acts within the line of his employment, even though they are willful and directly antagonistical to his orders. The simple test is whether they were acts within the scope of his employment; not whether they were done while prosecuting the master's business, but whether they were done by the servant in furtherance thereof, and were such as may fairly be said to have been authorized by him. By 'authorized' is not meant authority expressly conferred, but whether the act was such as was incident to the performance of the duties intrusted to him by the master, even though in opposition to his express and positive orders."

The test to be applied in the present case is to ascertain whether the tortious act of the vice-principal was one which reasonably and fairly may be said to have been an act of superintendence, and not one which was so disassociated from the duties of the position of chief operator that it should be regarded as prompted alone by the malice or willfulness of the actor. We are of opinion that the act clearly was one of superintendence, and therefore within the scope of the chief operator's employment; and we find this conclusion to be sustained abundantly by the authorities in this State and elsewhere. [Cases cited.]

It follows that the learned trial judge committed no error in refusing defendant's request for a peremptory instruction, and accordingly the judgment is affirmed.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—FELLOW-SERVANTS—DEPARTMENTS OF SERVICE—EVIDENCE—EXCESSIVE DAMAGES—*Louisville & Nashville Railroad Company v. Brown, Court of Appeals of Kentucky, 106 Southwestern Reporter, page 795.*—This case was before the court of appeals on appeal from the circuit court of Hopkins County in which the railroad company named had been held liable in damages in the amount of \$10,000 for injuries received by Harry Brown while acting as brakeman in the employment of the company. The injury was inflicted by the collision of the freight train on which Brown was employed and a work train which was standing at the time on the main track of the road. The question of fellow-service and the admission of photographs as evidence are points of interest that were presented. There was also a contention that the amount of damages awarded was excessive inasmuch as it did not appear that the injury was a permanent one. Other grounds of appeal were offered, but it was only on the last one named that the decision of the lower court was reversed. The principal points in the opinion of the court, which was delivered by Judge Carroll, are reproduced herewith. After making a statement of the facts in the case the court said:

The conductor and engineer were in control of the work train, and were charged with the duty of taking every possible precaution to see to it that timely warning was given to the approaching freight. They, as well as the brakeman [who was ordered to flag the train], were guilty of gross negligence, although the company would be liable to appellee if they, or the brakeman alone, had only been guilty of ordinary neglect. Neither the conductor nor engineer on the work train, or the brakeman who participated in their negligence and equally with them was guilty of a failure to discharge his duty, were fellow-servants of appellee in the sense that appellee could not recover for their negligence. It has been frequently ruled by this court that a servant for injuries not resulting in death can not recover from the master for the ordinary negligence of his superior officers. But this doctrine is limited in its application to cases in which the servant is injured by the negligence of the superior officer who has immediate control of or supervision over him. To illustrate: If appellee had been injured by the negligence of the engineer or conductor on his train, he could not recover damages against the company unless they were guilty of gross neglect. The reason of this rule is that the servant, when he engaged to work, undertakes that he will assume the ordinary risks incident to the employment, and will not hold the master liable for the ordinary negligence of those employees with whom he is engaged, whose actions and conduct he can observe and, if necessary, guard against.

This doctrine of assumed risk by the servant has been further extended by this court until now it is well established that a servant can not recover from the master for injuries inflicted by the negligence of a fellow-servant in the same grade of employment engaged in the same field of labor, and associated or working with the injured servant, however gross the negligence of the fellow-servant may be. Hence, if appellee had been injured by the negligence of a fellow-

brakeman on the train he was working on, without any fault on the part of the conductor, or engineer, or other superior, or breach of duty on the part of the company, he could not recover in this action.

But when the servant is injured by employees of the same master, who are not directly associated with him, and with whom he is not immediately employed, and whose qualifications for the place they occupy he has no means of knowing, and in whose selection he has no voice, and over whose conduct and actions he has no control, and against whose negligence and carelessness he can not protect himself, he may recover damages from the master for injuries received through their negligence, whether it be ordinary or gross, and without any reference to the position or place the servant causing the injury holds. And so appellee, whose injuries were directly caused by the negligence of the employees on the work train, may recover from the company, without regard to which one of them was guilty of the neglect that resulted in his injuries.

Appellee was permitted to testify that, while he was pinioned in the débris of the wreck, he knew it was on fire and was fearful that he would be burned to death before he could be extricated; and other witnesses were allowed to say that they saw the fire burning close to him. In our opinion it was competent to permit appellee to testify as to the mental anguish and pain that he suffered while he was fastened in the wreck. If he had not sustained any physical injury, he could not recover at all for the mental suffering he endured, as was said in *Morse v. C. & O. Ry. Co.*, 117 Ky. 11, 77 S. W. 361: "Damages can not be recovered for mental suffering alone in an action for personal injuries based on negligence, unaccompanied by some direct contemporaneous injury to the person." But where there is a physical injury there may be a recovery for it, as well as the mental pain and suffering occasioned by and accompanying it. Mental as well as physical suffering directly caused by an injury is a part of the compensation to which the injured person is entitled; and in the cases, without exception, that have come under our notice, the jury have always been instructed that they might compensate for mental as well as physical pain. (*Alexander v. Humber*, 86 Ky. 565, 6 S. W. 453.) As it was competent for appellee to describe fully and accurately his pain and suffering after he was extricated from the wreck and during the time the cure was being affected, and in fact up to the time of the trial, we are unable to understand upon what theory it can be maintained that it was not competent for him to relate the torture he endured when under the wreck and in momentary danger of being burned to death. In our opinion it is not at all material or important whether the mental suffering is contemporaneous with the reception of the injury or subsequent to it, if it is the direct result of it. In the able and exhaustive opinion in *Denver & Rio Grande R. Co. v. Roller*, 100 Fed. 738, 41 C. C. A. 22, 49 L. R. A. 77, this question was fully covered, and the conclusion reached that evidence of this character is competent.

It was also admissible for appellee, as well as those who saw him under the wreck, to describe the surroundings and conditions that existed, so that the jury might know all the facts and circumstances of appellee's situation when injured. The accuracy of the photographs was testified to by the person who took them, and they furnished to the jury a more complete and re-
a of the wreck

of the colliding engines than could be obtained from any other source. The wreck could not be seen by the jury, nor could it be accurately described by the witnesses; but from an inspection of the photographs the jury could obtain a more correct impression and a better understanding of the situation than in any other way. (*Denver & Rio Grande R. Co. v. Roller*, supra; 11 Am. & Eng. Ency. of Law, p. 539; 17 Cyc. 414.)

Although there was no error in the admission of evidence or the instructions given by the court, we feel constrained to reverse the judgment upon the ground that the verdict is excessive. If there was sufficient evidence to show appellee's injuries were permanent, we would not interfere with the finding of the jury upon this point; but there is not. That he sustained severe injury, not only to his foot but other parts of his body, there is no doubt; but, whether they are permanent or not is another question.

After reviewing the evidence, the court said:

It will be observed that the physician who testified for appellee made only one examination, and that without using the X-rays, and his conclusion that the foot was permanently injured was based on the fact that in his opinion the bones of the foot were diseased; while the physicians who treated him for the injury, and who examined his foot frequently and with the X-rays, say that the bones are not injured, and that in time the foot will be restored to its normal condition.

We are not aware of any case in which the court has sustained a verdict as large as this one unless the injuries were permanent. The fact that the negligence was gross, and that punitive damages were allowed, and that appellee was entitled to more than mere compensation for his mental and physical suffering, does not imply that a jury are at liberty, unrestrained, to award by way of punitive damages any amount, however large it may be. This court has the same power and discretion to set aside a verdict, when excessive, in cases involving punitive damages as it has where only compensation is recovered. In every case, if the verdict appears to have been given under the influence of passion or prejudice, a new trial will be granted.

It will readily be conceded that it is peculiarly within the province of the jury to fix the amount of damage that a person is entitled to for mental and physical suffering, and will also be agreed that there is no rule by which the amount that should be awarded can be measured. For these reasons this court has always been reluctant to interfere with the finding of a jury upon the question of damages, and especially is this true when the injury is permanent, or of such a character as to disable the injured person from pursuing his usual occupation or employment, or one that will cause him to suffer serious pain probably through life. But, if appellee's foot should be fully restored, and there is a complete recovery, and he is placed in the same physical condition as he was before the injury, it appears to us at first blush that the verdict is too large. The future effect of the injury should be shown with reasonable certainty to authorize damages upon the score of permanent injury.

For the error in the amount of damages, the judgment must be reversed, with directions for a new trial.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—INFECTION FROM DISEASED ANIMAL—GOVERNMENT INSPECTION—DUTY OF EMPLOYERS—*O'Connor v. Armour Packing Company, United States Circuit Court of Appeals, Fifth Circuit, 158 Federal Reporter, page 241.*—This case was before the court on appeal from the circuit court for the southern district of Texas, in which O'Connor had sued to recover damages for injuries received, as alleged, while employed in the defendant company's slaughterhouse. Recovery was denied in the circuit court, but the court of appeals held that the case should go to the jury and remanded it for a new trial.

The injury was alleged to be the result of handling a carcass that conveyed anthrax infection, causing serious disease and suffering. The duty of the employer was held to be the same as in furnishing safe places and appliances, and the court ruled that he would not be allowed to offer the inspection by the United States Department of Agriculture as evidence of a discharge of this duty.

The opinion of the court was delivered by Judge Shelby, Judge Pardee dissenting. Judge Shelby spoke in part as follows:

It may be stated as a general rule that a master is bound to take ordinary and reasonable care not to subject his servant to unreasonable or extraordinary dangers by putting him to work in dangerous buildings, on dangerous premises, or with dangerous tools, machinery, or appliances. If the master fails in his duty in this respect, and the servant in consequence of such failure is injured, without fault on his part, and without having assumed the risk of the master's negligence, he may recover damages of the master. (4 Thompson on Negligence, sections 3759, 3986.) The same principle is applicable where the servant is put to work on material that is dangerous to his health or life. The duty of the master in this respect is primary and unassignable; that is he becomes responsible for the negligence or inexperience of anyone to whom he delegates the performance of it. (4 Thompson on Negligence, section 3988.) Thompson says that:

"No general definition of negligence can be of much value in the practical administration of justice."

The same observation is true as to the definition or statement of the degree of care required of an employer in protecting his employees from injury. It may be stated generally, however, that he is required to adopt all reasonable means and precautions to provide for the safety of his servants while in the performance of their work; and that he is required to exercise such care as an ordinarily prudent man would exercise under the circumstances. He is not an insurer of the safety of his servant, but is required to exercise ordinary and reasonable care for his safety. (1 Labatt on Master and Servant, section 14, and notes.)

The defense relied on by the defendant is that he did exercise reasonable and ordinary care, and that, if it be true that the plaintiff became infected as alleged, it was not by reason of negligence on the part of the defendant. There was no inspector of cattle or meats at the defendant's plant in Galveston. The evidence tends to show

that the calf which the plaintiff claims was infected was slaughtered at the defendant's plant in Fort Worth, and shipped to Galveston to be skinned, sold to butchers, and by them sold by retail to consumers. The defendant contends that it exercised ordinary and reasonable care, in that all cattle slaughtered in May, 1905, at its Fort Worth plant was inspected by men employed by them to purchase cattle, and especially that the United States Government inspectors inspected all cattle purchased and slaughtered at its plant in Fort Worth. The contention is that this evidence of inspection is such that it shows without conflict the exercise of reasonable and ordinary care, and therefore the absence of negligence. The evidence of inspection on the part of the defendant's agents is not urged as being in itself sufficient. J. E. McCarthy testified that he had been defendant's cattle buyer at Fort Worth for four years. "They are examined carefully. * * * We aim to buy something that will make good veal or beef, and, if it looks at all doubtful, we buy subject to Government inspection. If the animal seems to have anything at all the matter with it, we buy it separate, and it is held separate and the Government man takes it, etc. If it is all right, it is passed, and, if not, it is tanked. When it is tanked, it is boiled up and goes into grease for fertilizing." His plan was not to reject cattle, although it might seem to be diseased, but he would let it take its chance to pass the Government inspectors.

The contention of the plaintiff is that the defendant has negligently failed to perform this duty, and the contention of the defendant is that the inspection by the Government was all that could be required, and that, under the circumstances, the master was not chargeable with the duty of making any inspection. It was not denied that the doctrine requiring inspection was applicable to the case, but the contention is that the inspection provided was sufficient, as matter of law, to relieve the defendant of the charge of negligence.

The object of the Federal statutes requiring inspection was to provide additional safeguards against the traffic in spoiled or diseased cattle and meats. They should not be so construed or applied as to deprive anyone injured or damaged by the negligence or wrongdoing of a dealer in or a vendor of cattle or meats any remedy which he had under laws existing when the statutes were enacted. We are not of opinion that the inspection by Government officials of a place, machinery, instrumentality, or material necessarily and as matter of law releases the master from his duty to make such examinations and inspections as are required of him by the rule which demands that he exercise ordinary and reasonable care for the safety of his servant. This duty of the master is absolute and inalienable. He can not transfer it to another so as to avoid responsibility. (4 Thompson on Negligence, section 3791.) It would seem to follow that the court, in the absence of a statute requiring that course, can not permit another to assume the responsibility for him. In *McGregor v. Reid*, 178 Ill. 464, 53 N. E. 323, 69 Am. St. Rep. 332, it was held that inspection of freight elevators by city officers and indemnity companies did not as matter of law relieve the owner of the elevators from liability for their defective condition. Commenting on the effect of the inspection of others than the proprietor himself, Labatt says:

"It is difficult to admit that the fact of an appliance having been pronounced sound by an official inspector should be deemed to pre-

clude the jury from considering whether his inspection was really an adequate one. Such an inference seems to be unwarrantable without assuming the possession by such inspectors of a much larger measure of skill and diligence than can be fairly credited to any class of employees."

And the learned author adds:

"Another objection to holding the master not liable as matter of law is that the doctrine of nondelegable duties is virtually ignored." (1 Labatt on Master and Servant, section 165. See also 3 Thompson on Negligence, section 3700.)

Granting the contention of the defendant that, to show the exercise of reasonable and ordinary care, it may avail itself of the inspection proved to have been made under the supervision of the Government, it must of necessity follow that the defendant is burdened with the deficiencies, if any are shown, of such inspection. The defendant can not ask more than that the case should be examined as if the Government inspectors were its own inspectors. It is clear that the master's entire duty is not performed when he employs competent and skillful inspectors. That is only the first step necessary to secure the reasonable safety of his servant. There must be a reasonably careful and skillful inspection. Although the master may have engaged competent and skillful inspectors, if a servant is injured in consequence of a defect which would have been discovered by a reasonably careful and skillful inspection, but was not discovered, the master will be liable.

Was there evidence in the case from which the jury might have concluded that no inspection of the calf in question was made; or, if made, that it was made unskillfully and negligently? Dr. W. A. Knight, a witness called for the defendant, testified that anthrax would not necessarily be discovered by an inspection of the animal on foot. It might escape detection if it had not "broken out," but that after the animal is slaughtered, and a post-mortem examination is made, "the entire relations would be such that it could not possibly slip an inspector." The witness gives a full description of the effects of the disease in enlarging the organs of the animal and in causing "hemorrhagic spots." No one can read the description and fail to see that a reasonably careful inspection by a reasonably skillful inspector would easily discover the existence of disease.

INJUNCTION — GROUNDS — PROPERTY RIGHTS — INTERFERENCE —
Sailors' Union of the Pacific v. Hammond Lumber Company, United States Circuit Court of Appeals, 156 Federal Reporter, page 450.—
 In the circuit court of the United States for the northern district of California an injunction had been granted against the Sailors' Union of the Pacific, prohibiting interference with the business of the Hammond Lumber Company. The injunction was granted on representations of acts of violence committed by the union in furtherance of its purpose to secure an increase in rate of wages followed by a strike. A strike committee had been organized _____ of members of the

Sailors' Union of the Pacific, Pacific Coast Marine Firemen's Union, and the Marine Cooks' and Stewards' Association. This committee had the services of two launches which were used as picket boats, and the water front was also picketed by strikers. Threats of bodily injury, use of profane, insulting, and obscene language and the commission of brutal assaults upon crews, firemen, cooks, and stewards were alleged in the evidence and specific dates given. The union appealed, making various contentions as to the legality of form of the injunction and the power of the court to issue the same. The injunction was sustained by the circuit court of appeals in an opinion which was delivered by Judge Gilbert, the principal parts of which are as follows:

It is urged that the injunction was violative of the rights of the appellants; that the defendant unions and their members had the right to endeavor to improve their condition and to organize for that purpose, and had the right to communicate their desires to others, whether they were in the employment of the appellee or not, and to explain the differences that existed between their former employers and themselves; and that, if it became necessary to employ launches to carry out these purposes, they had the legal right to do so, as the waters of the bay of San Francisco are free to all. Conceding that the appellants had all of these rights, the argument ignores the salient facts brought to the attention of the court by the bill and the affidavits. It was not to prevent the exercise of any of such rights that the injunction was sought or obtained. Its purpose was to prevent acts of lawlessness, of violence, of insult, and of intimidation. No one can read the affidavits without arriving at the conclusion that members of the unions went far beyond the peaceful communication of their rights, their attitude toward their former employers, their purpose of self-protection, and the objects of their combination. It may be true, in the present case, as in many others of a similar character, that the disorders of the strike were deprecated by the officers and leaders of the unions, but that fact does not relieve the appellants of responsibility, nor render the court powerless to deal with them in their collective capacity for the violent acts which in the present case are shown to have been committed, and which, according to the affidavits, were threatened to be continued.

It is contended that the court erred in issuing the injunction for the reason that the appellee had no property right in that in which the court protected it, and it is argued that, while the appellee had a property right in its vessels, it had none in the labor of its employees, as the latter could leave its employment as they saw fit. To sustain that contention, Northern Pacific R. R. Co. *v.* Whalen, 149 U. S. 157, 13 Sup. Ct. 822, 37 L. Ed. 686, is cited. In that case the court held that the only ground on which, independently of an express statute, a court of equity could grant an injunction in a private action for nuisance, is special injury to property. The court said:

"No employer has such a property in his workmen, or in their services, that he can, under the ordinary jurisdiction of a court of chancery, maintain a suit as for a nuisance, against the keeper of a house at which they voluntarily buy intoxicating liquors, and thereby *get so drunk as to be unfit for work.*"

This language of the opinion is especially relied upon, but the distinction between that case and the case at bar is elsewhere clearly stated in the opinion, where the court pointed to the fact that the defendants had not conspired or intended to injure the plaintiff's property or business, or to prevent the plaintiff's workmen from performing their contracts of service. The bill in the case at bar alleges, and the affidavits prove, that the appellants had conspired to injure and destroy the appellee's business and to prevent its workmen from performing their contracts of service. The appellee's property is not only its vessels, but the business of carrying freight and passengers, without which the vessels would lose their value. The right to operate vessels, and to conduct business is as much property as are the vessels themselves. All the rights which are incident to the use, enjoyment, and disposition of tangible things are property. "Property is everything that has an exchangeable value." (Mr. Justice Swain, in *The Slaughterhouse Cases*, 16 Wall. 127, 21 L. Ed. 394.) "Property may be destroyed, or its value may be annihilated. It is owned and kept for some useful purpose, and it has no value unless it can be used." (In *re Jacobs*, 98 N. Y. 105, 50 Am. Rep. 336.)

But it is said that the injunction goes further than the law permits, in that by its language it prohibits the appellants from doing that which they have the lawful right to do. By the order of the court the appellants are enjoined "from in anywise interfering with the crews, foremen, cooks, stewards, seamen, or either of them or any of the servants or employees of the said steam schooners or steamship or either or any of them, without due process of law; * * * from in anywise interfering with the business of the said steam schooners and said steamship except by due process of law, with the business of complainant or orator of and concerning the said steam schooners and the said steamship; * * * and from in anywise conspiring, colluding or confederating together for the purpose of preventing the said steam schooners and steamship from receiving and discharging freight and passengers." It is said that under this injunction the appellants would be in contempt if they asked one of their relatives not to go as a passenger on one of the appellee's steamers, or if they made complaint of the violation of navigation laws of the appellee's vessels, or if they exercised their right to discriminate against the appellee by shipping cargo on other vessels than those of the appellee. The language of the injunction, however, is to be interpreted in the light of the allegations and prayer of the bill, and these may make an otherwise indefinite order sufficiently specific. (*Hamilton v. State*, 32 Md. 348.) It is the acts set forth in the bill that the appellants are enjoined from doing.

It is urged that there is no showing that the alleged damage is irreparable, but that, on the contrary, the showing is that, if the appellee was suffering any damage for which the appellants were liable, it was easy of estimation and could have been recovered in a single action against any of the appellants, who are abundantly able to respond in damages. It is true that the answer to the bill alleges that the appellants are not insolvent, and that they possess \$150,000 in cash in bank. But it may be said, in general, that ground is presented for injunctive relief whenever there is actual and threatened

injury to property, coupled with facts bringing the case within one of the recognized grounds of equitable jurisdiction, and showing that there is no plain, adequate, or complete remedy at law.

Said the court, in *Walla Walla City v. Walla Walla Water Co.*, 172 U. S. 1, 19 Sup. Ct. 77, 43 L. Ed. 341:

"The remedy at law, in order to exclude a concurrent remedy at equity, must be as complete as practical, and as efficient to the ends of justice and its prompt administration as the remedy in equity."

One ground of equitable jurisdiction in cases of continuing trespass is the fact that the measure of damages is exceedingly difficult of ascertainment. In such a case the solvency or insolvency of the wrongdoer is an immaterial fact. (*Kellogg v. King*, 114, Cal. 378, 46 Pac. 166, 55 Am. St. Rep. 74.) And relief by injunction may be invoked as a remedy for the destruction of one's business, if in such a case no action at law would afford as complete, prompt, and efficient a remedy. (*North v. Peters*, 138 U. S. 271, 11 Sup. Ct. 346, 34 L. Ed. 936; *Watson v. Sutherland*, 5 Wall. 74, 18 L. Ed. 580.) It is made sufficiently clear by the allegations of the bill and the facts proven that, notwithstanding that the appellants may possess \$150,000, the remedy at law is not as complete, prompt, and adequate as the remedy in equity. The remedy at law would involve a multitude of suits and delay, pending which the injury to the appellee's business might proceed to ultimate destruction. The question of withholding or granting the injunction was one which rested in the sound discretion of the circuit court. We find no ground for saying that there was abuse of that discretion.

INTERFERENCE WITH EMPLOYMENT—MALICIOUS PROCUREMENT OF DISCHARGE—DAMAGES—*Gibson v. Fidelity and Casualty Company*, *Supreme Court of Illinois*, 83 *Northeastern Reporter*, page 539.—This was an action by Jacob N. Gibson against the company named for damages for wrongfully procuring his discharge from employment. A judgment for \$1,200 was given him in the circuit court of Cook County, which was affirmed by the appellate court and again by the supreme court. The defendants had asked the trial judge to direct a verdict of not guilty, and afterwards to give an instruction to the same effect, and it was the refusal to do this that was complained of in the appeals.

The position of the trial court was sustained for reasons that appear in the opinion of the court, which also states the facts. This was delivered by Judge Cartwright, and is as follows:

The plaintiff was a die maker in the employ of the Union Drop Forge Company, at \$2.65 a day. He met with an injury to one eye on August 26, 1897, from which he was laid up about thirteen weeks. After recovering he returned to his work, and on August 2, 1899, he brought a suit against his employer, the Union Drop Forge Company, for damages on account of the injury. On October 21, 1899, he was discharged by William G. Holbrook, the president and treasurer of the company. At the time he had been working for the company

about ten years; but his employment was at the will of the parties, and he had no contract for future employment. He was without employment until the first part of December, 1899, when he secured work elsewhere. In his suit he claimed \$10,000 damages, and the Union Drop Forge Company was insured by the defendant against accidents and injuries of the character for which the suit was brought. By the policy of insurance the defendant had agreed to defend against such claims and would be liable to the amount of \$5,000 in case of recovery. The controverted question of fact was whether the defendant caused the discharge of the plaintiff, and the only evidence tending in any manner to connect the defendant with the discharge, or to prove that it induced the Union Drop Forge Company to discharge the plaintiff, consisted of testimony that John A. Post, the general manager of the defendant in Chicago, and Holbrook, made statements or admissions to that effect. The plaintiff belonged to a labor union, and he went with a committee of that union to see Holbrook. The plaintiff and two members of the committee testified that Holbrook said his company was satisfied with plaintiff's work, and would be willing to put him back at work, but could not do it; that his company had an agreement with the defendant, and if they would get a letter from Post he would reemploy plaintiff. They further testified that they then went to see Post, and Post said that they had caused the discharge and did not intend to let plaintiff work to earn money to fight them with, and that he did not propose to have plaintiff go to work there, or anywhere else, if he could prevent it. There was evidence for defendant, by Holbrook, that when his company was sued he called up Post, the manager of the defendant, and advised with him as to whether it would be necessary or advisable or expedient to keep the plaintiff in their employ under the circumstances; that Post said they could use their own judgment; and that it was on their own judgment and on their own motion that the discharge was made. The letters which passed between Holbrook and Post tended to substantiate that version of the affair, and, of course, it is conceded that the Union Drop Forge Company could discharge the plaintiff whenever it saw fit, because he had brought a suit against it, or for any other reason, or for no reason at all and through malice. If the Union Drop Forge Company discharged the plaintiff because he had brought the suit, or because it did not choose to pay him money with which he could carry on the suit, no cause of action would arise in his favor; but under the doctrines announced in the case of *London Guarantee & Accident Co. v. Horn*, 206 Ill. 493, 69 N. E. 526, 99 Am. St. Rep. 185, there would be a cause of action against the defendant if it procured the discharge of the plaintiff with the motive of injuring him. Post and another witness denied that there was any such admission made by Post as was testified to by plaintiff and the two members of the labor committee. Their evidence was that Post said it did not make any particular difference to the defendant whether the Union Drop Forge Company reemployed plaintiff or not; that he made no statement or admission that he or the defendant had procured the discharge of plaintiff; and that the conversation consisted only of a discussion between him and the committee as to the propriety of an employer keeping a laborer in his employ who had a suit pending against him which the employer believed to be without merit,

and as to what course the members of the committee would themselves take under the same circumstances.

The court was not authorized, in passing on the motion to direct a verdict and the instruction tendered with the motion, to weigh the conflicting evidence and determine on which side the preponderance was. Only the evidence favorable to plaintiff could be considered, and if such evidence, with all the reasonable inferences to be drawn therefrom, would be sufficient to sustain a judgment for the plaintiff, it was the duty of the court to deny the motion, refuse the instruction, and submit the question to the jury. The testimony above detailed, given by the plaintiff and the two members of the committee, of the alleged statements and admissions of Holbrook and Post, fairly tended to prove the cause of action alleged in the declaration, and therefore the court did not err in refusing to direct a verdict. The controverted question of fact as to whether the discharge of the plaintiff was caused by the wrongful act of the defendant has been settled by the judgment of the appellate court.

The next ground of complaint is that the attorney for the plaintiff, in his closing argument, made improper and prejudicial remarks to the jury for the purpose of inflaming their minds and biasing their judgment, and that on objection being made the court overruled the objection. In the course of his argument the attorney for plaintiff said that the defendant, in what it did, was trying to starve the plaintiff into a settlement of his suit against the Union Drop Forge Company. This argument was founded on the testimony for the plaintiff as to statements made by Post, and the attorney was contending that the motive of the defendant was an improper and malicious one. The argument did not exceed the proper and reasonable limits allowed in the discussion of evidence before a jury.

It is also argued that the evidence did not warrant an assessment of exemplary damages. There was no instruction given to the jury which authorized an assessment of exemplary damages, and the question of the amount of actual damage is one of fact, which we are not authorized to review. The evidence was that the plaintiff was only out of employment a very short time, and at the time of the trial was receiving much larger wages than when in the employ of the Union Drop Forge Company, and perhaps the verdict can only be accounted for by assuming that exemplary damages were included. If that is so, there is evidence in the record which, if believed by the jury, would justify exemplary damages.

The judgment of the appellate court is affirmed.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS—CAPACITY—LIABILITY FOR VIOLATION OF INJUNCTION—APPEALS—*A. R. Barnes & Co. v. Chicago Typographical Union No. 16, Supreme Court of Illinois, 83 Northeastern Reporter, page 932.*—The firm named was a member of the Chicago Typothetæ, an unincorporated association of employing printers, and had procured an injunction against the defendants forbidding the picketing of their premises and otherwise interfering with their employees in the conduct of their business. From this injunction an appeal was

taken and the proper bond filed, and the members of the union continued to perform acts of the same nature as those complained of. The plaintiffs then began proceedings to procure punishment of the offenders for contempt of court, and a fine of \$1,000 was assessed against the union, which action was affirmed by the appellate court, and, on further appeal, by the supreme court, Judges Scott and Farmer dissenting.

Various points of interest were involved, as the status of the union as a party to an action, the power of the appellate court to punish during the pendency of an appeal and the matter of the collection of the fine. These were taken up in order by Judge Cartwright, who delivered the opinion of the court, and who spoke in part as follows:

The first point made by counsel for the appellant in his argument is that it is neither a natural nor an artificial person, and therefore it could not be made a defendant in this proceeding. The bill of complaint in the suit for an injunction in which the decree was entered alleged that appellant was a labor union organized and existing in the city of Chicago; that it had presented to appellees a contract to be executed by them in which appellant agreed to do certain things; that it had an executive committee, issued circulars, published a directory, exercised control over its members, furnished money to induce employees of appellees' to leave their service, and as an association interfered with their business, and did various acts charged in the bill. The appellant came into court and demurred to the bill and appealed from the decree to the appellate court, giving its bond, and not raising any question as to its legal capacity to be sued or as to its legal status. In this proceeding the appellant came into court and answered as an organization having a legal existence, with a constitution, by-laws, and officers, and doing business to carry out the objects of the organization. The time and place to raise the question by what name and in what manner the association, or the aggregation of individuals of which it was composed, might be made defendant in a suit in equity, was in the original suit. Whether it was no more than a mere partnership, with the rights and liabilities incident to that relation, or whether it had any definite legal status, was a question to be considered then. Joined with appellant were various officers in their capacity as representing appellant, and it does not appear that any objection was made that the association was not properly before the court. If it would not be regarded as a legal entity in the action at law, it does not follow that the decree was a nullity, or that the association could violate the injunction with impunity. It is wholly immaterial in this proceeding whether the decree was erroneous or not, and the association is amenable to the court and the law for any violation of it.

The important question in the case, and the one to which the argument is almost wholly devoted, relates to the jurisdiction of the superior court to entertain this proceeding and punish appellant for violating the injunction after an appeal had been taken from the decree. The law is that an appeal enjoining a defendant from doing an act does not suspend the operation of the injunction, stay it in

any manner, or disturb its operative force. The appeal does not have the effect of dissolving or suspending the injunction and the defendant acquires no right to disregard it by the execution of an appeal bond. The doing of the act enjoined may be punished as a contempt notwithstanding the appeal, and the contempt is a contempt of the court which granted the injunction. The question being by what court the contempt can be punished, the natural answer would be by the court whose order is disobeyed, and whose dignity and authority are defied. And, indeed, it does not seem to be disputed that if the proceeding is in the name of the people, for the purpose of maintaining the dignity and authority of the court, an appeal would present no obstacle to it. Such a proceeding is wholly independent of the appeal or any question to be considered by the appellate tribunal, and we see no substantial distinction between a prosecution for contempt instituted for the purpose of punishing a person for disobeying an order of the court on the ground that its authority or dignity is in question and one which is instituted to enforce the authority of the court in the administration of justice between litigants. The question whether the injunction was properly awarded or whether the decree was erroneous is not involved in either. A defendant can not refuse to obey an injunction, however improvidently or erroneously granted, but he is bound, at his peril, to obey it while it remains in force.

To adopt a rule that the court granting an injunction must stand idly by and see it violated while an appeal is pending, and after the case is reinstated in that court may then proceed to punish, would be attended with evil consequences. All that it would be necessary for a defendant to do to secure immunity until the case should be reinstated in the court would be to pray an appeal and file a bond. If the court should be denied the right to compel obedience to the prohibition of the decree until the original case has completed its rounds through the courts the appellees might lose all the benefits of their litigation and have their business ruined, although the decree should finally be affirmed. We are not prepared to adopt or declare such a doctrine.

By the final order of the superior court imposing the fine, appellant was ordered to pay the same to the clerk of the court, and it was further ordered that, if such payment should not be made, execution should issue for the collection of the fine in the name of the people for the use of the appellees [Barnes & Co.]. The judgment was in proper form, and the court properly ordered execution in default of payment, but the execution should not be in the form directed. If the fine shall be paid to the clerk, an execution will not be necessary; but, if it becomes necessary to issue an execution, it will not be for the use of the appellees, and the order will be modified by striking out that feature. There is no statute in this State which authorizes the appropriation of a fine imposed for a contempt of court to the party injured by the act constituting the contempt or who prosecutes the proceeding for the contempt.

The form of the order for execution being modified, the record is free from error, and the judgment of the appellate court is affirmed.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS—TRADE AGREEMENTS—POWER OF COMMITTEE TO CONTRACT—PAYMENT OF STRIKE BENEFITS—CONTROL OF FUNDS BY INJUNCTION.—*A. R. Barnes & Co. v. Berry, United States Circuit Court, Southern District of Ohio, Western Division, 157 Federal Reporter, page 883.*—This was an action brought by Barnes & Co., members of the United Typothetæ of America, against Berry and McMullen, officers of the International Printing Pressmen and Assistants' Union of America, both voluntary associations, to determine the effect of an agreement alleged to exist between the two organizations, and to prevent its violation by the members of the union.

The agreement referred to was one that had been entered into for the purpose of establishing "between the employing printers of the United States and their pressmen and feeders uniform shop practices and fair scales of wages, settlement of all questions arising between them, and the abolition of strikes, sympathetic or otherwise, lockouts and boycotts." Among its provisions was one that looked to the introduction of the eight-hour day on January 1, 1909.

This agreement had been entered into by committees representing the two bodies, and had been ratified by a special convention of the Typothetæ, but was repudiated by the union at its annual convention in 1907, and a referendum vote of its members determined on the inauguration of the eight-hour day on November 18, 1907. The committee of the union had been directed to renew a former agreement which provided for a nine-hour day, at the same time "to strive with all power possible to have some concessions made by the Typothetæ toward having the eight-hour day established within a reasonable time." At the same meeting a special fund was arranged for, to be known as the "Shorter workday fund."

Two questions were involved in the suit, first, as to whether the committee of the union had full and final authority to make the contract; and secondly, whether performance of such contract could be enforced indirectly by enjoining the officers of the union from paying strike benefits, and from doing anything in furtherance of strikes.

The decision of the court, which was delivered by Judge Thompson, was adverse to the contentions of the plaintiffs, Barnes & Co., on both questions, as appears from the following extracts from his opinion. Having discussed in some detail the efforts of the union to secure the adoption of the eight-hour day, Judge Thompson said:

The Typothetæ had theretofore refused to consider the adoption of the "eight-hour day," and the convention of the union had declared in favor of its adoption immediately after the expiration of the existing agreement, unless the two associations could agree upon some reasonable time thereafter, and the directors were instructed to obtain from the Typothetæ a declaration as to whether it would agree to the "eight-hour day;" that is, whether the Typothetæ would con-

sider the demand for it, and at some time agree to it. The directors were not authorized in securing the renewal of the existing agreement to add new terms thereto; nor were they instructed to determine what would be a reasonable time after the expiration of the existing agreement within which to inaugurate the "eight-hour day," nor were they empowered to conclude a new agreement with the Typothetae. If they succeeded in securing the consent of the Typothetae to the renewal of the old agreement, with a declaration as to whether or not the "eight-hour day" would be agreed to, the instructions given them would be fulfilled, and their only remaining duty would be to report their action to the next convention. In their report it would have been proper to recommend what action, in their opinion, should be taken by the convention, giving their reasons therefor, but, under the instructions given them, final action could be taken only by the convention. The board of directors exceeded its authority in permitting new matter to be added to the renewal agreement, and in assuming power to bind the union by the agreement entered into by them with the Typothetae.

As to the second point the court spoke as follows:

If the board of directors were authorized to enter into the agreement on behalf of the union can performance thereof by the men of the union be enforced by injunction? The agreement is not a contract of employment between members of the Typothetae and men of the union, but is a contract between the two associations for the purposes hereinbefore stated. We are not advised of the terms of the employment of union men by members of the Typothetae, except as to hours of labor. So far as we are advised by the pleadings and the evidence, they might at any time, without breach of the contract of employment, withdraw from the service of the Typothetae. It is not shown that they agreed to work for any definite time, nor is there any provision in the agreement between the two associations fixing the time of service, and if, therefore, they should, at any time, with or without cause, withdraw from the service of members of the Typothetae, they would be within their rights. As heretofore stated, the agreement was repudiated by the union at the Brighton Beach convention, and thereafter the men of the union, by a referendum vote, declared in favor of the inauguration of the "eight-hour day" on November 18, 1907, and its maintenance is now the established policy of the union, and the defendants, its officers, are charged with the duty of carrying it out, and pending the strikes incident thereto may the men employed by the Typothetae be deprived of the advice and assistance of their officers and of strike benefits? The strike benefit fund is created by moneys deposited by the men with the general officers for the support of themselves and families in times of strikes, and the court has no more control of it than it would have over deposits made by them in the banks, and the attempt to enforce specific performance of the agreement by enjoining the officers from performing their functions can not be entertained. The court will not by indirect methods compel the men to continue in the service of the Typothetae and work nine hours a day. The agreement only requires that, if they work at all, they shall work nine hours a day. There is no agreement that they shall continue in the service of the Typothetae until January 1, 1909.

The bill will be dismissed, at the complainants' costs.

**LAWS OF VARIOUS STATES RELATING TO LABOR, ENACTED SINCE
JANUARY 1, 1904.**

[The Tenth Special Report of this Bureau contains all laws of the various States and Territories and of the United States relating to labor, in force January 1, 1904. Later enactments are reproduced in successive issues of the Bulletin, beginning with Bulletin No. 57, the issue of March, 1905. A cumulative index of these later enactments is to be found on page 1037 et seq. of this issue.]

DELAWARE.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 116.—Board of immigration—Contract laborers.

SECTION 3. The duties of said [immigration] commissioners shall be:

First. To contract with and appoint an agent or agents in Europe and elsewhere and subject to the methods as their judgment may direct, invite and encourage immigration to this State. Also to contract, in the name of the State, with laborers in foreign countries for the purpose of bringing said laborers to this State for agricultural purposes.

* * * * *
Approved April 4, A. D. 1907.

MINNESOTA.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 180.—Free public employment offices.

SECTION 1. The commissioner of labor of the State of Minnesota is hereby directed to organize and establish in all cities in this State containing fifty thousand (50,000) inhabitants, or more, free public employment bureaus, for the purpose of receiving applications from persons seeking employment, and applications from employers desiring to employ labor. There shall be no fee or compensation charged or received, directly or indirectly, from persons applying for employment, or from those desiring to employ labor through said bureaus. There shall be appointed by the commissioner of labor, for such bureaus, one superintendent, who may be removed by the commissioner for good and sufficient cause, such appointment to be made immediately after this act becomes a law, and thereafter at the commencement of the biennial session of the legislature, the salary of such superintendent shall not exceed (\$1,200) twelve hundred dollars per annum.

SEC. 2. The superintendent of such bureaus shall cause to be received and recorded in books to be kept for that purpose, the names of all persons applying for employment, as well as the name and address of all persons, firms or corporations applying to employ labor, designating opposite the name and address of each applicant the character of employment desired or offered. Such superintendent shall also perform such other duties in the collection of labor statistics, and in the keeping of books and accounts of such bureaus as the commissioner may direct or require, and shall report monthly all business transacted by such bureaus to the office of the commissioner of labor, at the State capitol.

SEC. 3. Every application for employment by employer or employee which is made to the free employment bureaus shall be void after thirty days from its receipt, unless the same be renewed by the applicant. When an applicant for labor has secured the same, he shall within ten days thereafter notify the superintendent of such bureaus upon a notification card provided for that purpose. If any such applicant neglects to notify such superintendent, he or they shall be barred from all future rights and privileges of such employment

bureaus at the discretion of the commissioner of labor, to whom the superintendent shall report such neglect.

SEC. 4. There is hereby annually appropriated out of any money in the State treasury not otherwise appropriated, the sum of ten thousand (\$10,000) dollars, or so much thereof as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of this act.

Approved April 13, 1907.

CHAPTER 202.—*Safety appliances on railroads.*

SECTION 1. On and after the first day of July, nineteen hundred and eight, it shall be unlawful for any railway company or common carrier, in moving freight between points in the State, to haul or permit to be hauled, or used on its line, any car not equipped with couplers, coupling automatically by impact, and which can be uncoupled without the necessity of men going between the ends of the cars.

SEC. 2. On and after the first day of July, nineteen hundred and eight, it shall be unlawful for any railway company or common carrier, in moving freight between points in the State, to use any car that is not provided with secure grab irons or hand holds in the ends and sides of each car for the greater security to men in coupling and uncoupling cars.

SEC. 3. Any railway company or common carrier violating any of the provisions of this act shall forfeit to the State one hundred dollars (\$100) for each and every such violation.

Approved April 15, 1907.

CHAPTER 253.—*Hours of labor of employees on railroads.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any railroad company within the State of Minnesota, or any of its officers or agents, to require or permit any employee engaged in or connected with the movement of any rolling stock, engine or train, to remain on duty more than sixteen consecutive hours, or to require or permit any such employee who has been on duty sixteen consecutive hours to perform any further service without having had at least eight hours' rest, or to require or permit any such employee to be on duty at any time to exceed sixteen hours in any consecutive twenty-four hours: *Provided, however,* That this section shall not apply to work performed in the protection of life or property in cases of accident, wreck or other unavoidable casualty: *And, provided further,* That it shall not apply to the time necessary for trainmen to reach a resting place when an accident, wreck, washout, snow blockade or other unavoidable cause has delayed their train.

SEC. 2. Any officer of any railroad company in the State of Minnesota violating any of the provisions of this act shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction, shall be punished by a fine of not less than one hundred dollars (\$100), and not more than five hundred (\$500) for each offense, or by imprisonment in the county jail not more than sixty days, or both fine and imprisonment in the discretion of the court.

It shall be the duty of the State railroad and warehouse commission, upon complaint properly filed with it alleging a violation of this act, to make a full investigation in relation thereto, and for such purpose it shall have the power to administer oaths, interrogate witnesses, take testimony and require the production of books and papers, and if such report shall show a violation of the provisions of this act the commission shall, through the attorney-general, begin the prosecution of all parties against whom evidence of violation of the provisions of this act is found; but this act shall not be construed to prevent any other person from beginning prosecution for violation of the provisions hereof.

Approved April 19, 1907.

CHAPTER 276.—*Safety appliances on railroads.*

SECTION 1. Whenever in the judgment of the railroad and warehouse commission it is necessary for the public safety, said commission may require, at all railroad crossings, junctions and drawbridges in said State, the establishment of interlocking devices, or such other safety appliances as are necessary for the protection and safety of the traveling public.

Where two or more railroad companies are interested, the division of the expense of installing, maintaining and operating said interlocking plant or safety device shall be agreed upon by the respective companies required to install the same; in case they can not agree, then such division shall be determined by the railroad and warehouse commission after a hearing.

SEC. 2. The commission may require any railroad company on any part of its line or lines operated in this State, to install and operate a "block signal system" or any other device [device] or appliance that in its judgment will best promote the public safety.

SEC. 3. Any railroad company neglecting to comply with any order of the commission made under this act, shall be liable to a penalty of twenty-five dollars (\$25) for each day such neglect shall continue, to be recovered in a civil action in the name of the State and paid into the general fund of the State treasury.

Approved April 22, 1907.

CHAPTER 200.—*Accidents on railroads.*

SECTION 1. Section 1, chapter 122, General Laws of 1905, is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

Section 1. It shall be the duty of every railroad company operating a line of railroad in this State to report all accidents, wrecks or casualties occurring in this State to the railroad and warehouse commission. This is intended to include all accidents, wrecks or casualties occurring in the operation of trains or engines on said line or lines of railway within this State, and all other accidents or casualties of whatever nature as may be required under rules adopted by the commission. Any reports to the commission herein required shall not be for public inspection.

All accidents or wrecks occurring in the operation of trains or engines involving loss of life or personal injury, shall be immediately reported to the commission by telegraph or telephone message, and the company shall forthwith send a written report in detail giving full particulars available in such form as the commission may require. All other accidents, including accidents resulting in personal injury or death, other than train accidents, shall be reported to the commission on the first day of each month, covering the preceding month.

SEC. 2. Section 2, chapter 122, is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

Sec. 2. Whenever any report is made to the commission involving a wreck, accident or casualty, and the commission deems it necessary, it shall forthwith examine into the causes and circumstances of the same, and it shall thereupon be the duty of the commission to order such railroad company to comply with any reasonable requirement prescribed by the commission, calculated to prevent the recurrence of any such wreck, accident or casualty, and it shall be the duty of the commission to report to the legislature biennially a summarized statement of all wrecks, accidents or casualties reported, together with a recommendation of such additional legislation as it deems proper for the greater protection of passengers and employees of railroad companies.

Approved April 22, 1907.

CHAPTER 203.—*Cooperative associations.*

SECTION 1. Any cooperative association may be formed for the purpose of selling and otherwise disposing of any product of any manufacturing or agricultural cooperative association, organized under the provisions of section 3073, Revised Laws, 1905, or chapter 276 or 313, General Laws, 1905, and any amendments thereto. Its certificates of incorporation shall be filed for record with the secretary of state, and thereupon it shall become a corporation. A majority of the incorporators thereof shall be residents of this State, and its duration, without renewal, shall not exceed twenty years.

SEC. 2. Every such association shall have a president, a treasurer and not less than three directors, who shall together constitute a board of managers and conduct its business. Such officers shall be chosen annually by the stockholders, and shall hold their offices until others shall be chosen and qualified. The association shall make its own by-laws, not inconsistent with the law, and may herein provide for any other officers deemed necessary, and the mode of their selection. It may amend its articles of incorporation at any general

stockholders' meeting, or at any special meeting called for that purpose, upon ten days' notice to the stockholders. The amount of capital stock shall be fixed by the articles of incorporation, which amount and the number of shares may be increased or diminished at a stockholders' meeting, specially called for that purpose, but the whole amount of stock shall never exceed one hundred thousand dollars. Within thirty days after the adoption of the amendment increasing or diminishing its capital stock, it shall cause the vote so adopting it to be recorded in the office of the secretary of state. No share shall be issued for less than its par value, and no member shall own shares of a greater par value than one thousand dollars, or be entitled to more than one vote. It may commence business whenever 20 per cent of the authorized stock has been subscribed for and paid in, but no certificate of shares shall be issued to any person until the full amount of such subscription therein has been paid in cash, and no person shall become a shareholder therein except by the consent of the managers. If such board of managers, or the directors or officers having control of such association, for five consecutive years after its organization shall fail to declare a dividend upon its capital or shares, five or more stockholders, by petition, setting forth such fact, may apply to the district court of the county, wherein is situated its principal place of business in this State, for its dissolution. If, upon hearing, the allegations of the petition are found to be true, the court may adjudge a dissolution of the association. The profits on the earnings of such association shall be distributed to those entitled thereto by its by-laws and in proportions and at the times therein prescribed, which shall be as often as once in twelve months. Every corporation organized under the terms of this act shall, on or before December 30th, in each year, make a report to the State dairy and food commissioner; such report shall contain the name of the corporation, its principal place of business in this State, and generally a statement as to its business, showing total amount of business transacted, its profits and losses.

SEC. 3. Any corporation heretofore or hereafter organized under the provisions of section 3073, Revised Laws, 1905, or chapters 276 or 313, General Laws, 1905, is hereby authorized, in addition to those other powers to it granted, upon an affirmative vote of a majority of its stockholders, had at any regularly called annual or special meeting, to subscribe, through its officers, to the capital stock of any corporation organized under the provisions of this act, pay for the same and thereafter, in like manner, vote the same and exercise all the usual powers of a stockholder in a corporation, subject to the limitations hereinbefore set forth.

Approved April 22, 1907.

CHAPTER 299.—*Employment of children—General provisions.*

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 724-727.)

CHAPTER 356.—*Bureau of labor industries and commerce.*

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 888, 889.)

CHAPTER 368.—*Employment offices.*

SECTION 1. Section one thousand eight hundred and twenty-five (1825) of the Revised Laws of Minnesota, is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 1825. Any person desiring to conduct an employment bureau or agency, and to receive compensation for his services, shall be entitled to a license therefor upon compliance with the conditions of this section; but this subdivision shall apply to the employment of males only. Application for such license shall be made to the council of the city or village in which the agency is to be established, or, if outside a city or village, to the county board, and the applicant shall pay into the treasury a fee of \$100.00 (one hundred dollars). He shall also deliver to such council or board a bond to the State in the sum of two thousand (\$2,000) dollars, conditioned for the payment of all damages sustained by any person engaged by the obligor to labor for others, by reason of any authorized act, fraud or misrepresentation of the obligor or any of his agents or servants. The bond shall be filed with the city clerk, village recorder or county auditor, as the case may be. So long as the licensee continues to reside or maintain his office at the place mentioned in the license, he may engage in such business in any part of the State.

Approved April 23, 1907.

CHAPTER 456.—*Factories, workshops, etc.—Female inspector.*

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 889, 890.)

MISSOURI.

ACTS OF 1907.

Free public employment offices.

(Page 8.)

SECTION 29. * * * A free employment bureau shall be maintained at St. Louis, Kansas City and St. Joseph.

Approved May 13, 1907.

Employment of children—Age limit.

(Page 86.)

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 732-735.)

Blocking of frogs, switches, etc., on railroads.

(Page 181.)

SECTION 1. All companies or corporations, lessees or other persons owning or operating any railroad or part of railroad in this State, are hereby required, on or before the first day of September, nineteen hundred and seven (1907), to adopt, put in use and maintain the best known appliances or inventions to fill or block all switches, frogs and guard-rails on their roads, in all yards, divisional and terminal stations, and where trains are made up, to prevent, as far as possible, the feet of employees or other persons from being caught therein. Any company or corporation, lessees or other persons, owning or operating any railroad, or part of a railroad, in this State, who shall fail to do any act or thing in this section required to be done, or shall cause any act or thing not to be done, or shall aid or abet any such omission, shall be deemed guilty of a violation of this law, and shall forfeit and pay the sum of ten dollars (\$10.00) for every such offense, and each day shall constitute a separate and distinct offense. At every term of a court of record of this State having criminal jurisdiction, the judge thereof shall direct and charge grand juries to make special inquiry as to violation of this law.

SEC. 2. When any employee or other person shall be injured, maimed or killed, by reason of the noncompliance with the provisions of this act, then in any action for damages which may be instituted against any railroad company, corporation or lessee for such injuring, maiming or killing, proof of contributory negligence or carelessness on the part of any employee or other person so injured, maimed or killed, shall not relieve such railroad company, [corporation] or lessee from liability.

Approved February 28, 1907.

Safety appliances on railroads.

(Page 182.)

SECTION 1. From and after the first day of January, 1908, it shall be unlawful for any person, persons, partnership or corporation, operating any line of railroad, in whole or in part, within this State, either as owner, lessee or receiver, for the purpose of moving freight or passengers between points wholly within this State, to use upon such line of railroad any locomotive or engine to move such train of cars over such railroad without [having] such locomotive or engine equipped with power drive wheel brakes and fully and properly equipped with air brake appliances so that the engineer operating such locomotive or engine, shall have the means of fully and completely controlling the air brakes on the cars attached to said locomotive and engine without recourse to hand brakes, except in cases of emergency.

SEC. 2. From and after the first day of January, 1908, it shall be unlawful for any person, persons, company or corporation, operating any line of railroad, in whole or in part, in this State, either as owner, lessee or receiver, to use or permit to be used or hauled between stations within this State, on said line of railroad, any locomotive, tender, car or other vehicle for moving persons or freight, which shall not be equipped with hand holds, grab irons and couplers, coupling automatically by impact, and which can be coupled without the necessity of men going between the ends of the cars for the purpose of effecting such coupling.

SEC. 3. From and after the first day of January, 1908, it shall be unlawful for any person, persons, company or corporation, operating any line of railroad, in whole or in part within this State, whether as owner, lessee or receiver, to use any locomotive, tender, car or similar vehicle for the purpose of carrying persons or freight, on its line of railroad, between stations wholly within the State, unless such locomotive, tender, car or other similar vehicle shall be equipped with standard drawbars; that the standard height of drawbars on all standard-gauge roads shall be thirty-four and one-half inches, measuring from the top of the track rails to the center of the drawbar; and upon narrow-gauge roads such standard drawbar shall be twenty-six inches from the top of the track rails to the center of the drawbar, and the maximum variation from such standard height to be allowed between empty [and] loaded cars shall be three inches, whether or not the drawbars brought together are of the same kind, make or type.

SEC. 4. From and after the first day of January, 1908, it shall be unlawful for any person, persons, company or corporation, operating any line of railroad, in whole or in part, in this State, either as owner, lessee or receiver, to operate any train of cars over such line of railroad between stations within this State, unless at least 75 per cent of the cars composing such train shall be equipped with air or power brakes and [if] any of the remaining twenty-five per centum of such cars composing such train shall be so equipped with such air or power brakes they shall be so associated and connected that brakes thereon can be used, managed and operated by the engineer of the locomotive drawing such train.

SEC. 5. Whenever any person, persons, company or corporation operating any railroad, in whole or in part, in this State, either as owner, lessee or receiver, shall have equipped the locomotives, tenders, cars and similar vehicles used for the carrying of persons and freight between any stations within this State, in the manner and with the appliances and devices prescribed by this act, such railroad may refuse to receive for transportation over its line or lines or road any car or cars from connecting lines which are not equipped in accordance with the provisions of this act, without incurring any liability as a common carrier on account of such refusal.

SEC. 6. The provisions and requirements of this act relating to power drive wheel brakes, train brakes, automatic couplers, grab irons and the standard height of drawbars, shall be held to apply to all trains, locomotives, tenders, cars and similar devices used on or by any railroad engaged in the transportation of persons and freight between points within the State of Missouri: *Provided, however,* That the provisions of this act shall not apply to street railroads nor to tram railroads employed in the transportation of logs.

SEC. 7. Any such person, persons, company or corporation operating any railroad, in whole or in part, within this State, whether as owner, lessee or receiver, who shall violate any of the provisions of this act, shall be liable to the State of Missouri in a penalty of not less than one hundred nor more than five hundred dollars for each offense, and such penalty shall be recovered and suit therefor shall be brought in the name of the State of Missouri, in any court of competent jurisdiction in any county in the State, into or through which such railway may run, by the attorney-general, or under his direction, or by the prosecuting attorney of any county through or into or out of which trains may be operated by such railroad or by the circuit attorney in the city of St. Louis.

SEC. 8. Any employee of such railroad so operated as aforesaid who may be injured by any train, locomotive, tender, car or similar vehicle in use contrary to the provisions of this act, shall not be deemed to have assumed the risk thereby occasioned, nor to have been guilty of contributory negligence, because of continuing in the employment of such railroad or in the performance of his duties as such employee after the unlawful use of such train, locomotive, tender, car or similar device shall have been brought to his knowledge.

Approved March 19, 1907.

Liability of mine operators for injuries to employees.

(Page 251.)

(See Bulletin No. 74, p. 70.)

Actions for personal injuries—Survival.

(Page 252.)

SECTION 1. Causes of action upon which suit has been or may hereafter be brought by the injured party for personal injuries, other than those resulting in death, whether such injuries be to the health or to the person of the injured party, shall not abate by reason of his death, nor by reason of the death of the person against whom such cause of action shall have accrued; but in case of the death of either or both such parties, such cause of action shall survive to the personal representative of such injured party, and against the person, receiver or corporation liable for such injuries and his legal representatives, and the liability and the measure of damages shall be the same as if such death or deaths had not occurred.

Approved March 19, 1907.

Factory inspectors.

(Page 326.)

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 897, 898.)

Bureau of labor.

(Page 329.)

SECTION 1. Section 10073, Revised Statutes of Missouri of 1890 is hereby amended * * * so that said section, when amended, shall read as follows:

Section 10073. There is hereby established a separate and distinct department in this State, to be known as the "Bureau of Labor Statistics."

SEC. 2. Section 10074, * * * is hereby amended * * * so that said section when amended shall read as follows:

Sec. 10074. The object of this department shall be to collect, assort, systematize and present in annual report to the governor to be by him transmitted biennially to the general assembly, statistical details and information relating to all departments of labor in the State, especially in its relations to the commercial, industrial, social, educational and sanitary condition of the laboring classes and to the permanent prosperity of the productive industries of the State.

SEC. 3. Section 10075, * * * is hereby amended * * * so that said section when amended shall read as follows:

Sec. 10075. The governor shall, with the advice and consent of the senate, appoint, immediately after this article goes into effect, and every four years thereafter, some suitable person to perform the duties herein required, who shall be known as commissioner of labor statistics, and who shall keep an office in such place as may be designated by the governor.

SEC. 4. Section 10076, * * * is hereby amended * * * so that said section when amended shall read as follows:

Sec. 10076. The commissioner shall, annually, on or before the 5th day of November, present a report in writing, to the governor, which shall contain statistical details [relating] to all departments of labor in the State, together with such other information as is contemplated by section 10074.

SEC. 5. Section 10078, * * * is hereby repealed, and the following section enacted in lieu thereof:

Sec. 10078. The commissioner of labor statistics shall be authorized to have printed not to exceed three thousand copies of his annual report for general distribution, and all printing, binding, bulletins, blanks, stationery or map work shall be done under any contract which the State now has or shall have and the expense thereof shall be audited and paid for in the same manner as for similar [work] for the State, out of the appropriation for the purchase of material, printing and publishing documents for the State.

SEC. 6. Section 10079, * * * is hereby amended * * * so that said section when amended shall read as follows:

Sec. 10079. Any owner, operator, manager or lessee of any mine, factory, workshop, warehouse, elevator, foundry, machine shop or other manufacturing establishment, or any other employer of labor, or any agent or employee of such owner, operator, manager or lessee, who shall refuse to said commissioner, when requested by him, any statistical or other information relative to his duties which may be in their possession or under their control, shall for every such neglect or refusal, be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall on conviction, be fined in a sum not less than twenty-five nor more than one hundred dollars.

SEC. 7. Section 10080, * * * is hereby amended * * * so that said section when amended shall read as follows:

Sec. 10080. The commissioner of labor statistics shall receive an annual salary of two thousand dollars, payable monthly and said commissioner is hereby authorized to employ such assistance and incur such expense, as may be necessary to carry out the provisions of this article, such expense to be paid on the vouchers presented by the commissioner: *Provided, however,* That said expenses shall not exceed, in any one year, the amount appropriated therefor; said commissioner shall before entering upon the duties of his office, execute a bond to the State of Missouri, in the sum of twenty thousand dollars, with two or more good and sufficient sureties, conditioned upon the faithful, honest and impartial performance of his duties under this article, which bond shall be approved by the State auditor and filed in his office. Said commissioner shall include in his annual report to the governor an itemized statement of the expenses of the bureau incurred by him.

SEC. 8. Section 10081, * * * is hereby repealed and the following section enacted in lieu thereof:

Sec. 10081. The commissioner of labor statistics is hereby directed to collect any information he may deem necessary to carry out the objects of the bureau as set forth in section 10074, and is hereby authorized to furnish suitable blanks to managers of public service corporations, county, city and township officers, and to the officers of prisons, penal and reformatory institutions, and it shall be the duty of all such managers and officers to furnish such information as the commissioner may require and which may be in their possession with the least possible delay.

SEC. 9. Section 10082, * * * is hereby amended * * * so that said section when amended shall read as follows:

Sec. 10082. It shall be the duty of every owner, operator or lessee of any factory, foundry or machine shop or other manufacturing establishment doing business within this State to report annually, on or before the first day of March, to the commissioner of the bureau of labor statistics, the name of firm or corporation and the number of members, male and female, constituting the same; where located; capital invested in grounds, buildings and machinery; class and value of goods manufactured; aggregate value of raw material used; total number of days in operation; amount paid yearly for rent, tax and insurance; total amount paid in wages; total number of employees, male and female; number engaged in clerical and manual labor, with detailed classification of the number and sex of employees engaged in each class, and average daily wages paid to each.

SEC. 10. Section 10084, * * * is hereby amended * * * so that said section, when amended shall read as follows:

Sec. 10084. The commissioner of the bureau of labor statistics is hereby authorized to furnish suitable blanks to the owner, operator, manager or lessee of any factory, workshop, elevator, foundry, machine shop or any other manufacturing establishment, to enable said owner, operator, manager or lessee to intelligently comply with the provisions of section 10083 of this article; and any such owner, operator, manager or lessee who shall neglect or refuse to comply with the provisions of this article, or who shall untruthfully answer any question or questions put to him by the commissioner of labor, in a circular or otherwise in furtherance of the provisions of sections 10081 and 10083, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine of not less than one hundred dollars nor more than two hundred dollars.

Approved March 19, 1907.

Hours of labor of railway telegraphers.

(Page 332.)

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any person, corporation or receiver operating a line of railroad in whole or in part in the State of Missouri, or any officer, agent or representative of such person, corporation or receiver, to require or permit any telegraph or telephone operator who spaces trains by the use of the telegraph or telephone under what is known and termed the "block system" (defined as follows): Reporting trains to another office or offices or to a train dispatcher operating one or more trains under signals, and telegraph or telephone levermen, who manipulate interlocking machines in railroad yards or on main tracks out on the lines connecting side tracks or switches, or train dispatchers in its service whose duties substantially, as hereinbefore set forth, pertain to the movement of cars, engines or trains on its railroad by the use of the telegraph or telephone in dispatching or reporting trains or receiving or transmitting train orders as interpreted in this section to be on duty for more than eight hours in a day of twenty-four hours, and it is hereby declared that eight hours shall constitute a day of employment for all laborers or employees engaged in the kind of labor aforesaid: *Provided*, That at stations that are kept open only during the day time where only one telegraph or telephone operator be employed, they may work twelve hours in a day of twenty-four hours, and that the hours of service of telegraph or telephone operators as interpreted in this section shall be consecutive, including one meal hour: *Provided further*, That in case of sickness, death, wrecks or washouts, telegraph or telephone operators may be held on duty not to exceed sixteen hours in a day of twenty-four hours.

SEC. 2. Any person or persons, company or corporation, who shall violate any of the provisions of the preceding section, shall, on conviction, be fined not more than one thousand dollars.

Approved April 12, 1907.

Mine regulations.

(Page 363.)

SECTION 1. Section 8823, * * * [Revised Statutes shall] be amended * * * so that said act shall, when amended, read as follows:

Section 8823. The owner, agent or operator of any coal mine in this State, employing five or more persons, if said mine is worked on the room and pillar plan, shall cause the work in such mine to be prosecuted in the following manner, and none other, to-wit: Two entries must be driven parallel for the ingress and egress of the air, and crosscuts must be made at intervals not to exceed fifty feet apart, and no rooms, entries or other openings shall be allowed to start inside of the last crosscut until the next one be made; and further, that it shall be unlawful for any owner, operator or agent for any person, persons, corporation or company to permit the mouth or mouths [of] worked out or abandoned rooms or entries in any coal mine to remain open for a period exceeding one month from the date of abandonment of any such room, rooms, entry or entries. All such abandoned work as designated must be securely sealed in such manner as will effectually prevent the escape of all gases or other impurities calculated to vitiate the ventilative current of a mine: *Provided*, That the sealing of rooms and entries herein provided for shall only be required in such mines and places therein as the mine inspector shall in his discretion deem necessary for insuring the health and safety of workmen therein.

Approved March 22, 1907.

(Page 364.)

SECTION 1. The State mine inspectors of lead mines, zinc mines and mines other than coal are hereby authorized, empowered and directed to thoroughly inspect all underground excavations in all lead mines, zinc mines and mines other than coal, as often as the inspector may deem proper after the passage and approval of this act, to ascertain the condition of said underground excavations with [respect] to the safety of all employees working in such underground excavations; and, if after such examination, the inspectors shall find that the

safety of the employees engaged in working in such excavations is imperilled by reason of [there] being only one shaft or outlet by which a distinct means of ingress and egress is always available to such employees, it shall be the duty of such inspectors to immediately notify the owner, agent or operator of such mine, in writing, specifying the particular underground excavation so found to be unsafe or dangerous, and direct the owner, agent or operator to, within thirty days after receiving such notice, commence to sink another shaft or outlet for such underground excavation, at [some] point to be agreed to by such inspector, and prosecute the sinking of such shaft or outlet with all due diligence until the same is completed. And the State mine inspectors aforesaid shall have power, if they deem it for the safety of the employees, to order all employees engaged in working in such underground excavations so found to be unsafe or dangerous to quit work until such other shaft or outlet shall have been completed, or until further notified by such inspector.

SEC. 2. The State mine inspectors for lead mines, zinc mines and other mines other than coal are hereby authorized, empowered and directed to thoroughly inspect all underground excavations in all lead mines, zinc mines and mines other than coal, as often as the inspector may deem proper, from and after the passage and approval of this act, and ascertain the condition of such underground excavations with respect to the health of employees engaged in working in such underground excavations; and, if after such examination, the inspector shall find that the health of the employees is impaired by reason of there not being sufficient circulation of air or ventilation for such employees, it shall be the duty of such inspector to immediately notify the owner, agent or operator of such mine, in writing, specifying the underground excavation so found to be unhealthful, and direct such owner, agent or operator of such mine to, within fifteen days after receiving such written notice, commence to drill a sufficient number of air holes for such underground excavation, at some point or points to be agreed to by such inspectors, and prosecute the drilling of such air hole or holes with all due diligence until they are completed. And the inspectors shall have power, if they deem it for the interest of the employees, to order all employees engaged in working in such underground excavations so affected by said notice to quit work until such air hole or holes shall have been completed, or until further notified by such inspector.

SEC. 3. Every person, owner, agent or operator of any lead mines, zinc mines or mines other than coal, who shall violate any of the provisions of this act, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof shall be punished by imprisonment in the county jail for a term not exceeding six months, or by a fine not less than one hundred dollars for each offense, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

Approved March 18, 1907.

Employment of children—School attendance—St. Louis.

(Page 428.)

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 736-738.)

NEBRASKA.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 48.—Liability of employers for injuries to employees—Railroad companies.

(See Bulletin No. 74, p. 72.)

CHAPTER 52.—Time to vote to be allowed employees.

SECTION 34. Any person entitled to vote at a primary election shall, on the day of such election, be entitled to absent himself from any service or employment in which he is then engaged or employed, for a period of two hours between the time of opening and closing the polls, and such voter shall not, because of so absenting himself be liable to any penalty nor shall any deduction be made, on account of such absence, from his usual salary or wages: *Provided,*

however, That application for such leave of absence shall be made prior to the day of the primary.

The employer may specify the hours during which the employee may absent himself.

Approved April 3, 1907.

CHAPTER 66.—*Employment of children—General provisions.*

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 742-747.)

CHAPTER 112.—*Rates of wages on public roads.*

SECTION 2. * * * When necessary in his judgment, such officer [in charge of road work] may, upon one day's notice, written or verbal, communicated in person or by telephone, call out any able-bodied man under fifty years of age, or any team or teams owned by any person in the district, to perform such work upon any road, bridge or culvert in his district as he may direct not exceeding two days at any one time. Going wages to be paid for such men and teams for the time actually worked. * * *

SEC. 3. * * * Such highways [used for rural free delivery mail routes] shall be kept properly drained and dragged and free from all obstructions, including snowdrifts, so as to be at all times in good condition for ordinary travel, and he [the officer in charge of road work] shall pay for the shoveling out of snowdrifts not to exceed 20 cents per hour for one man, and not to exceed 40 cents per hour for a man with team and scraper.

Approved April 6, 1907.

CHAPTER 131.—*Employment of children—School attendance.*

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 741, 742.)

CHAPTER 154.—*Age of employment of night telegraph operators, etc., on railroads.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any common carrier within this State to put in charge of any telegraph office or signal tower, between the hours of seven o'clock in the evening and seven o'clock in the morning, any telegraph operator or towerman whose duty it shall be to assist in the movement of trains, unless such telegraph operator or towerman shall have reached the age of at least twenty-one years; *Provided*, This act shall not apply when such common carrier is engaged in relieving its tracks of a train wreck, an act of God, or some public calamity.

SEC. 2. Any common carrier within this State who shall violate the provisions of section one of this act shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction by any court of competent jurisdiction, shall be fined in any sum of not less than five nor more than fifty dollars for every night any such minor person is so employed in charge of every such railway station or tower.

Approved March 29, 1907.

CHAPTER 160.—*Exemption of wages from attachment, etc.*

SECTION 1. Section 1529 [Code 531a] of Cobbe's Annotated Statutes of Nebraska of 1903 is hereby amended to read as follows:

Section 1529. The wages of all persons who are heads of families, in the hands of those by whom such persons may be employed, both before and after such wages shall be due, shall be exempt from the operation of attachment, execution and garnishee process to the extent of ninety per cent of the amount of such wages; *Provided*, That nothing in this act shall be so construed as to protect the wages of persons who have or are about to abscond or leave the State, from the provisions of law now in force upon that subject.

Approved April 9, 1907.

CHAPTER 171.—*Bribery, etc., of employees.*

SECTION 1. Whoever gives, offers or promises to an agent, employee or servant, any gift or gratuity whatever, without the knowledge and con-

principal, employer or master of such agent, employee or servant, with intent to influence his action in relation to his principal's, employer's or master's business; or an agent, employee or servant who without the knowledge and consent of his principal, employer or master, requests or accepts a gift or gratuity or a promise to make a gift or to do an act beneficial to himself, under an agreement or with an understanding that he shall act in any particular manner to his principal's, employer's or master's business; or an agent employee or servant, who, being authorized to procure materials, supplies or other articles either by purchase or contract for his principal, employer or master, or to employ service or labor for his principal, employer or master, receives directly or indirectly, for himself or for another a commission, discount or bonus from the person who makes such sale or contract, or furnishes such materials, supplies or other articles, or from a person who renders such service or labor; and any person who gives or offers such an agent, employee or servant such commission, discount or bonus shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and shall be punished by a fine of not less than ten dollars nor more than five hundred dollars, or by such fine and by imprisonment in the county jail for not more than one year.

Approved February 26, 1907.

NEVADA.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 44.—*Accidents on railroads.*

SECTION 30. Every railroad shall, whenever an accident attendant with loss of human life occurs within this State, upon its line of road or on its depot grounds or yards, give immediate notice thereof to the [railroad] commission. In the event of any such accident, the commission, if it deem the public interest requires it, shall cause an investigation to be made forthwith, which investigation shall be held in the locality of the accident, unless, for greater convenience of those concerned, it shall order such investigation to be held at some other place, and said investigation may be adjourned from place to place as may be found necessary and convenient. The commission shall seasonably notify an officer or station agent of the company of the time and place of the investigation. The cost of such investigation shall be certified by the chairman of the commission, and the same shall be audited and paid by the State in the same manner as other expenses are audited and paid and a record or file of said proceedings and evidence shall be kept by said commission.

Approved March 5, 1907.

CHAPTER 180.—*Trade-marks of trade unions.*

SECTION 1. Every person or association or union of workmen or others that has adopted or shall adopt for their protection any label, trade-mark or form of advertisement, may file the same for record in the office of the secretary of state by leaving two copies, counterparts or facsimiles thereof with the secretary of state. Said secretary shall thereupon deliver to such person, association or union so filing the same a duly attested certificate of the record of the same, for which he shall receive a fee of two (\$2) dollars. Such certificate of record shall in all actions and prosecutions, under the following three sections be sufficient proof of the adoption of such label, trade-mark or form of advertisement, and the right of said person, association or union to adopt the same.

SEC. 2. Every person, association or union adopting a label, trade-mark, or form of advertisement, as specified in the preceding section, may proceed by action to enjoin the manufacture, use, display or sale of any counterfeit or imitation thereof; and all courts having jurisdiction of such actions shall grant injunctions to restrain such manufacture, use, display or sale and a reasonable attorney's fee, to be fixed by the court, and shall require the defendant to pay to such person, association or union the profits derived from such wrongful manufacture, use, display or sale, and a reasonable attorney's fee to be fixed by the court, and said court shall also order that all such counterfeits or imitations in the possession or under the control of any defendant in such case be delivered to an officer of the court to be destroyed. Such actions may be prose-

cuted for the benefit of any association or union by any officers or members thereof.

SEC. 3. It shall be unlawful for any person or corporation to imitate any label, trade-mark or form of advertisement adopted as provided in the second preceding section, or to knowingly use any counterfeit or imitation thereof, or to use or display such genuine label, trade-mark or form or [of] advertisement or the name or seal of such person, union, or association, or of any officer thereof, unless authorized so to do, or in any manner not authorized by him or it. Any person violating any provisions of this section shall be imprisoned in the county jail not more than thirty days or be fined not less than twenty-five nor more than one hundred dollars.

Approved March 29, 1907.

CHAPTER 181.—*Arbitration of labor disputes.*

SECTION 1. Whenever a controversy concerning wages, hours of labor, or conditions of employment shall arise between an employer and his employees, seriously interrupting or threatening to interrupt the business of the employer, the governor shall, upon the request of either party to the controversy, with all practicable expedition, put himself in communication with the parties to such controversy, and shall use his best efforts, by mediation and conciliation, to amicably settle the same. He may either exercise such powers of conciliation himself, or appoint a commission for such purpose. If such efforts of conciliation shall be unsuccessful, the governor shall at once endeavor to bring about an arbitration of such controversy in accordance with the provisions of this act.

SEC. 2. That whenever such controversy shall arise between an employer and his employees which can not be settled by mediation and conciliation in the manner provided in the preceding section, such controversy may, with the consent of the parties to the controversy, be submitted to the arbitration of a board of three persons who shall be chosen in the manner following: One shall be named by the employer directly interested; the other by the labor organization to which the employees directly interested belong, or if they belong to more than one, such arbitrator shall be agreed upon and designated by the concurrent action of all such labor organizations. The two thus chosen shall select the third commissioner of arbitration, but in the event of their failure to name such arbitrator within five days after their first meeting, the three arbitrators shall be named by the governor. A majority of said arbitrators shall be competent to make a binding and valid award under the provisions hereof. The submission shall be in writing, shall be signed by the employer and by the labor organization or organizations representing employees, shall specify the time and place of meeting of such board of arbitration, shall state the questions to be decided, and shall contain appropriate provisions by which the respective parties shall stipulate as follows:

First—That the board of arbitration shall commence their hearings within ten days from the date of the appointment of the third arbitrator, and shall find and file their award within thirty days from the date of the appointment of the third arbitrator; and that pending the arbitration the status existing immediately prior to the dispute shall not be changed: *Provided*, That no employee shall be compelled to render personal service without his consent.

Second—That the award and the papers and proceedings, including the testimony relating thereto certified under the hands of the arbitrators, shall be filed in the clerk's office of the district court for the district wherein the controversy arises or the arbitration is entered into, and shall be final and conclusive upon both parties, unless set aside for error of law apparent on the record.

Third—That the respective parties to the award will each faithfully execute the same, and that the same may be specifically enforced in equity so far as the powers of a court of equity permit: *Provided*, That no injunction or other legal process shall be issued which shall compel the performance by any laborer against his will of a contract for personal labor or service.

Fourth—That employees dissatisfied with the award shall not by reason of such dissatisfaction quit the service of the employer before the expiration of three months from and after the making of such award without giving thirty days' notice in writing of their intention so to quit. Nor shall the employer dissatisfied with such award dismiss any employee or employees on account of

such dissatisfaction before the expiration of three months from and after the making of such award without giving thirty days' notice in writing of his intention so to discharge.

Fifth—That said award shall continue in force as between the parties thereto for the period of one year after the same shall go into practical operation, and no new arbitration upon the same subject between the same employer and the same class of employees shall be had until the expiration of said one year if the award is not set aside as provided.

SEC. 3. That the award being filed in the clerk's office of the district court, as hereinbefore provided, shall go into practical operation, and judgment shall be entered thereon accordingly at the expiration of ten days from such filing, unless within such ten days either party shall file exceptions thereto for matter of law apparent on the record, in which case said award shall go into practical operation and judgment be entered accordingly when such exceptions shall have been finally disposed of either by said district court or on appeal therefrom. At the expiration of ten days from the decision of the district court upon exception taken to said award as aforesaid, judgment shall be entered in accordance with said decision, unless during said ten days either party shall appeal therefrom to the supreme court of the State of Nevada. In such case only such portion of the record shall be transmitted to the supreme court as is necessary to a proper understanding and consideration of the questions of law presented by said exceptions and to be decided. The determination of said supreme court upon said questions shall be final, and being certified by the clerk thereof to said district court, judgment pursuant thereto shall thereupon be entered by said district court. If exceptions to an award are finally sustained, judgment shall be entered setting aside the award, but in such case the parties may agree upon a judgment to be entered disposing of the subject-matter of the controversy, which judgment when entered shall have the same force and effect as judgment entered upon award.

SEC. 4. That for the purposes of this act the arbitrators herein provided for, or either of them, shall have power to administer oaths and affirmations, sign subpoenas, require the attendance and testimony of witnesses, and the production of such books, papers, contracts, agreements, and documents material to a just determination of the matters under investigation, as may be ordered by the courts; and may invoke the aid of the said courts to compel witnesses to attend and testify, and to produce such books, papers, contracts, agreements and documents as the courts shall determine to be material and competent evidence.

SEC. 5. That every agreement of arbitration under this act shall be acknowledged by the parties before a notary public or clerk of the district court of the State, and when so acknowledged a copy of the same shall be filed with and recorded by the county recorder of the county in which the arbitration is entered into, and a copy shall also be sent to the governor who shall file the same in the office of the secretary of state, who shall cause a notice in writing to be served upon the arbitrators, fixing the time and place for a meeting of said board, which shall be within fifteen days from the execution of said agreement of arbitration: *Provided, however,* That the governor shall decline to call a meeting of the arbitrators under such agreement unless it be shown to his satisfaction that the employees signing the submission represent or include a majority of all the employees in the service of the same employer and of the same grade and class, and that an award pursuant to said submission can justly be regarded as binding upon all such employees.

SEC. 6. That during the pendency of arbitration under this act it shall not be lawful for the employer, party to such arbitration, to discharge the employees, parties thereto, except for inefficiency, violation of law, or neglect of duty; nor for the organization representing such employees to order, nor for the employees to unite in, aid or abet, strikes against said employer; nor, during a period of three months after an award under such an arbitration, for such employer to discharge any such employees, except for the causes aforesaid, without giving thirty days' written notice of an intent so to discharge; nor for any of such employees, during a like period, to quit the service of said employer without just cause, without giving to said employer thirty days' written notice of an intent so to do; nor for such organization representing such employees to order, counsel, or advise otherwise. Any violation of this section shall subject the offending party to liability for damages: *Provided,* That nothing herein contained shall be construed to prevent any employer, party to such arbitration,

from reducing the number of its or his employees whenever in its or his judgment business necessities require such a reduction.

SEC. 7. The agreement of arbitration shall provide for the compensation of arbitrators, and their traveling and other necessary expenses.

Approved March 29, 1907.

CHAPTER 184.—*Examination, etc., of steam engineers at mines.*

SECTION 2. Section one of the * * * act [of March 17, 1905] is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

Section 1. In addition to the various other powers and duties provided by law for the boards of county commissioners of the several counties of this State said boards shall have the power, and it is hereby made their duty, to regulate the operation of stationary engines, steam apparatus or other hoisting machinery used for the purpose of hoisting or lowering men or material from a shaft or mine subject to and in conformity with the provisions of this act.

SEC. 3. Section three of the * * * act is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

Sec. 3. No license shall be granted or issued to any person to operate any stationary engine, steam boiler, hoist, apparatus or machinery, until the applicant therefor shall have taken and subscribed to an oath that he has had at least one year's experience in the operation of steam boilers and machinery, or whose knowledge and experience is not such as to justify the board before whom such application is made in the belief that he is competent to take charge of all classes of steam boilers and other stationary hoisting machinery.

SEC. 4. Section seven of the * * * act is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

SEC. 7. Any person operating any stationary engine, steam boiler, hoist or other stationary machinery or apparatus or hoisting machinery used for the purpose of hoisting or lowering men or material from a shaft or mine, where the lives, health or limbs of men may be involved, who has not first procured the license herein provided for, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof in any court of competent jurisdiction, shall be fined in a sum not less than fifty (\$50) dollars nor more than two hundred and fifty (\$250) dollars, or by imprisonment in the county jail not less than thirty nor more than one hundred and twenty days, or by both such fine and imprisonment, in the discretion of the court: *Provided*, That nothing in this act contained shall be held to apply to those operating in person their own private apparatus nor to persons operating any stationary engine, steam boiler or other apparatus or machinery for town or city purposes.

Approved March 29, 1907.

CHAPTER 186.—*Hours of labor of telegraph operators, etc., on railroads.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any person, corporation or association operating a railroad within this State to permit any telegraph or telephone operator who spaces trains by the use of the telegraph or telephone under what is known and termed "block system" (defined as follows): Reporting trains to another office or offices or to a train dispatcher operating one or more trains under signals, and telegraph and telephone levermen who manipulate interlocking machines in railroad yards or on main tracks out on the lines connecting said tracks or switches, or train dispatchers in its service whose duties substantially as hereinbefore set forth, pertain to the movement of cars, engines or trains on its railroad by the use of telegraph or telephone in dispatching or reporting trains or receiving or transmitting train orders as interpreted in this section, to be on duty for more than eight hours in any twenty-four consecutive hours.

SEC. 2. Any person, corporation or association that shall violate section 1 of this act, shall pay a fine of one hundred dollars for each violation of this act.

SEC. 3. The fine mentioned in section 2 of this act shall be recovered by an action of debt in the name of the State of Nevada for the use of the State, who shall sue for it against such person, corporation or association violating this act, said suit to be instituted in any court in this State having appropriate jurisdiction.

SEC. 4. The said fine when recovered as aforesaid, shall be paid without any deduction whatever, one-half thereof to the informer and the balance thereof to be paid in to the public school fund of the State of Nevada.

Approved March 29, 1907.

CHAPTER 202.—*Rate of wages of laborers on public works.*

SECTION 1. On all public works carried on in the erection of public buildings by or for the State of Nevada, or by any individual, firm, company, or corporation under contract with the State of Nevada, unskilled labor shall be paid for at a rate of not less than three (\$3) dollars per eight-hour day for each male person over the age of eighteen years who shall be employed at such labor.

SEC. 2. Any person or persons, firm or corporation conducting or carrying on any public work, as specified in section 1 of this act, that shall violate the provisions of this act, upon conviction of such violation in a court of competent jurisdiction, shall be fined the sum of fifty (\$50) dollars for each man employed at such labor for not less than three (\$3) dollars per eight-hour day.

Approved March 29, 1907.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

ACTS OF 1907.

CHAPTER 94.—*Hours of labor of women and children.*

(See Bulletin No. 73, pp. 748, 749.)

CHAPTER 113.—*Electric railways—Cars to have power brakes.*

SECTION 1. On or before May 1st, 1910, all eight-wheeled or double-truck cars, so called, operated by electric power, for the purpose of conveying passengers, by any street railway in the State of New Hampshire shall be provided with power brakes of a standard of efficiency to be approved by the railroad commissioners.

SEC. 2. Any street railway failing to comply with the provisions of section 1 of this act shall be liable to a fine of ten dollars (\$10) per day for each car operated without such equipment.

Approved April 4, 1907.

CHAPTER 142.—*Barber shops—Inspection, etc.*

SECTION 1. Boards of health of towns and cities are hereby authorized and directed to promulgate the following rules and regulations for the management of barber shops. Barber shops or places where the trade is carried on shall be kept at all times in a cleanly condition. Mugs, shaving brushes and razors shall be sterilized by immersion in boiling water or some sterilizing solution after every separate use thereof. A clean towel shall be used for each person. Alum, or other material, used to stop the flow of blood shall be used only in powdered form. The use of powder puffs and sponges is prohibited. Every barber shop shall be provided with hot water. No person or persons shall be allowed to sleep in any room used wholly or in part for tonsorial purposes nor shall the business of a barber be carried on in any room used as a sleeping apartment. Every barber shall cleanse his hands thoroughly immediately after serving each customer.

SEC. 2. Any person violating any of the rules and regulations prescribed herein, or any other rules and regulations, prescribed by the boards of health for the protection of the public health in barber shops shall be fined not less than ten dollars for each offense.

SEC. 3. From and after the passage of this act it shall be the duty of boards of health in the several towns and cities to regularly inspect all barber shops and prosecute such violation of the rules and regulations as may come or be brought to their notice.

Approved April 5, 1907.

MULATIVE INDEX OF LABOR LAWS AND DECISIONS RELATING THERETO.

This index includes all labor laws enacted since January 1, 1904, and published in successive issues of Bulletin, beginning with Bulletin No. 57, the issue of March, 1905. Laws enacted previously appear in the Tenth Special Report of the Commissioner of Labor. The decisions indexed under the various headings relate to the laws on the same subjects without regard to their date of enactment and are indicated by the letter "D" in parenthesis following the name of the State. Opinions of the Attorney-General on the construction, etc., of labor laws are similarly indexed, and are indicated by the abbreviation "Op." in parenthesis.]

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